

Volume 1

Human Life



By Marcia S. Freeman

Editorial Consultant Luana Mitten Project Editor Kurt Sturm

Rourke Publishing LLC Vero Beach, Florida 32964

Table of Contents

© 2008 Rourke Publishing LLC

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced or utilized in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical including photocopying, recording, or by any information storage and retrieval system without permission in writing from the publisher.

www.rourkepublishing.com

Photo credits

Page 4a © Sonja Foos; Page 4b © Andi Berger; Page 5a © Otmar Smit; Page 5b © Photodisc; Page 6 © Wikipedia; Page 7a © Oguz Aral; Page 8a © David Huntley; Page 8b © Chin Kit Sen; Page 9 © angelhell; Page 10a © Annette Diekmann; Page 10b © Trevor Dodd; Page 11 © sgame; Page 12a © Max Blain; Page 12b © Paulaphoto; Page 13a © Agnieszka Steinhagen; Page 13b © Anyka; Page 14a © Monika Wisniewska; Page 14b © Carsten Madsen; Page 15 © Christos Georghiou; Page 16 © Linda Bucklin; Page 17 © Linda Bucklin; Page 18 © Sebastian Kaulitzki; Page 19a © Sebastian Kaulitzki; Page 19b © Sebastian Kaulitzki; Page 20a © absolut 100; Page 20b © DSGpro; Page 20c © Kenneth C. Zirkel; Page 20d © Mark Evans; Page 21 © Gilmanshin; Page 22a © Lara Barrett; Page 22b © Wikipedia; Page 23a © Condor 36; Page 23b © Edyta Linek; Page 23c © prism_68; Page 24 © Irene Stuehmeier; Page 26 © Iisafx; Page 26b © Sebastian Kaulitzki; Page 27 © Fred Goldstein; Page 27b © Andreas Schleicher; Page 27c © domin23; Page 28 © Graca VictoriaPage 28b © Sebastian Kaulitzki; Page 29 © USDA.GOV; Page 30 © arlindo71; Page 30b © Martin Spurny; Page 30c © Alin Popescu; Page 30d © Katrina Leigh; Page 30e © Stavchansky Yakov; Page 30f © Otmar Smit; Page 30g © Gareth Leung; Page 30h © khz; Page 30i © Kapustin Oleg Vladimirovich; Page 31 © Carme Balcells; Page 31b © Pascale Wowak; Page 31c © Niamh Baldock; Page 32 © Andi Berger; Page 33 © wikipedia; Page 33c © Michael Ströck; Page 34 © Digitalskillet; Page 34b © Stephen Sweet; Page 35 © geopaul; Page 35b © angelhell; Page 36 © tiburonstudios; Page 38 © Maxim Tupikov; Page 38b © Melissa King; Page 39 © GeoM; Page 39b © Scott Rothstein; Page 40b © Elena Elisseeva; Page 41 © Serghei Starus; Page 41b © Simone van den Berg; Page 41c © Jill Fromer; Page 42 © Andrew Gentry; Page 42b © DSGpro; Page 42c © angelhell; Page 42d © Niamh Baldock; Page 42e © GeoM; Page 42f © Digitalskillet; Page 43a © Digitalskillet; Page 43b © Andrew Gentry; Page 44 © Maxim Petrichuk Page 45 © czardases; Page 45b © Katrina Brown; Page 45c © Jaimie Duplass; Page 46 © marissa childs; Page 46b © Kenneth William Caleno; Page 47 © wikipedia; Page 47b © wikipedia; Page 47c © Isabelle Mory; Page 48 © XAOC; Page 48b © Jamie Wilson; Page 48d © jez gunnell; Page 49 © Robert Gubbins; Page 49b © Library of Congress; Page 50 © Center For Disease Control; Page 52 © wikipedia; Page 53 © Lisa F. Young; Page 54 © Andrey Ushakov; Page 54 © Perrush; Page 55 © Serg64; Page 55b © Peter Elvidge; Page 56 © John Harold; Page 56b © Cynthia Kidwell; Page 56c © Center For Disease Control; Page 56d © Karel Slavík; Page 57 © Nancy Louie; Page 57b © christine balderas; Page 57c © Baloncici; Page 58 © Bronwyn8; Page 58b © Annette Diekmann; Page 58c © Emrah Turudu; Page 58d © Karen Squires; Page 58e © Joseph Abbott; Page 59 © Agnieszka Steinhagen; Page 59b © Sebastian Kaulitzki; Page 59c © David Marchal; Page 59d © paulaphoto; Page 59e © Clara Natoli; Page 60 © PhotoCreate; Page 60b © Mats; Page 60c © Yvan Dubé; Page 60d © Jorge Salcedo; Page 60e © Raf; Page 61 © wikipedia; Page 61b © wikipedia

Editor: Luana Mitten

Cover design by Nicola Stratford. Blue Door Publishing

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Rourke's world of science encyclopedia / Marcia Freeman ... [et al.]. v. cm.
Includes bibliographical references and index.
Contents: [1] Human life --ISBN 978-1-60044-646-7
1. Science--Encyclopedias, Juvenile. 2. Technology--Encyclopedias, Juvenile. I. Freeman, Marcia S. (Marcia Sheehan), 1937-Q121.R78 2008
503--dc22

Volume 1 of 10 ISBN 978-1-60044-647-4

Printed in the USA

CG/CG



What Is Life?

The Human Body: Organs and Sys

Cells
The Nerves and Brain
The Heart and Blood
The Lungs
The Stomach and Intestines
Bones and Muscles
The Kidneys and Bladder
The Reproductive Organs

How The Body Works

The Senses		• •	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Circulation		• •	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Respiration		• •	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	
Digestion	•	• •	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	

Genetics

Chrome	osomes	••	 ••	••	••			•
Genes		•••	 	••	•••	•••	•••	•

The Life Cycle

Pregnancy and Birth
Growth
Adolescence and Puberty
Aging
How Life Ends

Health and Illness

Injuri	es			•	•	•	 •				•	•	•	
Healiı	ng			•	•	•	 •				•	•	•	
Infect	ions			•	•	•	 •	•				•	•	•
Immu	nizati	ion		•	•	•	 •				•	•	•	
Genet	ic Di	iseas	ses	•	•	•	 •	•				•	•	•
Allerg	gies .				•	•	 •		•	•	•	•	•	•

People Who Study the Human Bod

Specialists	•••	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	
Milestones	in	N	Л	e	d	ic	ci	n	e		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	

•		•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	.4
•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•••	•	•	••	.4
•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•••	•	•	•••	.6
																												.7
																												.7
•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	• •	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•••	•	•	•••	.8
•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•		•	٠	•	•	•	•		•	•	•		•	•		.10
•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•		•	٠	•	•	•	•		•	•	•		•	•		.12
•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	• •	•	٠	•	•	•	•		•	•	•		•	•		.13
•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	• •	•	٠	•	•	•	•		•	•	•		•	•		.14
•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•			•	•		•	•		.18
	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•		•	•		.19
•		•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	.21
	•				•	•	•	•	•		•	•		•	•	•	•		•			•	•			•		.21
	•				•	•	•	•	•		•	•		•	•	•	•		•			•	•			•		.24
	•				•	•	•	•	•		•	•		•	•	•	•		•			•	•			•		.26
•		•	•		•	•	•	•	•					•		•	•						•			•		.28
•		•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	.30
•		•	•		•	•	•	•	•					•		•	•						•			•		.30
•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•		•	•	•	•					•	•			•		.31
•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	.33
	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•		•	•		.34
	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•		•	•		.38
	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•		•	•		.39
•		•	•		•	•	•	•	•		•	•		•		•	•		•			•	•			•		.40
•		•	•		•	•	•	•	•		•	•		•		•	•		•			•	•			•		.42
•		•	•	•	•			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	.44
•		•	•		•	•	•	•	•		•	•		•		•	•		•			•	•			•		.44
•		•	•		•	•	•	•	•		•	•		•		•	•		•			•	•			•		.46
	•				•	•	•	•	•		•	•		•	•	•	•		•			•	•			•		.47
•		•	•		•	•	•	•	•					•		•	•						•					.50
•		•	•		•	•	•	•	•					•		•	•						•					.52
											•					•							•					.54
ŀ	y		•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	.57
	-																											.57
•	٠	٠		•	•	•	•	•	•	• •	•	•	• •	•	٠	• •	•	٠	٠	• •	٠	٠	•	•••	٠	٠	• •	

What Is Life?

Look around you. All the stuff, or matter, in the world is either living or non-living. Stuff such as rocks, metals, plastic, water, and air are non-living.

Living things include plants and animals, humans and other mammals, insects, birds, and reptiles. Add the living things such as worms and millipedes in the soil, and the fish, crustaceans, and such in the sea. Add all the living organisms that are too small for you to see like the bacteria, molds, and viruses. The world is teeming with life.

Different forms of life are alike in many ways. They all need water and energy to live, grow, and reproduce. Green plants make their own food but animals need to eat. They both convert, or turn, food into energy. Most living things need oxygen and water.

Classifying Living Things

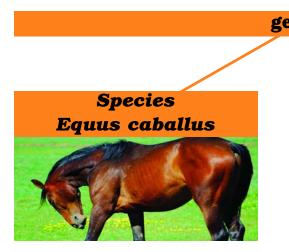
Classification is how scientists organize and name plants and animals. When scientists discover a new animal or plant, they

The girl and the plants and animals around her are living things. The paper bag she is holding is non-living.

You should drink about 64 ounces (1.8 kilograms) of water every day.

compare it to similar living things. Then they place the new specimen in a group with which it shares the most attributes, or characteristics. Scientists divide living things into kingdoms, phyla and subphyla,

classes, orders, families, genus, and species. Each group describ the attributes of the living thing more detail. All known plants an animals have scientific names. Each Latin scientific name tells us





Carl von Linné was born in Sweden in 1707. We know

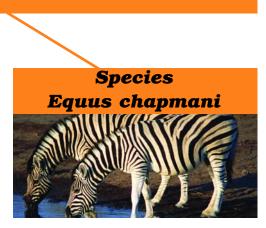
him by his Latin name, Carolus Linnaeus. Linnaeus was know... interested in nature and plants. He taught himself about biology and botany, the study of plants.

He devised a system to classify all the plants and animals known at that time. He described living things and grouped them by their shared physical characteristics. For instance, he put animals with backbones, or vertebrae, in one group and those without a backbone in another. He put animals that laid eggs in one group and those that bear live young in another. Linnaeus gave each group and each kind of living thing a Latin name made up of two descriptive words. Scientists refer to this system as the binomial (two names) system of nomenclature (naming).

In 1735 he published a series of books, Systema Naturae which described and named all the animals and plants known at that time. Scientists today still use his binomial classification system to organize and understand all living things.

	the living thing's genus and species.
bes	A horse's scientific name is Equus
in	caballus and a zebra's is Equus
nd	chapmani. They are in the
	same genus.

genus: Equus



Linnaeus

Humans

Scientists classify humans in the animal kingdom. We belong to the subphylum Vertebrata. This means that we have spines or back bones. We are in the class Mammalia (mammals), animals that nurse their young. Humans are in the order Primates. They are omnivores with opposing thumbs and a big brain. The genus and species name for human beings is Homo sapiens. These Latin words mean man and knowing.

Characteristics of Primates

- tendency towards walking upright on two feet
- having five fingers and five toes
- opposing thumbs
- flexible shoulder joints and strong collarbones, or clavicles
- binocular vision using both eyes to produce three dimensional (3-D) view
- omnivorous eating both plants and animals
- long gestation (pregnancy) periods for animals of their size
- social behavior spending time with each other
- large brain size relative to body
- vocalization producing a variety of sounds from vocal cords



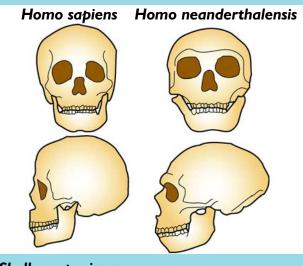
Early Humans

Long before *Homo* sapiens, there were other types of human-

like primates, or humanoids, called Homo neanderthalensis. They had thick bones and smaller brains than Homo sapiens. Scientists found evidence that they used some tools.

Scientists believe that modern Homo sapiens evolved from Homo erectus. Homo erectus comes from the Latin words for man and upright. Homo erectus had a larger brain than the Neanderthals. Scientists have found evidence that they used stone tools for hunting and cooking food.

Homo sapiens began to appear 250,000 years ago in Africa, Europe, and Asia. Over time, they spread to America and Australia. They had even larger brains than Homo erectus and smaller jaws and teeth. Homo sapiens developed language to communicate with one another.

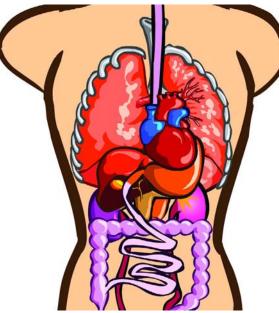


Skull comparisons

The Human Body: Organs and Systems

Your body is like a complex machine. Many parts make up your body and work to keep you going. Some parts, like your eyes and hands, are easy to see. Som parts, like your vocal cords, hide inside your body. When you hum the vibrations you feel are your vocal cords at work.

Some parts of the body are so small you can't see them without a microscope. The smallest parts are cells. Groups of similar cells form tissue, and tissues form organs. Your heart, lungs, and brain are examples of organs. A group of organs work together to form a system such as the digestive system.



Groups of cells make up tissue. Tissue forms organs. Organs work together as systems.

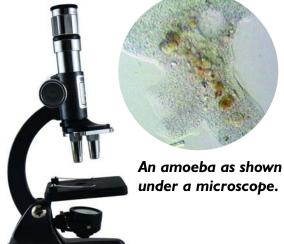
Cells

1	Cells make up all living things.
s	Some microscopic organisms,
ıe	such as amoeba and paramecium,
e	consist of just a single cell. But
n,	most animals have millions
	of cells.
	of cells.











evolve (i-VOLV): to change slowly

humanoid (HYOO-min-oyd): having humanlike characteristics

specimen (SPESS-uh-muhn): a sample or an example used to stand for the whole group

successive (suhk-SESS-iv): following in a logical or sequential order

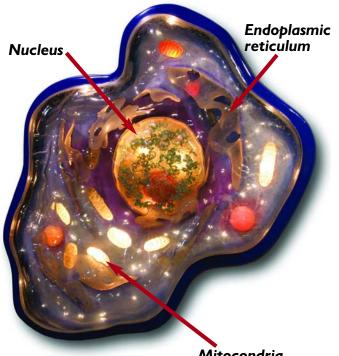
teem (teem): to be very full, to swarm

A jell-like substance called protoplasm fills every cell. A thin cell membrane surrounds the protoplasm (picture a plastic baggie filled with jelly). Plant cells differ in that they may have walls of cellulose outside the membrane.

The cell membrane allows water, oxygen, and nutrients in and carbon dioxide and other wastes out.

Organelles

In addition, most cells contain specialized parts, or organelles, that have specific jobs. The cells contain a nucleus, mitochondria, and an endoplasmic reticulum.



Mitocondria

The nucleus contains the genetic material that controls what each part of the cell does. Mitocondria are "cellular power plants" that convert food to energy. The endoplasmic reticulum (endo means inside) is a folded membrane that makes proteins and fat.



Your outer skin cells. hair, toenails, and fingernails, are all dead cells.

Several layers of cells make up your skin, the largest organ of your body. The living and active cells are in the bottom layers, closest to the blood supply. The live cells in

the bottom layers push up the cells that die to the surface. Every four weeks, you have grown a completely new skin!

Magnified view of human skin.

The Nerves and Brain

Your nerves, spinal cord, and brain form the nervous system. Long, thin neurons or nerve cells make this system work.

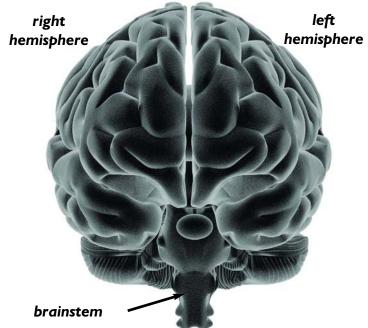
Many neurons make a strand to form long nerves. Between the

ends of each neuron in a strand is a gap, or synapse. Electrical signals, to and from the brain, travel along a nerve by jumping across the synapse.

Brain Areas

The brain has two sides, or work together for the body to walk, hemispheres. The left hemisphere eat, or play the drums. The upper and inner part of the controls the right side of the body. The right hemisphere controls the brain is the cerebrum. It responds left side of the body. The brain is so to the electrical signals from your complex that scientists are always eyes, ears, and other sense organs. learning new things about what all The cerebrum processes the signals, of its parts do. turning them into sights, sounds, The lower part of the brain is the smells, tastes, and sensations. brain stem. It controls involuntary The cerebrum also controls thought, functions, such as breathing and memories, and speech.

blinking. These functions happen without you having to think about them.



This X-ray shows a front view of a brain, clearly showing the two hemispheres.

The middle part of the brain is the cerebellum. It controls balance and movement of muscles. Electrical signals start in the brain, travel along nerves in the spinal cord inside your spine, and then out to your muscles. Many muscles

Injury to some parts of the brain can make people forget things. They may even forget who they are. In some cases of brain damage, the individual must learn how to walk. speak, or read again.



axon (AK-sohn): the usually long part of a nerve fiber that carries signals away from the nerve cell body

involuntary (in-VOL-uhn-ter-ee): done without a person's control

respond (ri-SPOND): to react to something

strand (strand): something that looks like a thread or string

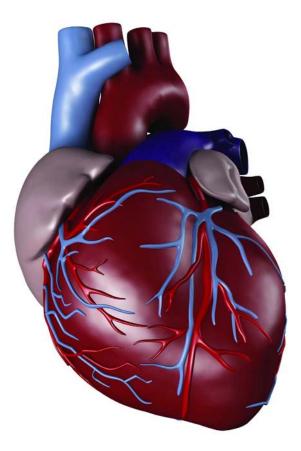
synapse (SIN-apse): the junction across which a nerve impulse passes from one axon to another, or from an axon to a muscle cell

Life

The Heart and Blood

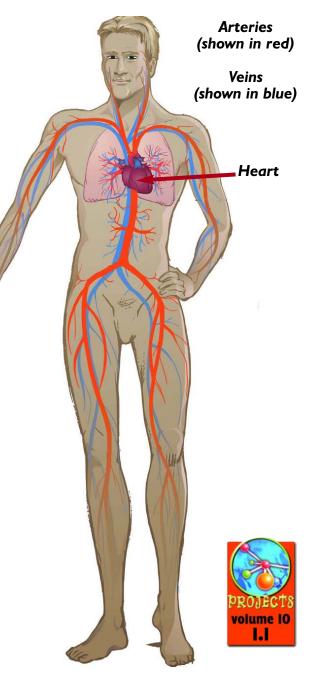
Your heart and blood vessels are in charge of your blood's circulation. The heart, a large and strong muscle, is the pump. It consists of four chambers: right and left atriums and right and left ventricles. The atriums receive blood and the ventricles send blood out.

The heart squeezes, or contracts, many times in a minute to keep blood flowing to all parts of the body. You can feel your heartbeat. Place your fingers gently on the side of your neck below the chin. You should feel a repetitive beat or pulse.



Blood Vessels

Arteries are the blood vessels that carry blood from the heart to the rest of your body. Veins are the blood vessels that bring the blood back to the heart. The blood vessels closest to the heart are larger than the ones that supply your organs and your arms and legs.



The arteries and veins eventually end in small blood vessels called capillaries. They are the blood vessels at the cellular level, delivering oxygen and nutrients and carrying away carbon dioxide and waste products. The capillaries are so thin that blood cells travel through them single file.

Blood Cells and Plasma

Red blood cells and white blood cells in a yellow liquid, or fluid, called plasma is what makes up your blood. You can see plasma if you have a blister. The liquid in the blister is plasma.

A red blood cell (erythrocyte) is doughnut shaped and does not have a nucleus. It contains Hemophilia, an hemoglobin, a special substance inherited disease, is a that carries oxygen. White blood more condition in which a cells (leukocytes) come in various person's blood will not clot at all. A sizes and shapes and have a person with hemophilia must be very nucleus. White blood cells fight careful. It is hard to stop the bleeding infection and disease. They attack even on a very small cut. the microscopic organisms we call germs.

Plasma, the liquid part of the blood, contains platelets (thrombocytes) that help blood clot when blood vessels are injured. The blood must clot or the body cannot heal itself.

Human Life



If you looked at your blood through a microscope, the red and white cells would look like this.



circulation (sur-kyuh-LAY-shun): the movement of blood in blood vessels through the body

clot (klot): to become thicker and more solid

inherit (in-HER-it): passed down through
genes from parent to child

The Lungs

Two lungs and a windpipe, or trachea, make up your respiratory system. The system delivers oxygen to your cells and carries away carbon dioxide.

Breathing

When you breathe in, air moves down your throat through the trachea (windpipe). The trachea branches out into smaller and smaller tubes called bronchioles. They end finally, deep in your lungs, in little round sacs called alveoli. These look like bunches of grapes. Capillaries crisscross the very thin walls of the alveoli. Your capillaries transport the red blood cells that carry oxygen.

When you breathe out, air comes from your lungs and out your nose or mouth. Breathing is the only way your body gets



capillary (KAP-uh-ler-ee): the smallest blood vessels in your body

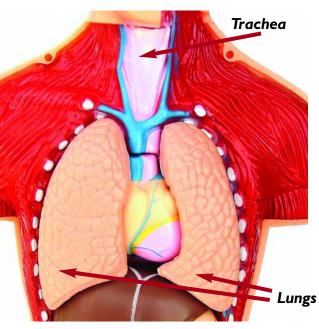
carbon dioxide (KAR-buhn dye-OK-side): a gaseous chemical compound of oxygen and carbon

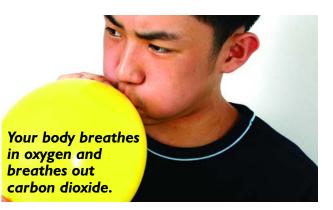
irreparable (ihr-REP-er-uh-buhl): not able to be repaired

oxygen (OK-suh-juhn): a colorless gas component of air

passage (PASS-ij): a hall, tube, or tunnel

oxygen (O_2) and gets rid of the carbon dioxide (CO₂) produced by your body's cells.





Breathing becomes difficult if the passages become smaller, or constrict. This is what happens in the disease called asthma. You can still breathe with one damaged lung but not if you damage both lungs. Smoking and breathing fumes or chemicals can damage your lungs irreparably.

The Stomach and Intestines

The stomach and intestines make up most of the gastrointestinal system. The prefix gastro means stomach. Your mouth, salivary glands, esophagus, liver, and pancreas are also important parts of the GI (short for gastro-intestinal) system.

We also call this system the digestive system because it breaks down, or digests, the food you eat. When you chew and swallow, food travels down your esophagus. The esophagus ends at a large sack-like organ called the stomach.

The food then moves into the small intestine and finally into the large intestine.



After you swallow food, muscles in your esophagus move it down into your stomach.



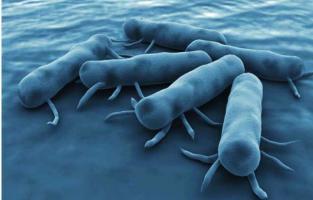
Stomack Small Intestine Rectum

The intestines, known also as guts, are tubes with muscles and capillaries lining their walls. The intestine walls are as thin as plastic wrap. Digested food, broken down into small molecules, passes into the capillaries.

Food that is not absorbed in the small intestine enters the large intestine, or colon. The lowest part of the large intestine is the rectum. The remaining undigested food is called feces. Feces leave the body through an opening called the anus.

When Digestion Goes Wrong (Bellyaches)

Sometimes, your stomach and intestines may hurt. If you ate food that contained harmful bacteria, food poisoning is causing the pain.



Salmonella is a dangerous bacteria that causes food poisoning. This is how it looks when viewed through a microscope.

When the body tries to get rid of the toxins produced by the bacteria, it moves the food quickly through the intestines. The feces retain a lot of water that would normally be absorbed. We call this diarrhea.

The opposite of diarrhea is constipation. Constipation is when food moves too slowly through the digestive tract, or system, and the undigested food becomes dry and hard.



absorb (ab-SORB): to soak up liquid

bacteria (bak-TIHR-ee-uh): microscopic living things that exist all around you and inside you

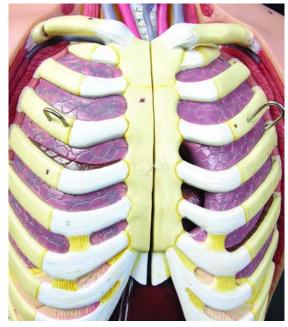
Bones and Muscles

Two hundred and six bones form your skeleton. The skeleton is a framework that supports the rest of your body.

Bones

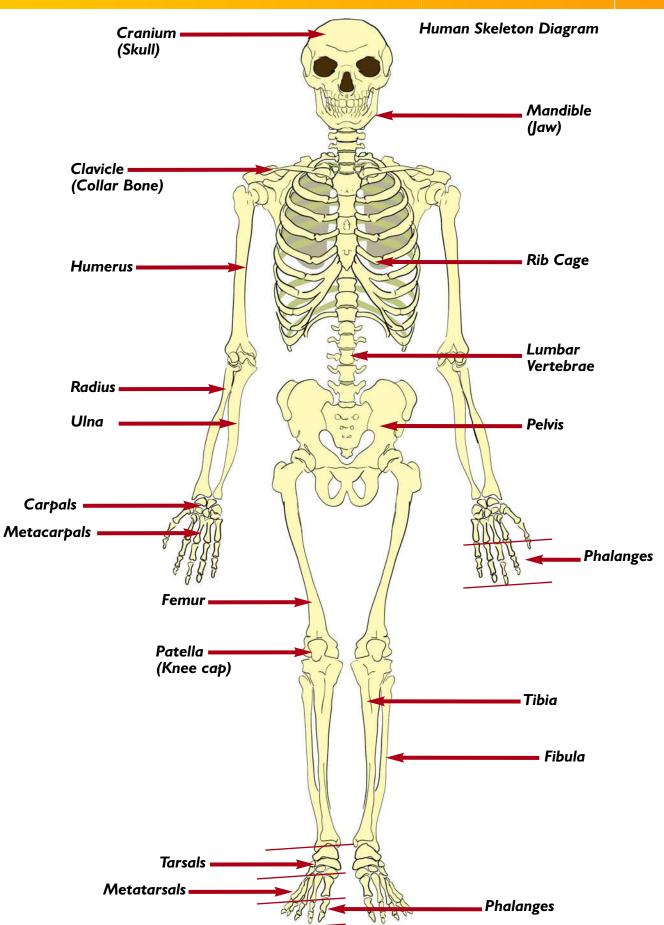
The outside of a bone is hard. Many bones end in smooth cartilage, a tough but softer tissue. The end of your nose is cartilage. Many bones are hollow and filled with a gooey material called marrow that produces red blood cells.

Some bones provide protection for the nervous system. The skull protects your brain. The vertebrae that form your spine protect your spinal cord. Your ribs form a cage to protect your heart and lungs.



Ribs protect the heart and lungs.





loints

Other bones allow you to move. Ligaments attach bones together at joints. Ligaments are a stiff, slightly elastic tissue. Soft cushionlike discs between each set of vertebrae allow your spine to bend and twist.

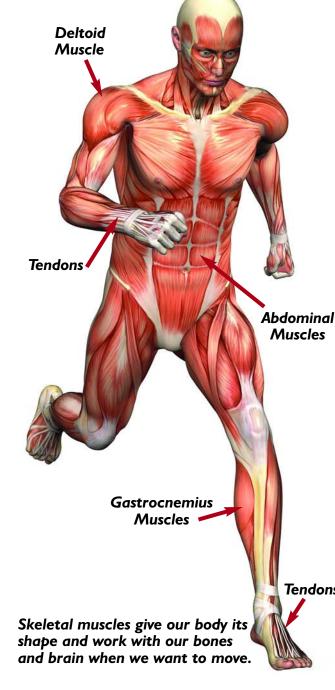
Muscles

Skeletal muscles move your bones and give your body its shape. Tendons are a tough, rubbery tissue that attaches your muscles to your bones. A muscle contracts when it receives

volume IC 1.3 loint Joint *loint* Some bones protect parts of our bodies, other bones allow us to move.

a signal from your brain. When the smooth muscles that line your muscle contracts, the attached bones intestines keep food moving through. move. Make a muscle with your The smooth muscles in arteries biceps. What happens to your lower control the flow of blood. The cardiac arm? muscle beats, or contracts, in a regular way called a rhythm.

Involuntary Muscles work without you thinking about them. For example,



Exercise keeps you healthy and strong. You can do two kinds

of exercise. Aerobic exercise is one kind. Walking fast, running, jumping rope, or dancing, are all aerobic. During aerobic exercise your heart and breathing rates speed up to get oxygen to your muscles. Aerobic exercise burns carbohydrates and fats. Regular aerobic exercise keeps your heart and lungs working well.

OUT

more

The other kind of exercise is anaerobic. Lifting weights is anaerobic. This kind of exercise makes your muscles bigger and your bones stronger. It is best to do both aerobic and anaerobic exercises. This will give you a healthy heart and strong bones and muscles.



Tendons

involuntary (in-VOL-uhn-ter-ee): done without a person's control

regular (REG-yuh-lur): happening or reoccurring at the same time

contract (kuhn-TRAKT): to get smaller

vertebrae (VUR-tuh-bray): the individual bones of the spine

The Kidneys and Bladder

Your kidneys and bladder form your urinary system. This system regulates, or controls, the amount of water in your body. Your two kidneys are on either side of your spine, against the small of your back, and under your rib cage.



The kidneys take out excess salts and cellular waste products as blood circulates, or flows, through them. The remaining liquid, made up of water and the waste products, is urine. The urine



donor (DOH-nur): someone who gives something

organ (OR-guhn): a part of the body that does a specific job

salt (sawlt) a chemical: compound formed from an acid and a base

transplant (transs-PLANT): to surgically replace a diseased organ with a healthy one

travels in a tube called the ureter to the bladder. The bladder keeps the urine until it leaves the body through another tube, the urethra.



About 190 guarts (180 liters) of water filters through your

kidneys every day, but only about 1.6 quarts (1.5 liters) finally leaves your body as urine.

Infections or Misfunctions

Things can go wrong in our organs. Medical researchers find or invent things to solve organ problems. Doctors use this information to treat their patients.

• If you develop a kidney or bladder infection:

Doctors may use antibiotics to fight the germs.

• If your kidneys don't remove waste products correctly:

You may have to use a dialysis machine to do the work of the kidneys.

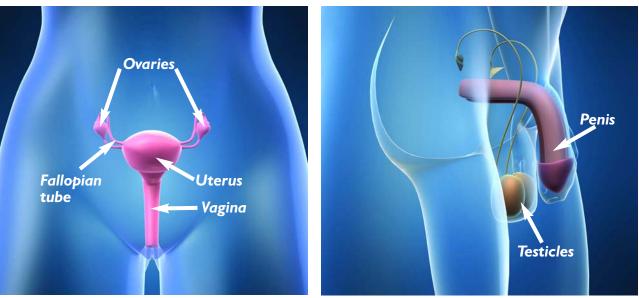
• If both kidneys have damage or stop working:

Doctors can transplant a kidney from another person or donor. The donor survives because people can live with just one kidney.

The Reproductive Organs Each month, the uterus wall prepares to receive the egg by All animals reproduce. In most building up an extra blood supply. animals, adult males and females An egg fertilized by a sperm will mate, and the union of a sperm attach to the wall of the uterus and an egg produces an offspring. and develop into an embryo and Each egg and each sperm carries subsequently, a fetus. one half of each parent's genetic An unfertilized egg will break material. down. It, and the extra blood, will leave the body through a tube Organs called the vagina. Menses, or

The organs and body parts that menstruation, is the shedding of produce the sperm and egg make the unfertilized egg and the extra up the reproductive system. They blood from the uterus. also allow for mating and provide Men produce sperm. Two for the development and nurturing organs called testicles, or testes, of the resulting young.

Women produce eggs. Two ovaries produce the eggs. Every month during ovulation, an egg leaves one of the ovaries. (The Latin word for egg is *ova*.) It travels down the fallopian tube and enters the uterus.



Female reproductive organs

make the sperm cells. A sac called the scrotum protects the testicles. Sperm leave the body through the urethra in the penis.

Male reproductive organs

Hormones

Besides producing eggs and sperm, the ovaries and testes produce the hormones that determine female and male characteristics. These characteristics include body hair, beards, breasts, and larynx (vocal cords), as well as muscular and skeletal growth.



Men grow hair on their face because of a hormone called testosterone.



genetic material (juh-NET-ik muh-TIHR-eeuhl): the cell parts that carry the biological instructions (chromosomes, genes, and DNA)

hormone (HOR-mohn): a chemical substance produced in body glands that controls growth and development

mate (mate): to join together for reproduction

nurture (NUR-chur): to take care of

shed (shed): to fall out, to give off



The single fertilized egg cell divides and multiplies into

millions of cells, forming all the tissues and organs of a new human in the nine months before birth.



Doctors can take photos of a baby inside its mother with an ultrasound machine.



A model shows a baby inside its mother.

How the Body Works

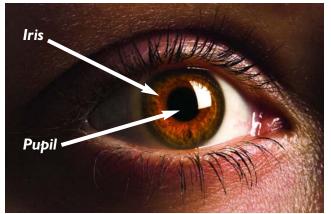
All the organs and systems of your body work together. When they work correctly you move, yo fight off germs and diseases, you heal, you learn, you grow, and yo age. In other words, you live.

The Senses

The senses are one way you and your body learn about the world around you. The five senses are sight, hearing, taste, smell, and touch. A different organ controls each sense. Your sensory organs are your eyes, ears, tongue, nose, and your skin and its nerves.

Sight

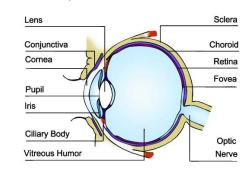
What you can see of your eyeball is the white covering, some tiny blood vessels, and the iris. The iris is the colored donutshaped circle with a black hole in





•	the middle. That black hole is
	your pupil. Light enters the eye
ou	through the pupil. Because the
1	ring of the iris is a muscle, it can
ou	contract or expand, making the
	pupil change in size. This
	regulates how much light comes
	into the eye.

The parts of the eye you cannot see are the clear lens in the pupil, the retina, and the vitreous fluid.



The clear lens brings light to an area at the back of your eyeball, called the retina. The iris muscles and the cornea, which is a clear layer that covers the eye, hold the lens in place.

The retina is made of two different kinds of cells, called rods and cones. These cells change light into electrical signals to send to the brain via the optic nerve.

The vitreous fluid is a jelly-like fluid that fills the eyeball, maintaining its round shape.

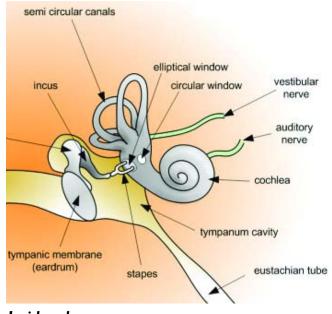
Hearing

Your ears turn sounds into signals for the sense of hearing. We can only see the outer part of the ear. Sounds in the air travel to a membrane called the eardrum. The eardrum vibrates when sounds hit it.



The middle part of the ear has three tiny bones called ossicles. The ossicles pass on the vibrations to the inner ear. The cochlea, in the inner ear. contains hair-like cells that convert sound waves into electrical signals. The signals travel to the brain via the auditory nerve.

The inner ear also helps us keep our balance and walk erect on two feet. If you have ever suffered an ear infection, you may have found that you lost your balance during the illness.



Inside a human ear

Smell and Taste

The senses of smell and taste are connected. Sensory receptor cells are in your nose and mouth. They respond to chemicals in the air and in food. They generate electrical signals from their interaction with the chemical molecules.

The receptors for smell are in both the nose and mouth. Smell is important for the sense of taste. You may not be able to taste food when you have a cold.

The receptors for taste are the taste buds on your tongue. The four basic tastes you perceive are sweet, bitter, sour, and salty.



Lollipops usually have a sweet taste.



Lemons have a sour taste.

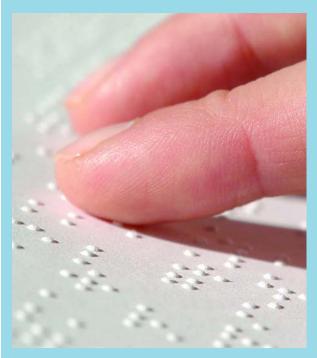
Touch

The sense of touch includes pressure, cold, warmth, and pain. Different receptors in the skin respond to different types of touch. They allow us to distinguish between rubbing and pressure, to identify shapes and textures of things, and to feel the temperature around us or of objects touching us.



Sometimes when all the senses do not function right, our

other senses become more acute. People with limited or no sense of sight can use their sense of touch to learn about their environment. They can read using the Braille system, which converts our alphabet into raised bumps.





acute (uh-KYOOT): able to detect things easily

membrane (mem-BRAYN): a very thin layer of tissue that lines or covers organs or cells

molecule (MOL-uh-kyool): the smallest part of a substance that displays the characteristics of that substance

via (vye-uh): by way of

Circulation

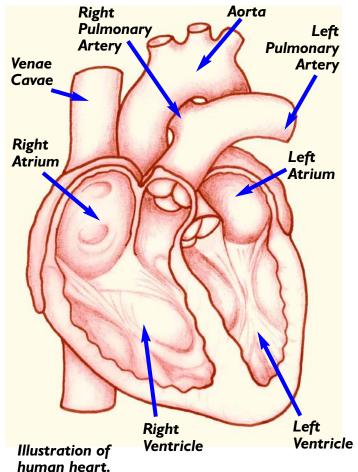
Circulation is the movement of blood through your body. Blood moves through your body when your heart and skeletal muscles contract. The job of your circulation system is to bring oxygen and food to your cells and take away the waste products of metabolism.

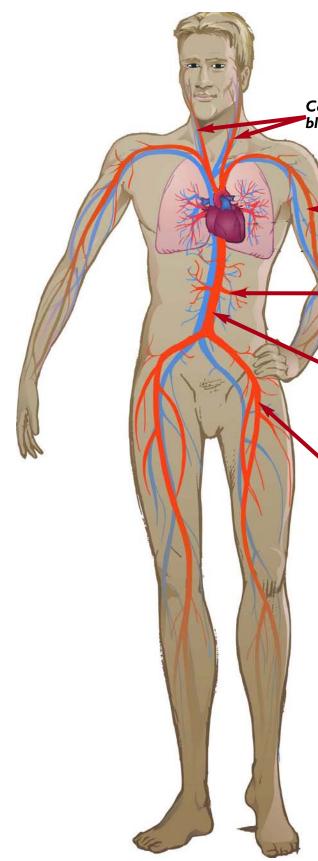
Arteries

Let's follow your blood on its journey through the body. We will start in the lungs where it picks up oxygen. From the lungs, blood travels through the pulmonary vein to the left atrium of the heart. It passes through a valve into the left ventricle. It travels out the aorta, the largest artery in your body. The aorta divides into smaller and smaller arteries that connect to millions of capillaries. The capillaries supply the body's cells.

Veins

At the cells, the blood's red blood cells give up the oxygen and pick up carbon dioxide. Now, the blood returns to the heart. The capillaries connect to small veins. The small veins join larger and larger veins. The two largest veins, called the *venae cavae*, merge just before they enter the right atrium of the heart. The blood they carry passes through a valve into the right ventricle. The right ventricle pumps the blood out the pulmonary artery into the lungs. The lungs take carbon dioxide from the blood and put in oxygen. The blood returns to the left atrium. The trip starts all over again.





Carotid arteries take blood to the brain

Brachial artery

Renal arteries take blood to the kidneys

The abdominal aorta supplies blood to much of the abdominal cavity

Medial circumflex femoral artery

Average Heart Rates Of Animals

In beats per minute Large Whale: 20 Elephant: 25 Horse: 44 Giraffe: 65 Large Dog: 75 Humans: 60 -70 Small dog: 100 Cat: 150 Rabbit: 205 Hamster: 450 Mouse: 500

(Notice the relationship between the heart rate and size of animals)



contract (kuhn-TRAKT): to get smaller

merge (murj): to join together to become one thing

metabolism (muh-TAB-uh-liz-uhm): the process of changing food, water, and oxygen into energy and body cells

Respiration

Respiration is another word for breathing. Most living things need oxygen (O^2) to produce energy from the food they take in. Your body cells convert food and oxygen to energy in a process called metabolism. Carbon dioxide (CO^2) is a by-product of metabolism. Your lungs are the organs taking in O^2 and getting rid of the CO^2 .

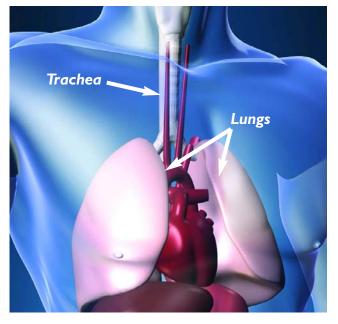
Lungs at Work

A large muscle (diaphragm), located at the bottom of your chest, controls breathing. When you inhale, your diaphragm contracts and moves downward. That creates a vacuum. Air comes in through your nose or mouth to fill that vacuum.



A voice teacher shows a student how to breath from her diaphragm.

Air travels down the trachea into your lungs. The muscles in the wall of your chest also help you inhale by expanding the chest cavity.



The air travels deeper into the lungs through the bronchi and bronchioles. When it gets into the grape-like sacs, called alveoli, oxygen in the air moves into the blood through the capillaries. At the same time, carbon dioxide moves out of the blood and into the alveoli.

When you exhale, the diaphragm relaxes and moves upward. This compresses the lungs and air rushes out of the lungs, taking carbon dioxide with it.



Hiccups, Sneezes, and Stitches Hiccups, sneezes,

and stitches are all involuntary body phenomena.

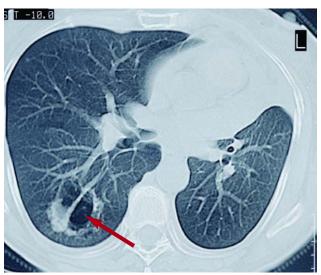
Hiccups are short and very sudden gasps for breath. They occur when the diaphragm jerks or spasms involuntarily.

In a sneeze, air rushes down your nose at over 100 miles an hour (161 kph). Test this fact: You can't sneeze with your eyes open.



A side 'stitch', or sharp pain in your side when you run, is a cramp in the diaphragm. Running causes an up and down movement stressing the diaphragm and the ligaments holding all your organs in place. One way to relieve a side stitch is to stop running and place your hand on the right side of your belly. Then gently push up as you breathe in and out deeply.





This photograph shows the inside of a lung. The black spot is cancer. One of the causes of lung cancer is smoking cigarettes.

Asthma is a disease that affects your airways—the tubes that carry air in and out of your lungs. People with asthma often use inhalers to help with their symptoms.





by-product (BYE-prod-uhkt): something left over when another thing is produced

cavity (KAV-uh-tee): a hole or hollow space in something solid

compress (kuhm-PRESS): to press or squeeze something until it is smaller

cramp (kramp): pain caused by a muscle tightening suddenly

phenomenon (fe-NOM-uh-nom): an event or a fact that can be seen or felt

vacuum (VAK-yuhm): a sealed place from which air has been emptied

Digestion

Digestion is the process that turns the food you eat into very small components that your cells can use. Your cells can handle sugars, amino acids, and fatty acids, but not spaghetti and tacos.

In the Mouth

First, your teeth tear and grind the food into smaller pieces. The saliva in your mouth makes food softer and easier to swallow. It also contains an enzyme that starts the breakdown process. The enzyme converts starches in the food to sugars. Your tongue and other muscles in your mouth push food into your throat. When you swallow, the food travels down your esophagus and into your stomach.



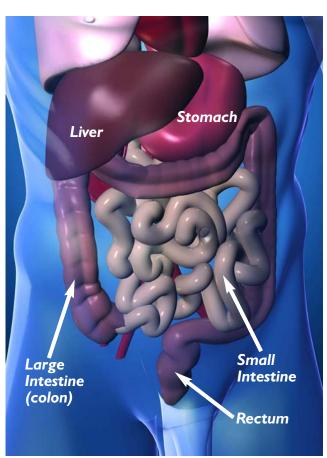
It's important to chew your food well before swallowing.

In the Stomach

The digestive process continues in your stomach. There, food mixes with chemicals the stomach produces called enzymes and acids. Sometimes, as the food digests, gases release and you burp.

In the Small Intestines

Next, the food mass, now called chyme, moves into your small intestine. Here, some more enzymes, produced in your pancreas, help break down the food further. The pancreas also

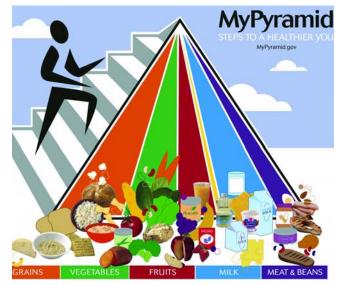


adds insulin, a hormone that prepares the body for digesting sugar. Your liver, an organ that aids in digestion and eliminating cellular wastes, adds bile. Bile is a liquid that breaks down fat.

The chyme travels through the small intestine. The muscles along the small intestine squeeze and relax. This motion, called peristalsis, pushes the chyme along. Proteins, carbohydrates, and fatty acids from the food are taken in, or absorbed, through the capillaries in the intestinal wall.

In the Large Intestines

The large intestine absorbs most of the water in the chyme. Some of the water goes to the kidneys, where it becomes urine. The feces that remain leave the body through the rectum.



USDA food pyramid.

NUTRITION

Good nutrition is eating a balanced diet.

One that provides all the nutrients you need: fruits, vegetables, grains, and meat/fish/eggs and milk products. Humans need proteins, fats, carbohydrates, vitamins, and minerals.

Proteins build and repair your body.Protein foods are meat, fish, poultry, dairy products, beans, and many vegetables.

Fats and carbohydrates convert toenergy. Fat sources are meat, eggs, fish,dairy, and vegetable oils. Somecarbohydrate sources are vegetables, fruit,grains (rice, pasta, bread, cereal), beans,sugar, and honey.

Vitamins and minerals help your body use food, fight infections, and repair itself. Vitamin C sources are fruit, particularly oranges and lemons. Vitamin C helps you fight infection. Vitamin A and D are in milk, eggs, and vegetables. Additionally, your skin produces Vitamin D when exposed to sunlight. A and D vitamins keep your eyes, bones, and teeth healthy and strong. Minerals are in all foods. Green vegetables such as spinach and broccoli contain iron. Meat is a source of iron too.



amino acids (uh-MEEN-o ASS-IDS): chemical compounds with which the body builds protein

component (kuhm-POH-nuhnt): a part of a system

deficient (di-FISH-uhnt): lacking something necessary

Genetics

Humans, like all living things, reproduce. When they do, they pass along a 'code' to their offspring. The code is like a set of instructions or directions. It tells the cells of the offspring how to develop and grow. Genetics is the study of the passing of traits from parent to offspring. Here's how that works.

Chromosomes

All the cells in your body, except red blood cells, have a nucleus. It acts like the cell's headquarters. It contains stickshaped bits called chromosomes. Every species of plants and animals has a specific number of chromosomes. The chromosomes are arranged in pairs.

Genes are the pieces making up chromosomes. Different combinations of a chemical compound called DNA, **d**eoxyribo**n**ucleic **a**cid, makes up genes. DNA is the set of chemical instructions for cells, telling them what to do.

Humans have 46 chromosomes arranged in 23 pairs. When egg and sperm cells form they contain

Jan	Chromosomes	
Species		umber of omosomes
fruit fly		8
snail		24
cat		38
mouse		40
human		46
horse		64
dog		78
goldfish		104
one kind of fern		630

Sample of Species and

only one of each pair. When the egg and sperm come together to form a new individual, the matching pairs reform.

Each pair contains many genes. Genes control different traits such as your hair type, eye color, height, skin color, the size of your ears, the way your pancreas works, even your life span. Traits come from each biological parent. This means they are inherited.



Because of genes, people often look like their parents.

Genes

Thousands of gene pairs determine your physical and mental traits. Some genes dominate over others, controlling the trait.

Dominant and Recessive Genes

Eye color is a trait controlled by dominant genes. The gene for brown eyes (*Br* in this text) is dominant over the gene for blue. The gene for blue eyes (*bl* in this text) is recessive. Some combinations of pairs could be *Br Br*, *Br bl*, or *bl bl*. You will have brown eyes if you inherit a brown eye gene from either biological parent. That means your eye color gene pair is *Br Br* or *Br bl*.

To get blue eyes you need to get the blue eye gene, *bl*, from both biological parents. You need to have two blue eye genes, *bl bl*, to have blue eyes.



To get blue eyes you need to get the blue eye gene from BOTH parents.



Because the brown eye gene is dominant, you only need to get the brown eye gene from ONE parent to get brown eyes.

Boy or Girl

One set of chromosomes, called X and Y chromosomes, tells your cells to develop into a boy or girl. All females have two X chromosomes (XX) and all males have one X and one Y (XY). When eggs and sperm form, the chromosome pairs split. Eggs and sperm thus have just one half of each pair of chromosomes.



All males have one X and one Y (XY) and all females have two X chromosomes (XX).



combine (kuhm-BINE): to join or mix two things together

chromosome (KROH-muh-sohm): cell part that carries the genes that determine traits

headquarters (HED-kwor-turz): the place from which an organization is run

nucleus (NOO-klee-uhss): the central part of a cell, containing the chromosomes

recessive (ree-SESS-iv): tending to recede, to stay in the background

So an egg, coming from a female, can only have an X chromosome. Sperm, coming from a male, can have either an X chromosome or a Y chromosome. When they combine to form a new individual. they can combine as XX, a girl, or XY, a boy.



DNA

Deoxyribonucleic acid, or DNA for short,

provides the instructions for growth and activity for each cell of our body. All living animals and plant cells contain DNA.

Human DNA is different from the DNA of plants and other animals. People look different from each other because every person has different DNA (except for identical twins, who have the same DNA). Because everyone's DNA is different, the police can use DNA as a way to identify criminals and victims.

Genetic Engineering

Scientists, who study genetic traits and diseases, focus on DNA's role. They have learned how to change the DNA in a plant or animal cell to change its inherited traits. For example, they have changed the DNA in rice so that it is resistant to certain fungi or molds. This is called genetic engineering.

know...





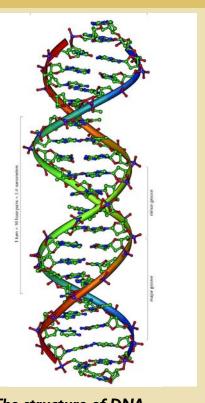
James Watson

Francis Crick

Two scientists, James Watson and Francis Crick, figured out the chemical structure of the DNA molecule in1953. They found that a DNA molecule looks like a twisted ladder (a double helix). Watson and Crick won the 1962 Nobel Prize, one of the highest awards in science, for their discovery.

The Life Cycle

The stages of human life are some adults become parents. If often described as a life cycle. For they have no fatal accidents or illnesses, people grow old and each individual, however, life is a some become grandparents. Then straight line. Like a story, it has a beginning, middle, and an end. they die. The earliest stage of life is a single Life Spans cell. The cell divides and, with instructions from genes, forms Humans, like all living things, have a life span. A life span is the different tissues. These tissues develop into babies. Babies grow maximum length of time that up and become children. Children individuals of a species could live. grow up and become adolescents. The life span of a human is about 120 years. Adolescents become adults, and



The structure of DNA

Human Life



This photograph of three generations of a family shows the grandparents with their children and their children's children.

A Sample of Animal Life Spans

Animal	Years	Animal Years
Opossum	4	Wolf 18
Muskrat	6	Grey Squirrel 20
Toucan	6	Ox 20
Guinea Pig	8	Porcupine 20
Koala	8	Tiger 22
Kangaroo	9	Rattlesnake 22
Rabbit	9	Lion 35
Prairie Dog	10	Horse 40
Painted Turtle	11	Rhinoceros 40
Sheep	15	Hippopotamus 45
Woodchuck	15	Snapping Turtle 57
Hog	18	

Pregnancy and Birth

The start of a life story begins with a pregnancy. Pregnancy refers to the nine months when a single cell develops into a baby inside a mother's body. The pregnancy ends when a baby is born. The nine months of pregnancy are divided into three stages called trimesters. Some mothers feel sick during the first trimester. This is called morning sickness, but it can happen any time of the day.

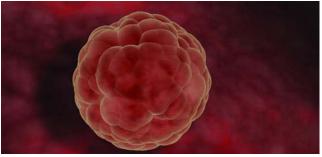
The First Trimester

Pregnancy begins at the moment of conception. An egg from the mother's ovary is released into the fallopian tube each month. Conception takes place if the egg is joined by a sperm cell. This is called fertilization. The fertilized egg, or zygote, divides. It grows into a clump of cells no bigger than the head of a pin, called a blastocyst.



This magnified picture shows a sperm fertilizing an egg.

Embryo. The blastocyst travels from the fallopian tube into the uterus. It attaches to the tissue inside the uterus. The cells in the blastocyst keep dividing. They form the embryo and placenta.



A magnified blastocyst

Embryo and Placenta. The embryo is the developing child. The placenta is a membranous vascular organ lining the uterine wall and partially surrounding the fetus. It is attached to the embryo by the umbilical cord. The umbilical cord brings blood, carrying nutrients and oxygen, from the mother to the embryo.



Getting to Virginia Apgar was born in New Jersey in 1909. She earned a medical degree in 1933 from Columbia University in New York City. Apgar became an anesthesiologist. An

anesthesiologist is a doctor who gives drugs to patients during surgery to prevent pain. Apgar helped during thousands of births. She saw that most of the attention was on the mother. Sometimes, the newborn baby had problems that no one noticed. In 1952, she created a way to judge whether a baby is healthy. It is called the Apgar Score. A baby is evaluated for color, pulse, reflexes, activity, and breathing. Babies with low scores need help.

An amniotic sac forms around the embryo. The amniotic sac contains fluid in which the developing embryo floats. This fluid protects the embryo. Different parts of the embryo grow and develop into the different organs and parts that make up a human being. The embryo has formed all of its organs by the end of the eighth week of pregnancy.



The amniotic sac protects the baby throughout the entire pregnancy.

Dr. Apgar

The Second Trimester

The second trimester begins with the fourth month of the pregnancy. The developing baby is now called a fetus.



This ultrasound of a 21 week old fetus shows the fetus is sucking its thumb.

The Fetus continues to grow and develops fingers, toes, and nails. The uterus gets bigger, or expands, as the fetus grows. The mother's uterus expands to accommodate that growth. In this trimester doctors can test to determine if the fetus is a boy or a girl.

The Third Trimester

The third trimester begins with the seventh month of the



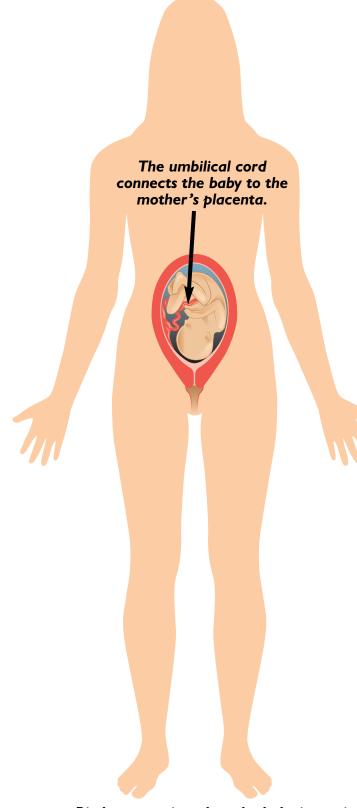
HUMANS HAVE TAILS

A human embryo in the fourth week of pregnancy has small bumps for arms and legs and a tail. It is hard to tell a human embryo from a reptile embryo at this point! The tail disappears by the eighth week.

pregnancy. The fetus gains weight and moves often. The mother can sometimes feel it kick inside her. The third trimester ends with labor and birth.

Labor and Birth. Giving birth is known as labor. It begins when the muscles of the uterus start to push the fetus out of the body. These movements are called contractions. Contractions cause the cervix, a muscle at the bottom of the uterus, to open wider, or dilate. The baby is born when the cervix is fully dilated.

Sometimes, problems arise during labor. The baby may be too big to fit through the cervix or turned sideways. A doctor can perform a cesarean section to remove the baby. A cut is made in the skin below the mother's belly button and through the uterus.



Births are easier when the baby is coming head first. When a baby is coming feet first, it is called a breach birth. The baby is pulled out through the opening. A cesarean section may be planned if the doctor thinks that the mother or baby will be in danger.

The umbilical cord is cut after the baby is born. You can see where your umbilical cord was connected. Just look at your belly button.



Your belly button is where you were connected to the umbilical cord.



accommodate (uh-KOM-uh-date): to provide room for

fatal (FAY-tuhl): causing death

reflex (REE-fleks): an automatic action without a person's control

vascular (VASS-kyoo-lur): having a network of blood vessels

Growth

You continue to grow from infancy to adulthood. Growth happens much faster when you are young. No wonder you want to sleep all the time. Your bones keep growing until you reach adulthood. Girls usually stop growing around eighteen and boys, around twentyone.

Different parts of the body grow at different rates. Your arms and legs grow faster than the head and the rest of your body.



Babies sleep a lot and grow quickly.



batch (bach): a group of things that arrive together or are made together

incisor (in–SIZH-ur): a front cutting tooth

molar (MOH-lur): a broad, flat grinding tooth at the back of the mouth



Childhood

Your bones are soft at birth. As you learn to roll over, sit up, and crawl, your bones grow harder and your muscles get stronger. Most babies stand and walk by about fourteen months of age.

Your brain grows and changes as you learn new things. When you learn, the number of synapses between nerve cells, called neurons, increases.

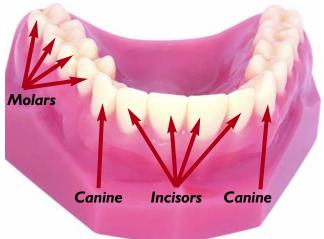
Teeth

Your teeth grow in then fall out and grow in again. Humans have two sets of teeth. Your baby teeth start to come in when you are about 6 months old. They fall out as early as three years of age. Your second batch of teeth are your permanent teeth.



Most people have 32 permanent teeth. Your front teeth are called incisors. The pointed teeth on either side of the incisors are called canines because they resemble a dog's fangs. The flat teeth in the back of the mouth are the molars.

The last teeth to come in are the four back molars, called wisdom teeth. Very often they do not come



and the second

in at all. Because they may decay under your gums later in life, dentists often remove them when you are in your teens.

Adolescence and Puberty

Children enter a stage of life called adolescence generally between the ages of 9 and 12. It is the time when the bodies of children begin to grow into their adult sizes. Adolescence begins with puberty and ends with adulthood.

Puberty

Puberty is when the bodies of males and females change and it becomes possible for them to reproduce. Puberty lasts from two e to four years. Hormones control the changes that happen during puberty. Puberty is different for boys and girls.

In boys, the hormone testosterone is released into the blood. Testosterone makes the larynx grow and the voice get lower, and hair grows all over the body.

Boys grow tall quickly in a growth spurt. Boys usually have a growth spurt between the ages of 11 and 15. Testosterone and other hormones also make the Aging testes and penis grow larger and be able to release sperm.

Girls go through puberty anywhere between the ages of 9 and 17. Hormones cause girls to have a growth spurt usually between ages 9 and 12. The hormone estrogen is released into the blood by the ovaries. Estrogen makes the breasts and other parts of the reproductive system grow.

Menarche is the first time that a girl's body releases an egg from the ovary. Blood and tissue from the uterus leave the body if the egg is unfertilized. This is menstruation. It is also called a period because it happens about once a month.

Adolescence ends when males and females look like adults and physical growth stops.

Hormones can sometimes cause acne, a disease that affects the skin.





larynx (LA-ringks): the upper part of the trachea (windpipe) containing your vocal cords

hormone (HOR-mohn): a chemical substance produced in body glands that controls growth and development

Humans continue to change after adolescence. At maturity they are usually healthy and able to reproduce. Their physical growth has stopped but they continue to change.

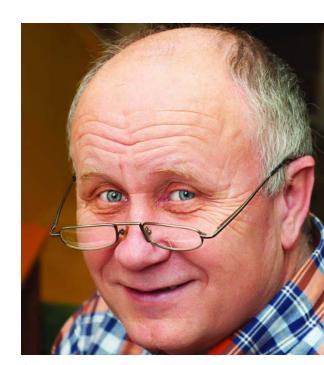
Skin and Hair

As adults age, their skin becomes less elastic, or flexible. When the fat below the skin shrinks and the skin above it grows less elastic, they get wrinkles. Skin also becomes drier.



As we get older our skin sags and wrinkles.

As people age their hair may get thinner, lose its color, or pigment, and turn gray. Some people lose their hair and become bald.



Some people lose hair as they age.

Bones

By the age of 65, some people have begun to get shorter. One of two things can cause this. If their back muscles become weak through lack of exercise and do not support their spine, the vertebrae can squeeze, or compress, the discs between them. Additionally, bones may lose calcium, become brittle, and deteriorate or break. We call this osteoporosis.

The Senses

The shape of the eyes and lens change during middle adulthood. People often need glasses or contact lenses to read. Older adults may also have trouble seeing in the dark. As people age,

they are less able to hear highpitched noises. They may need hearing aids. The sense of taste and smell lessens as well.



Some older people need glasses.



Some older people need hearing aids.

Reproduction

As humans age, they lose their ability to reproduce. Women usually stop ovulating and menstruating between the ages of 45 and 50. The amount of the hormone estrogen also decreases. This is menopause. After menopause, women cannot become pregnant without medical help.

How Life Ends

Death is the natural end of life. People die when their heart stops pumping blood and when their brain stops sending electrical signals. Humans can die at any point during their lives. They may die from many different causes. Some people die because of an accident. A fatal accident injures organs in the body that cause the heart or brain to stop working. Most people die from an illness or disease. A terminal illness is one with no cure and causes death.

Life Expectancy

Most people who live past childhood will live until about the age of 78. We call this their average life expectancy. Many people live to be much older but very few achieve the potential human life span of 115-120 years.



Many older people live in nursing homes when they cannot take care of themselves.

As medical science has developed, human life expectancy has increased. Vaccination against childhood diseases, refrigeration of foods, and the use of medical procedures and drugs to combat illnesses all work to prevent premature deaths and allow people to live to their potential life span.



CENTENARIANS

Centenarians, men and women who are 100 years old or older, are a fast growing segment of the world's population.

	iverage na
Country	Male (years)
Zambia	37.08
Botswana	38.63
Haiti	47.46
Pakistan	60.27
Egypt	61.29
Russia	61.95
China	69.60
Mexico	68.47
United States	74.24
Israel	76.57
Italy	75.85
Canada	76.02
Australia	76.90
Japan	77.51

The stages of life



A sperm fertilizes an egg.



A baby grows A baby is just at inside its mother. the beginning of his life span.



The baby grows into a child.



The child grows into an adult.





Many middle age adults have children and grandchildren.

Some adults live well past middle age, until they are elderly.

Average human life span per Country

Female	Male and Female
(years)	Combined
	(years)
37.41	37.24
39.93	38.31
51.06	49.21
61.91	61.07
65.47	63.33
72.69	67.19
73.33	71.38
74.66	71.49
79.90	77.12
80.67	78.57
82.41	79.03
83.00	79.43
82.74	79.75
84.05	80.70



combat (kom-BAT): to fight against something

fatal (FAY-tuhl): causing death

hearing aid (hihr-ing ayd): a device to help a person hear

segment (seg-MUHNT): a part or section of something

terminal (TUR-muh-nuhl): ending

Health and Illness

People are healthy when all of their body parts work well. Most of the time, we can stay healthy by eating good food, using our muscles in exercise, getting plenty of sleep, and resting if we start to feel sick. But sometimes, we can suffer injuries or become sick even when we take care of ourselves.

Injuries

Every day, you have a chance of getting hurt. You can suffer an injury or a wound. You may fall down and sprain an ankle or even break a bone. You may hit your head on the ground. You may cut yourself with a pair of scissors or with a piece of paper. These injuries cause pain but are usually not life threatening.

Bruises

If you fall or hit something, you will probably develop a bruise. You can see a bruise because blood vessels break under the skin and the area turns red, purple, yellow, and even green.

The brain can bruise, too. If you fall and hit your head or get hit



You can get injured falling off your bicycle.

with a hard object, you might bruise your brain. Bruising to the brain is a concussion. A concussion is dangerous because there is usually internal bleeding. You may become dizzy or feel sleepy. Most concussions heal with plenty of rest.



The blue and purple area on this foot shows bruising.

Broken Bones and Sprains

Injuries happen to bones also. They can crack or break so badly the two parts separate. A fracture is a small break in a bone. It may heal by itself with rest.



This picture of an x-ray shows a broken radius bone in an arm.

A sprain is an injury to a joint such as the ankle or wrist. A sprain happens when the ligaments or tendons twist fast and hard.

Wounds

We call wounds to the skin abrasions, lacerations, and punctures. An abrasion is a scrape, a laceration is a cut, and a puncture is a hole.



A fall on concrete may cause an abrasion on an elbow, as seen here.

You should clean and cover all of them. If a skin wound is deep, you might need a tetanus shot.



This girl is receiving a tetanus shot to protect her from getting lockjaw.



Healing

Healing starts as soon as a wound occurs. In a cutting wound, the first thing that happens is that the blood vessels near the cut become narrower. or constrict. This keeps you from losing too much blood. Then, the blood becomes thick and forms a clot. This clot hardens to make a scab.



If a wound is deep and won't stop bleeding, adhesive strips or stitches are used.



clot (klot): a solidified clump of blood cells and plasma

internal (in-TUR-nuhl): inside the body

suffer (SUHF-ur): to experience pain, discomfort, or sorrow

tetanus (TET-nuhss): a sometimes fatal bacterial disease that causes your muscles to become rigid.

Sometimes, the new skin that forms is shiny and smooth. We call it scar tissue. A scar may fade over time or last for years.

A broken bone is more serious. A doctor must put the two pieces together and put a hard cast around the injured part. This keeps the bones from moving while they are healing. Bone cells form a clump, or callus, between the ends of the broken bone. The callous grows and develops into cartilage. Finally, the cartilage turns into bone.



A cast and crutches help your bones heal.

Infections

Our environment is full of small organisms that can live in our bodies. They may be microscopic bacteria or viruses, parasitic worms, or fungi and molds. Som can make us sick. They can cause an infection.



	Bacterial infections. Antibiotics can
	treat most bacterial infections.
nall	Some of the infectious diseases
	bacteria causes are tetanus,
ic	pneumonia, whooping cough,
	tuberculosis, and food poisoning.
ne	

Some common bacterial infections cause the following symptoms:

lungs filling with fluid, coughing, weakness

sore and red throat with white spots, difficulty swallowing, fever



red rimmed eyes, excessive mucus, itching

Viral Infections. The symptomsbut the virus never leaves thecaused by a virus can go away,body completely.										
Some	common viral infections c	ause the following symptoms:								
Common cold:		stuffy head, sneezing, sore throat, runny nose								
Flu:		muscle aches, fever								
Stomach flu:		stomach pain, vomiting, diarrhea								
Chicken pox and measles:		spots or skin rash								
Viral pneumonia:		fever, headache, muscle aches, sweating, sore throat, weakness								

Other Infections. Parasites, fungus, and mold infections include such things as ringworm and athletes foot. Drugs can treat these infections.

Contagious Infections

A disease or illness is contagious if the germs that cause it can be passed between people. Some illnesses pass very easily from person to person.

The viruses that cause colds or the flu are in saliva in the mouth and in mucus in the nose. You can "catch" a cold or the flu if you touch a sick person or things that the person has touched.

Viruses can also live in the air. They come out when the sick



Louis Pasteur was born in France in 1822. He studied chemistry and physics in Paris and became a professor. Pasteur became interested in why foods spoiled and how

Getting to know... diseases spread. He found that small organisms called yeast turn sugar into alcohol. We call this fermentation. He also studied how organisms turn milk sour. Pasteur showed that heating things kills the organisms. The process has his name – pasteurization.

Before Pasteur's time, people thought that bad smells spread illnesses. Pasteur showed that germs cause disease. He also developed vaccines to give people immunity. He used a rabies vaccine to save a boy bitten by an infected dog.

- person coughs or sneezes. If you are sick, it is important to use tissues and to cover your mouth when you cough and sneeze. Washing your hands is an important defense against all germs.



Washing hands fights germs.

Louis Pasteur

Some viral diseases, such as AIDS (acquired immune deficiency syndrome), are not easily passed between people. AIDS is a dangerous disease that makes it hard for the body to fight infections. A virus called HIV causes AIDS.

HIV passes between people only in blood and during sexual contact. A pregnant woman who is HIV positive may give the virus to her developing fetus.

You cannot get HIV or AIDS through touching or by breathing the air around a person who has the disease.

Immunization

Your body is constantly threatened from the outside. Besides injury, you are open to attack from bacteria, viruses, and



antibiotic (an-ti-bye-OT-ik): a drug that kills bacteria

mucus (MYOO-kuhss): a slimy fluid that coats and protects your mouth, nose, throat, and breathing passages

parasite (PA-ruh-site): an organism that gets its food by living inside another plant or animal

rabies (RAY-beez): a viral disease that attacks the nervous system. Often fatal, it is transmitted by the bite of an infected bat, dog, raccoon, or such.

fungi. Your immune system is your main defense against these invaders, also know as pathogens or antigens.

Active Immunity

One of the ways your immune system protects you is by making antibodies. Antibodies are special proteins created by your white blood cells to fight antigens. Some antibodies remain active long after the antigen has been defeated. The body is ready to fight if it meets the antigen ever again. You are immune or have a resistance to the disease caused by that antigen.

Vaccination can also deliberately create immunization in the body. Scientists develop vaccines for specific diseases. A vaccine is either a solution or a culture of a strain of the germ that does not



A nurse is preparing to administer a flu vaccine to a patient.

(CDC) reported that the world's last naturally acquired case of smallpox occurred about 30 years ago. The smallpox case occurred in the Immunity develops slowly but Merca District of Somalia on October 26, 1977. Less than 3 years later, in May 1980, the World Health Organization declared the world free of naturally occurring smallpox.

cause disease. The vaccine is made by changing or killing the germ. It causes your body to produce the antibodies against the germ. lasts a long time. The response of the immune system is faster and better every time the body meets an antigen. We call this active immunity.

There are vaccines for many diseases such as smallpox, chicken pox, polio, measles, mumps, tetanus, and rabies.

The End of Smallpox. The United States Center for Disease Control

Edward Jenner

know....

econg to Edward Jenner, an English doctor, researched the

disease smallpox in the late 1700s. He noticed that dairy workers did not get smallpox. He wondered if cowpox, a disease cows suffered, was like smallpox. He wondered if exposure to cowpox gave dairy workers immunity to smallpox. In 1796, Jenner used the germs that cause cowpox to vaccinate a boy against smallpox. It worked.

Jenner's method of vaccination was the start of the control and prevention of other diseases.

Passive Immunity

Sometimes a person not vaccinated against a disease is exposed to it. Medical help is available. Doctors can inject the person with antibodies produced in other humans or in animals. The antibodies give immediate immunity to the disease for a short time. The antibodies will fight the germs if they try to infect the body. We call this passive immunity.

Since the body has not made its own antibodies, the protection does not last after the injected antibodies are gone.



culture (KUHL-chur): a growing population of an organism in a lab dish

expose (ek-SPOZE): to come in contact with a disease organism

hypothesize (hye-POTH-uh-size): to make a temporary prediction or educated guess about the cause or outcome of an event

passive (PASS-iv): to let something happen without a fight or resistance

strain (strayn): a variety or kind

Human Life

Genetic Predisposition. Some Affects of genetic diseases. Some genetic diseases affect a child at diseases are not inherited directly birth or develop during childhood. but seem to be common in certain Other genetic diseases do not families. Heart disease. diabetes. develop for many years. Some are and some types of cancer may have very serious. The people who a genetic link. A person who has develop them do not live long. several family members with a Other diseases get worse slowly. disease may have inherited a Drugs or changes in eating habits higher chance of developing the can manage some of these disease. Doctors say the person diseases. has a genetic predisposition for that disease.



CANCER

A tumor is a lump of tissue that grows in the

body. Some tumors are harmless, or benign. Benign tumors do not interfere with body functions and do not spread to other parts of the body. Most do not cause pain. But some tumors are harmful. A tumor is malignant if it interferes with how the body works, if it destroys tissues, and if it spreads to other places. We call such a malignant tumor cancer.

Cancer can grow almost anywhere in the body, such as the brain, lungs, breasts, intestines, bones, liver, stomach, and skin. Cancer cells grow very fast and take nutrients from surrounding tissue. Doctors can remove a tumor if it has not spread too far.

They can also use drugs, or chemotherapy, and radiation to destroy it. It is difficult to cure cancer if the cells have spread to the

Genetic Diseases

Some diseases pass from parent to child as part of the genetic material in chromosomes. Such illnesses are genetic diseases. A disease may develop if a certain dominant or recessive gene is inherited. A disease may also develop if an important gene is damaged or missing.

A person who inherits a dominant gene for a genetic disease will develop that disease. Luckily, recessive genes cause most genetic diseases. That means both parents have to have the gene in their chromosomes and their offspring have to inherit both genes to get the disease.

People who inherit one recessive gene for such a disease will not develop that disease. But since they have the gene, they are called carriers, meaning they could pass it along to their offspring.

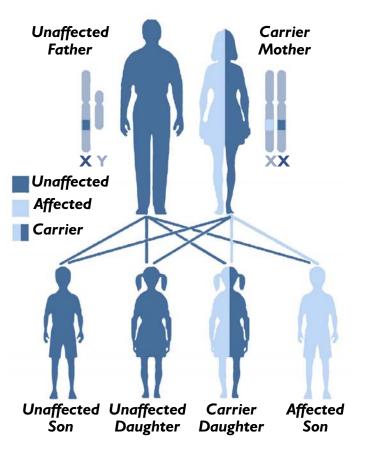
Examples of Genetic Diseases

Cystic fibrosis is a genetic disease. It affects the glands that make sweat and mucus. People with cystic fibrosis have thick mucus in their lungs that makes it hard to breathe. They are prone to lung infections.

Hemophilia is a blood-clotting

disorder. It is a genetic disease linked to the sex chromosome. The recessive gene that causes hemophilia is on the X chromosome in some families. Girls have two X chromosomes and if they inherit an X chromosome with the recessive gene, their other normal X chromosome dominates and they do not get the disease. But boys only have one X chromosome. So, if they inherit the X chromosome with the hemophilia gene, they get the disease. We call hemophilia a sex-linked disease.

X-LINKED RECESSIVE, CARRIER MOTHER



blood or to the lymph nodes that contain white blood cells.

We are still learning why normal cells become cancer cells. Some people seem to inherit a higher chance of getting certain cancers. Some pollutants in our environment, such as asbestos, increase the risk. Other people do things that increase the risk. Smoking cigarettes can cause lung cancer. Eating a diet high in fat has been linked to colon cancer.

Chemotherapy can make your hair fall out.



Many people are allergic to pollen.



Some people receive allergy shots to help with allergic reactions.



clot (klot): a solidified clump of blood cells and plasma

colon (KOH-luhn): the last half of the large intestine

lymph node (limf noad): small organs that hold the colorless liquid lymph that bathe your cells and tissues

membrane (MEM-brayn): a thin layer of tissue that covers or lines organs and cells

radiation (ray-dee-AY-shuhn): X-rays or other electromagnetic waves or particles

Allergies

Other kinds of antigens challenge your health. They include environmental pollutants (particles and chemicals in the air, food, and water) as well as toxins from insect bites and plants. Your immune system again is your main defense against these foreign materials.

Most antigens are harmless to most people. But someone who is sensitive to dust, pollen, smoke, perfume, animal hair, mold, fungus spores, some metals, certain foods, poison ivy, or insect bites may become sick. The immune system produces an allergic reaction. Symptoms include sneezing, sniffles, coughing, swelling, skin rashes and itchiness, or breathing difficulty.

One sneeze can send about 40,000 water and mucus droplets into the air.

Hay Fever

Many people are allergic to plant pollen. We call this allergy hay fever. Your nose runs and your eyes itch. Hay fever treatment often includes drugs called antihistamines. They stop the body from making a substance called histamine that causes the symptoms of allergies.



Springtime flowers often trigger hay fever.

Asthma

Many children and adults have
a disease called asthma, another
allergic reaction. People with
asthma have episodes of breathing
difficulty. The bronchioles in their
lungs get smaller during an
allergic reaction. A device called
an inhaler can help them breathespecial medications to use if you
are stung.
Some people have a very strong
reaction to an antigen the first
time they meet it. Other people
may have stronger and stronger
reactions every time they come in
contact with the antigen.

in medication and open the passages in the lungs.



More than 100 million people worldwide have asthma.

Life-Threatening Allergies

Other antigens are more harmful and can cause serious and life-threatening allergic reactions. Plant and animal toxins such as venom from a snake or bee sting are particularly dangerous. If you are allergic to bee stings you may have to carry special medications to use if you are stung.



Venom from a snake or a bee sting can be life threatening.

Poison ivy, poison oak leaves, and some seafood may not cause a reaction the first time you eat or touch them. But the next time you come in contact with them, you may become very sick or develop a severe itchy rash. Some people are so allergic to mussels that one meal, after several exposures, can kill them.



challenge (CHAL-uhnj): invite to fight

episode (EP-uh-sode): an event

pollen (POL-uhn): tiny yellow grains produced in blossoms, the male cells of a flowering plant

toxin (TOK-sin): a poisonous chemical

venom (VEN-uhm): a poison produced by some snakes and insects



A poison ivy rash may look like this.



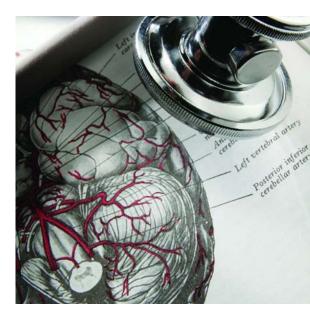
About 1 percent of the population is allergic to peanuts.

People Who Study the Human Body

People are curious. They wonder, they observe, they study, and they learn. One of their favorite subjects is living things. Biology is the study of living things. And one of the favorite subjects of biologists is the human body.



People can learn about the human body using microscopes.



People can learn about the human body from medical textbooks.

Learning to treat illnesses and injuries is called medicine. A medical doctor, or physician, tries to find out what is wrong with the body. Diagnosing injury and illness is the first step. A doctor then treats injuries and illnesses using drugs, surgery, or other therapies.

Scientists examine dead bodies to

body's structure is called anatomy.

see what is inside. Studying the

Studying and learning how the

body works is called physiology.



Some illnesses have to be treated with surgery.

Specialists

Scientists have learned so much about human physiology. Doctors often choose to concentrate, or specialize, on just one system, organ, or disease.

	MEDICAL SPEC	ALISTS	
Specialist		System, Organ, or Disease	Specialist
Allergist		Allergies	Gastroenterologis
Cardiologist		Heart	Gynecologist
Dentist		Teeth and gums	Hematologist
Dermatologist	16 A	Skin	Neurologist
Endocrinologist		Organs that produce enzymes and hormones	Oncologist

AL SPECIALISTS

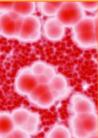
System, Organ, or Disease



Digestive system



Female reproductive organs



Blood



Nervous system, brain



Cancer

Specialist	System, Organ, or Disease
Ophthalmologist	Eyes
Orthopedist	Bones and joints
Pediatrician	Babies and children
Podiatrist	Feet
Surgeon	Repair or removal of internal organs and bones



Getting to know...

Daniel Hale Williams was an African-American born in Pennsylvania in 1856. He became a doctor and a surgeon. Williams introduced new techniques to prevent infection

during surgery.

In 1893, he became the first person to perform a successful heart operation. He opened the chest of a patient stabbed in the heart. He proved that surgery on the heart could be performed without causing death from infection. Today, surgeons perform even more complex repairs of both wounded and diseased hearts.

All these kinds of scientists and doctors help us understand the complex organism that is the human body. Every day, we find out more about how the body works.

Milestones in Medicine

Scientists and doctors studying human life have made many important discoveries. Bioengineers, chemists, and doctors have developed medical technology based on that growing body of scientific knowledge. They have developed such things as vaccines, X-rays and MRI scans, anesthesia, prosthetic bones and joints, antibiotics, and powerful drugs to fight infections, diabetes, and cancer.

Daniel Hale Williams

Their discoveries and technological breakthroughs have led to disease prevention and better medical care. Our life expectancy is longer now than it ever was in the past. Modern life is significantly better medically speaking than in the 'good old days.'



Prosthetic limbs let you play again.

WORD

complex (kom-PLEKS): very complicated

diagnose (dye-ugh-NOHSS): to determine what disease a patient has or what physical or mental problem

examine (eg-ZAM-uhn): to look carefully at



Alexander Fleming

Alexander Fleming was born in 1881 on a farm in Scotland. He attended medical school at St Mary's Hospital, in London, England. Alexander qualified for the school

with distinction in 1906 and became an assistant bacteriologist. His interest was in vaccine therapy and immunology.

Fleming was the first to notice the antibiotic properties of molds and fungi. The story of how he discovered penicillin is legend:

By 1928, Fleming had developed a reputation as a brilliant researcher, but a quite careless lab technician. He often forgot cultures that he worked on and his lab was usually in chaos.

On one occasion, after returning from a long holiday, Fleming noticed that many of his culture dishes were contaminated with a fungus. He noticed a zone around an invading fungus (mold) where the bacteria could not seem to grow. He concluded that that fungus was keeping the bacteria from growing.

After many tests with the fungus and bacteria cultures, Fleming isolated an extract from the fungus (mold) and correctly identified it as being from the penicillin family. He named the extract penicillin. And the rest is history, as the saying goes.

In 1945 he was the co-winner of the Nobel Prize in Medicine "for the discovery of penicillin and its curative effect in various infectious diseases."



THE NOBEL PRIZE

The Nobel Prize is an award that honors men

and women "... who, during the preceding year, shall have conferred the greatest benefit on mankind."

The Nobel Prize started in 1895 when Alfred Nobel, a Swedish chemist, engineer, innovator, and inventor of dynamite, wrote his last will, leaving much of his wealth to set up the prizes. Since 1901, the prize has honored men and women for outstanding achievements in physics, chemistry, medicine, literature, economics, and for work in peace. Many of the scientists and doctors who contributed to the advancement of scientific and medical knowledge won the coveted Nobel Prize for their work.



Volume 2 Animal Life



By Kelli L. Hicks

Editorial Consultant Luana Mitten Project Editor Kurt Sturm

Rourke Publishing LLC Vero Beach, Florida 32964

Table of Contents

© 2008 Rourke Publishing LLC

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced or utilized in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical including photocopying, recording, or by any information storage and retrieval system without permission in writing from the publisher.

www.rourkepublishing.com

Photo credits

Pg 4 © Jill Lang, Maslov Dmitry; Pg. 5 © Jan Martin Will, Robynrg, Joshua Haviv, Stuart Elflett; Pg. 7 © Jonathan Brizendine, EcoPrint, Peter Baxter, R. Cherubin; Pg. 8 © Randy McKown; Pg. 10 © Mike Rogal, catnap; Pg. 11 © bhathaway; Pg 12 © David Nielsam, Kolesnikov Sergey, Lindsay Noechel; Pg. 13 © David MacFarlane, Wikipedia, Carsten Medom Madsen, alle; Pg 14 Ishbukar Yalilfatar, Jefras; Pg15 © Vilmos Varga, TAOLMOR; Pg 16 © Ismael Montero Verdu; Pg 17 © Perrush, Asther Lau Choon Siew; Pg18 © Nicola Vernizzi, Don Long; Pg 19 © Timothy Craig Lubcke, kd2, Diane Labombarbe; Pg 20 © Timothy Craig Lubcke, Jose Alberto Tejo, Michael Klenetsky, Jonathan Pais; Pg 21 © Frank Kebschull, Phil Morley, Eric Isselée; Pg22 © Ami Beyer, Summer, Ron Hilton; Pg23 © Petr Ma‰ek, Aiyana Paterson-Zinkand, Daniel Wiedemann; Pg 24 © Rod Beverley; Pg 25 © Tim Zurowski, Bronwen Sexton, Derek Gordon, Tim Zurowski; Pg 26 © Brian McEntire, Wendy Nero, Pichugin Dmitry, Pam Burley, Ersler Dmitry, Olga Solovei; Pg 27 © Raynard Lyudmyla; Pg 29 © Caleb Foster, Leonid Smirnov, iconex; Pg 30 © EcoPrint, Joe Stone, Ersler Dmitry, Mike Rogal, Casey K. Bishop, iconex; Pg 31 © EcoPrint, Joshua Haviv, Ron Hilton, David Crippen, Peter Doomen, Stacey Bates; Pg 32 © Johan Swanepoel, HTuller, Duncan Gilbert; Pg 33 © Boleslaw Kubica, Chepko Danil Vitalevich, Shootov Igor, Maza; Pg 34 © Kaspars Grinvalds, Susan Flashman, Jeff Kinsey; Pg 35 © Tony Campbell; Pg 36 © Norma Cornes, Xavier Marchant, Hans Meerbeek; Pg 37 © Condor 36, Petr Ma‰ek, Ra'id Khalil; Pg 38 © Tony Campbell, Xavier Marchan, Hans Meerbeek, Condor 36, Petr Ma‰ek, Ariel Schrotter, Ra'id Khalil; Pg 39 © Wikimedia Commons; Pg 40 © MaleWitch, Mike Von Bergen, Chin Kit Sen Dusan Zidar; Pg 41 © Pichugin Dmitry, Kim Worrell, Jason Kasumovic, Coia Hubert; Po42 © Gail Johnson, Sasha Davas, Jose Gil: Po 43 © cchan, Jarslentz, skvnesher, Brett Atkins, jamirae, Christian Darkin: Po 44 © Ersler Dmitry, Miles Boyer; Pg 45 © dsabo; Pg 46 © alison elizabeth bowden, Rockfinder, Steffen Foerster Photography; Pg 47 © Caleb Foster, Diane Labombarbe; Pg 48 © tinyruth, mevans; Pg 49 © Elena Butinova, Waldemar Dabrowski, Šteffen Foerster Photography, mevans; Pg 50 © Sam Chadwick, Gail Johnson; Pg 51 © Tom Robbrecht, Dusan Zidar, Gary & Sandy Wales; Pg 52 © NNehring, Positives, David Dohnal, macroworld; Pg 53 © Casey K. Bishop, mashe; Pg 54 © Frank Boellmann. Jurate Lasiene, vandervelden; Pg 55 © Mark William Penny, Ian Scott, Oliver Sun Kim

Editor: Robert Stengard-Olliges

Cover design by Nicola Stratford

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Rourke's world of science encyclopedia / Marcia Freeman ... [et al.]. v. cm. Includes bibliographical references and index. Contents: [1] Human life --ISBN 978-1-60044-646-7 1. Science--Encyclopedias, Juvenile. 2. Technology--Encyclopedias, Juvenile. I. Freeman, Marcia S. (Marcia Sheehan), 1937-Q121.R78 2008 503--dc22

2007042493

Volume 2 of 10 ISBN 978-1-60044-648-1

Printed in the USA

CG/CG



How do animals eat?
How do animals move?
Where do animals live?
How are animals classified?
Do animals change?

Type of Animals

Single-Celled Organisms	
Mollusks, Sponges, Starfish, and W	/or
Arachnids, Crustaceans, and Insect	ts
Fish	••
Amphibians	•••
Reptiles	•••
Birds	•••
Mammals	•••

Mating and Reproduction in Animals

Mating	•••	•	•	•	•	••	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Reproduction		•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•

Animal Adaptations

Behavior
Defense Mechanisms
Hunting
Social Groups
Symbiosis

How We Use Animals

As Pets In Work and Sport In Scientific Experiments For Food Other Animal Products Animal Rights

Endangered Species

Changes to Habitats Pollution Hunting and Poaching

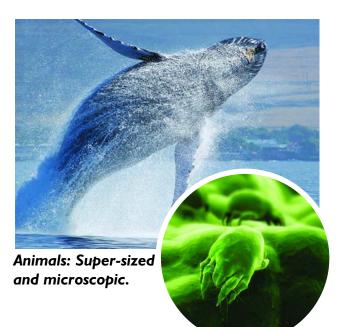
People Who Study Animals

Zoology	•	•••	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Veterinarian																	

• • •	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	.4	
	•		•	•	•	•••	•	•		•	•	•		•	•	•••	•	•		•	•	•		.4	
	•		•	•	·		•	•		•	•	•	•••	•	•		•	•		•	•	•		.5	
	•	• •	•	·	•	•••	•	•	• •	•	•	•	•••	•	·	•••	٠	•	• •	•	٠	•	• •	.8	
																									_
• • •																									
••••																									
/orm																									
ts																									
• • • •																									
• • • •																									
	•	•••	•	·	•	•••	•	·	• •	•	·	•	•••	·	•	•••	•	•	•••	•	٠	•	• •	•20)
als .																								4	Δ
• • • •																									
	•	•••	•	•	•	•••	•	·	• •	•	•	•	•••	·	•	•••	•	•	•••	•	•	•	• •	• 1	'
• • •																				•				.5	0
			•		•					•		•					•	•		•				.55	5
• • •	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	.5	6
	•		•	•	•	•••	•	•	• •	•	•	•		•	•	•••	•	•		•	•	•	• •	.57	7
• • • •	•	•••	•	•	·	•••	٠	•	• •	•	·	•	•••	•	·	•••	٠	·	• •	•	•	•	• •	.59)
																									~
• • •																									
• • • •																									
• • • •																									
• • • •	•	•••	•	·	·	•••	•	·	• •	•	•	•	•••	•	·	•••	•	•	•••	•	٠	•	• •	.0	L
• • •																								6	2
•••																									
• • • •							•																		6

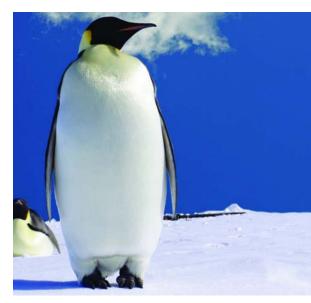
What Is an Animal?

Animals are living creatures. They include very small creatures such as dust mites and very large creatures such as whales. Animals are multi-cellular organisms that eat food to survive. They cannot get energy from the sun like plants do. Most animals can move on their own.



How do animals move?

Animals move in many different A snake is an animal with no ways. Some animals use their legs legs. It must use the muscles and to move. A clam uses one leg to dig scales in its body to slither across into the mud or sand. A penguin the ground. Birds, bats, and waddles on two legs and swims insects use wings to fly in the air. with its wings. A coyote walks or Fish swim in the water. The runs on four legs. Ants walk on crocodile can swim in the water. six legs while a spider crawls but it can also walk on land using around using eight legs. its legs.



A penguin waddles on two legs.



A coyote walks or runs on four legs.

How do animals eat?

An animal needs to eat in order to live. Animals eat different things and eat in different ways. A butterfly has a proboscis that looks like a tongue and works like a straw. The butterfly keeps its proboscis curled up until it is ready to eat. Then it unrolls its proboscis and dips it into the nectar of a flower and drinks it.

A chameleon shoots out its sticky tongue to catch insects. Squirrels have strong teeth and use them to crack open nuts. Then they carry the nuts in their cheeks back to their homes. An earthworm tunnels through the ground and feeds on bits of rotting plants.





Squirrels can crack nuts with their strong teeth.



Ants walk on six legs.



Spiders crawl on eight legs.

Animal Life

Where do animals live?

Animals live in every environment on earth from mountain tops to ocean floors. Animals survive in environments which support their habitat. An animal's habitat supplies all the things it needs to survive such as food, water, oxygen, shelter, and temperature.

Some animals live in many different environments that



support their habitat. 2.1 Bald eagles live all over North America in environments that have lakes, marshes, seacoasts, or rivers for catching fish and tall trees for nesting and roosting. Other animals live in one environment. Polar bears live only in arctic environments.

How are animals classified?

Animals can be grouped in divided into orders and then many different ways. One way families. Families are divided into scientist's group animals and genus. Finally, genus are divided to plants is by scientific classification. identify a specific species. An animal's two-part scientific name Classification starts with the comes from the animal's genus kingdom and then divides them into groups called phyla. The next and species. division is the class. Classes are





Insects like ants, butterflies, dragonflies, katydids, and ladybugs.

Spiders and scorpions.

Crabs, lobsters, shrimp, crayfish, and pill bugs.

Fish with bony skeletons like tuna, bass, salmon, and trout.

Birds like robins, ducks, penguins, and ostriches.

Mammals like cats, dogs, rodents, bears, whales, apes, and humans.

Do animals change?

Animals evolve, or change, in nature. Scientists believe all plants and animals evolved from a common ancestor over billions of years. Scientists study the changes in different animals by looking at old bones called fossils.



A fossil of a fish.

Fossils from millions of years ago show animals very different from those that are around today.

Animal species may evolve between generations because of a mutation. Mutations are changes in DNA. They can be caused by radiation from the sun, chemicals in the environment, or cosmic rays from outer space. Some mutations help an animal adapt to its world. Adaptation is important to the survival of a species. Animals that can adjust to changes have a better chance of surviving and producing offspring. This is called natural selection.



Charles Darwin

Charles Darwin was born in England in 1809. He was a naturalist. A scientist who studies plants and animals.
 Darwin began to study evolution after a voyage on a ship
 MAS Beagle in 1832

called the HMS Beagle in 1832.

The Beagle went to the Galápagos Islands, near the west coast of South America. Darwin studied the birds that lived on the island. He found that the 13 different species of finches there had all descended from the same species of finch from the mainland of South America. The finches had evolved different beaks to eat the different types of foods available to them. Darwin published his book, *On the Origin of Species* in 1859. The book described the theory of natural selection.



Charles Darwin studied the birds on the Galápagos Islands.

Humans have affected how animals evolve using artificial selection. For example, people have bred sheep over thousands of years to produce wool for clothing. Those sheep with nice wool were allowed to reproduce.



Natural Selection Can Occur Overnight.

In 19th century England, the white trunks of many trees turned black from pollution. Suddenly, people noticed there were more black moths than white moths. It was easier for birds to see the white moths on the trees and eat them! The black moths were safe. Those with bad wool were not allowed to have offspring.

Sometimes, an entire species is unable to survive. This is called extinction. Most of the fossils scientists find are of animals that are now extinct.



adaptation (ad-ap-TAY-shuhn): a change that a living thing goes through so it fits better with its environment

evolution (ev-uh-LOO-shuhn): the gradual change of living things over thousands of years

extinction (ex-STINGKT-shuhn): when a type of plant or animal has died out

generation (jun-uh-RAY-shuhn): the time between the birth of parents and the birth of their offspring 9

Types of Animals

There are many different animals in the world. Animals may eat plants or meat to live. They live bodies. The bodies of warmin different types of environments all around the world. Their bodies help them to survive in their habitat.

Predators and Prey

Predators are animals that hunt and eat other animals for food. Prey are the animals that predators backbone, or spine. Some hunt. A lion is a predator that hunts for prey such as the wildebeest or a zebra. The killer whale will eat sea animals such as sea lions or seals.



Lions are predators.

Warm-Blooded and Cold-Blooded

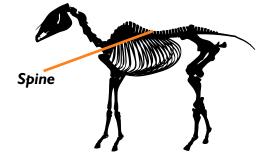
Some animals are cold-blooded. These animals depend on heat from outside their bodies to keep warm. Snakes and lizards are

cold-blooded animals that bask in the sun on rocks to warm their blooded animals stay at about the same temperature all the time. Humans and other mammals are warm-blooded animals.

Invertebrates and Vertebrates

Most animals are invertebrates. These animals do not have a examples of invertebrates are insects, snails, octopi, worms, and jellyfish. Vertebrates have a spine inside their bodies. Mammals, birds, reptiles, amphibians, and fish are all vertebrates.





Horses are vertebrates because they have a spine inside their bodies.

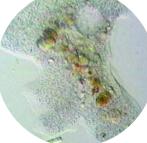
Single-Celled Organisms

Some organisms are really small, or microscopic. They can be seen only with a powerful microscope. Living things that have only one cell are called single-celled organisms.

Many single-celled organisms used to be placed in the animal kingdom. Today they are part of the Protista kingdom and are called protozoans. Some protozoa eat other organisms. Other protozoa make their own food using sunlight like plants.

Amoebas are one type of protozoa. They live in water and other moist places. Many single-celled organisms live in large groups called colonies. Some types live inside tiny shells. When they die, their shells eventually become chalk.





An amoeba shown under a microscope.

Bacteria are also single-celled microscopic organisms. They used to be considered animals but because bacteria don't have a nucleus, scientists now put bacteria in the kingdoms Eubacteria and Archaebacteria. Bacteria are the most widespread form of life on the planet. They are found in the air, soil, and water, and in plants and animals. They live in colonies. Bacteria are either round, spiral, or rod-shaped.

Bacteria have different roles in the environment. Some bacteria help digest food in plants and animals. Other bacteria break down dead plants and animals. Harmful bacteria in food and water can make you sick. Bacterial infections inside the body of an animal can be dangerous.



cell (SEL): a basic, microscopic part of an animal or a plant

infection (in-FEK-shuhn): an illness caused by bacteria or viruses

microscopic (mye-kruh-SKOP-ik): too small to be seen without a microscope

nucleus (NOO-klee-uhss): the central part of a cell, containing the chromosomes

organism (OR-guh-niz-uhm): a living plant or animal

11

Mollusks, Sponges, Starfish, and Worms

Mollusks

Mollusks are invertebrates with soft bodies. Most mollusks live underwater. They include limpets, clams, oysters, mussels, squids, octopuses, and some snails. Some types of mollusks live on land. They include land snails and slugs. Some mollusks protect themselves by making hard shells around their bodies. Squids and octopuses are the most complex mollusks.



Clams protect themselves with a hard shell.

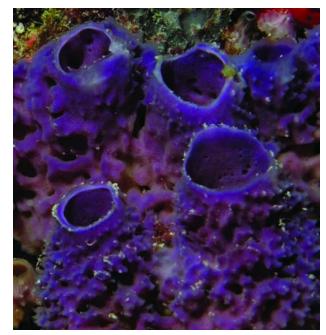




Garden snails protect themselves with a hard shell.

Sponges

Sponges are the simplest form of multi-cellular animals. or animals that are made of more than one cell. Most sponges live in shallow water, but some live deep in the ocean. If a piece breaks off of a sponge it will grow into a new sponge. Sponges eat small pieces of food by pulling them through tiny holes in their bodies. The skeletons of some sponges can absorb water when they die. People sometimes use these skeletons for bath sponges.



Purple Tube Sponges.

Starfish

Starfish, also known as sea stars, are star-shaped organisms that have five arms. The skin on their bodies has many spines. This helps protect them from predators. Starfish move using tube like feet that are found under each arm. Each tube foot has a sucker at the end. The suckers allow starfish to stick to rocks and to hold onto prey. They eat live coral, crabs, and mussels.

Worms and five blood vessels with valves that work like hearts. Leeches live Worms come in many sizes and shapes. Some are flat, and some in water and on land. They have are round. Tapeworms and flukes suckers at both ends of their have flat bodies. Tapeworms live bodies. Some leeches suck blood inside the intestines of vertebrates. for food. One type of fluke lives inside the liver of mammals. Animals that Tapeworms have live inside other animals and cause flat bodies. harm to their hosts are called parasites. Roundworms have bodies shaped like a tube. Some are parasites, and some live in the Roundworm bodies are ground or in water. tube-shaped.

Segmented worms include earthworms and leeches. These types of worms have long bodies with many sections, or segments. They live in the ground and eat dead leaves. They have no eyes



Starfish can cling to rocks using their suckers.

Earthworm bodies have segments.

Arachnids, Crustaceans, and Insects

Arachnids, crustaceans, and insects are the largest group of invertebrates. All these animals have bodies with several segments.

They have hard shells called exoskeletons. They leave their shells, or molt, as they grow bigger. Then they make new shells.



Arachnids

Arachnids include spiders, scorpions, mites, and ticks. They all have eight legs. Spiders live anywhere that there are insects to eat. Some spiders spin webs to catch their prey. The trapdoor spider makes a tunnel in the ground and lines it with silk. The spider waits for an insect and opens its door to catch the prey. They use long teeth, called fangs to kill or stun their prey.

Scorpions have claws to hold their food. Sometimes, they use stingers at the end of their abdomens for defense. Mites are tiny parasites that live on animals, plants, and food. Ticks suck the



A cicada emerging from its shell.

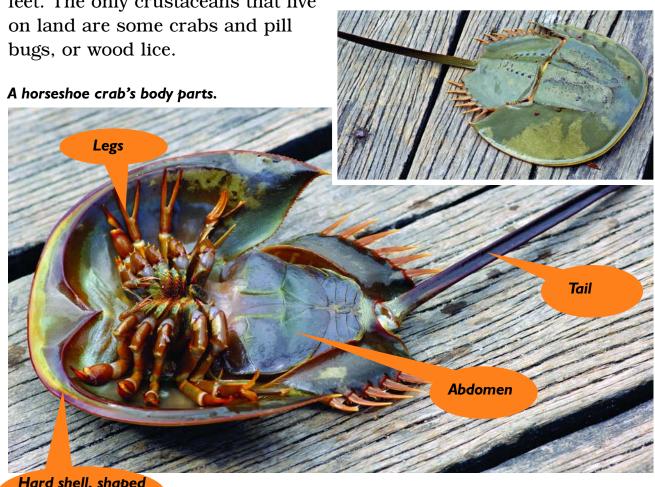


Magnified view of a tick on human skin.

blood of warm-blooded vertebrates. Both mites and ticks can spread disease.

Crustaceans

Most crustaceans live underwater. Their bodies have many segments that bend when they swim or crawl. Attached to each segment are pairs of legs, claws, or antennas. They have two sets of antennas on their heads. Crustaceans include barnacles. crabs, lobsters, and shrimp. Barnacles cling to rocks, shells, and other animals in the sea. Crabs and lobsters have big claws for holding and eating food. Shrimp breathe and eat with their feet. The only crustaceans that live



Hard shell, shaped like a horse's hoof.





Barnacles clinging to a rock.

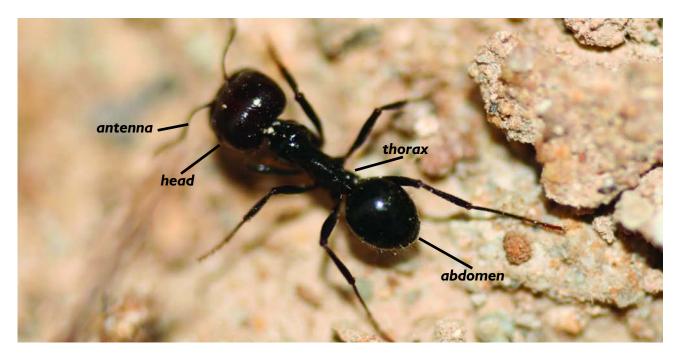


Animal Life

Insects

Insects live almost everywhere. Some insects crawl along the ground. Many fly in the air. All insect bodies have three parts. The head has eyes and antennae. The middle part, or thorax, has legs for walking. Most insects have six legs. Some have wings. The back end is called the abdomen.

There are many different types of insects. Ants crawl around in search of food and bring it back to their colony. Dragonflies and beetles fly through the air. Dragonfly wings stick out away from their bodies. Beetle wings fold up across their bodies.





abdomen (AB-duh-muhn): the back section of an insect's body

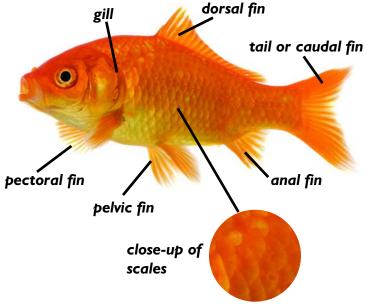
antennae (an-TEN-uh): a feeler on the head of an insect

thorax (THOR-aks): the part of an insect's body between its head and its abdomen

The eyes of flies are very complex. They are called compound eyes because they have thousands of parts. Bees and wasps have stingers to defend themselves. They can sting people or animals if they are attacked or threatened. Mosquitoes are small. They suck the blood of mammals through a long mouth part called a proboscis.

Fish

Fish are cold-blooded onto the beach under a full moon to spawn. Salmon live in the vertebrates that live in water. Most fish are covered in scales and ocean but return to freshwater to have fins to help them move. Gills spawn. They swim up streams let them breathe underwater. against the current. Many fish live in the ocean. The ocean water has salt in it. Other fish live in freshwater. or water that is not salty. Lakes, marshes, ponds, rivers, and streams all contain freshwater. Some people keep fish as pets. The fish live in glass containers called aquariums.



Most fish lay many soft eggs in the water. This is called spawning. The eggs are fertilized by the male fish in the water and are left to hatch on their own. Grunion are silver-colored fish that live in California waters. They wriggle

Salmon fight strong currents to spawn upstream.

Fish have many ways to protect themselves from predators. A puffer, or blowfish, inflates like a balloon. Enemies are frightened away or are not able to bite the fish. Puffers are also poisonous, and some have spines.



The lungfish has both gills and lungs. The lungfish can live in water with little oxygen. It can even breathe air when the water dries up.

Lungfish.

Many people think sharks are dangerous. They are good predators, but most are harmless to humans. Sharks skeletons are made of a softer material called cartilage, instead of bone. Sharks have many rows of teeth. Some types of sharks give birth to live offspring. This means that the babies grow inside the mother's body until they are born. The hammerhead shark and tiger shark both give birth to babies this way.



cartilage (KAR-tuh-lij): a strong, elastic, fibrous tissue

gill (GIL): the organ on a fish's side through which it breathes

lungs (LUHNGSS): a pair of baglike organs inside many animals chests that they use to breathe



Jaws from a shark showing the rows of teeth.

Some sharks, like the grey nurse shark, have eggs that hatch inside the mother. The babies that hatch first sometimes eat the other eggs. Other sharks lay eggs that hatch outside the mother's body. A horn shark egg is covered in a leather-like case to protect the egg while it is waiting to hatch.



A hammerhead shark.

Amphibians

Amphibians are cold-blooded vertebrates. They have a lot in common with both fish and reptiles. Amphibians include frogs, toads, salamanders, newts and caecilians. Frogs have smooth, wet skin. Toads have dry, warty skin and spend more time on land. Salamanders and newts are like lizards, but they do not have scales.





A frog has smooth, wet skin.

A toad has dry, warty skin.

Life Cycle Of A Frog and Toad Frogs and Eggs become Tadpoles develop toads lay eggs tadpoles. back and front le

Most amphibians lay eggs in the water, like fish. The eggs hatch into larvae that have gills and live underwater. The larvae of frogs and toads have tails but no legs. They are called tadpoles. Tadpoles develop back legs and then front legs before their tails disappear.

The larvae of salamanders and newts look more like adults. As an amphibian larva grows, its gills disappear and lungs develop.

Amphibians eat insects and other small invertebrates such as turtles and snakes. Frogs and toads have long tongues to catch their prey. They have long back legs for jumping. Most frogs and toads make loud sounds with their throats.



Reptiles

Reptiles are vertebrates that have dry skin covered with scales or bony plates. They do not have feathers or fur. Most reptiles lay eggs with tough shells. Many reptiles have short legs while some have no legs at all. They are cold-blooded and breathe air. Reptiles include alligators, crocodiles, lizards, snakes, terrapins, tortoises, and turtles.

Alligators and Crocodiles

Alligators and crocodiles look very similar. They both have long bodies and tails. Some are very large. Their skin is thick and scaly. Crocodiles have thin noses, and alligators have broader noses.



Crocodiles have thin noses.



Alligators have broad noses.

They have many sharp teeth. Alligators and crocodiles live near water and swim well. They eat fish and often attack animals that come to drink. They lay eggs on land.

Lizards

Lizards are the largest group of reptiles. They have a small head, short neck, and a long body and tail. Lizards can be small like a gecko or quite large like the Komodo dragon.



Geckos can be a 1/2 inch to about 14 inches (1.5 to 35 cm) long.



A Komodo dragon can get up to 10 feet (3 m) long.

Most lizards have four legs but some lizards have no legs. They look like snakes except they have eyelids and ears. Other types of lizards can run fast. One type of lizard, the basilisks, can run across the surface of water. Some lizards swim well, and others are good climbers.



A basilisk lizard.



Some Lizards Can Change Colors

The chameleon is a lizard that can become the color of whatever it is sitting on! Well, at least the colors of trees and rocks. The chameleon also has strange eyes. They can spin, or rotate, in different directions at the same time.

Most lizards eat insects but some eat birds or other reptiles and some eat mostly plants. Nearly all lizards lay eggs, but a few types give birth to live offspring. Many lizards can lose their tails to
e escape when they are attacked. A new tail will grow back in its place. Two types of lizards, the Gila Monster and Beaded lizard are poisonous.



A beaded lizard.



Animal Life

Snakes

covered in a scaly skin. A snake's skin can be one solid color or it can be multi-colored with different markings or patterns. Snakes do not have eyelids, external ear openings, arms, or legs.



Snake skin comes in many colors and patterns.

Some snakes slither quickly along the ground. Others climb trees. And still others swim in the water. Different kinds of snakes live poisonous venom. A rattlesnake in different habitats. Different types has a special part on its tail that it of rattlesnakes are found all over North America. Rainforests are home to boa constrictors. Sea snakes, like the turtle-headed sea snake live in the water.



A sea snake poking out of the sand.

Snakes eat other animals. They Snakes have long, narrow bodies do not chew their food. They have flexible jaws that open wide to swallow their prey whole. Many snakes eat their prey while it is still alive. Others kill their prey first.



Snakes' jaws can open wide to swallow prey.

Boa constrictors and pythons squeeze their prey to death. A poisonous snake injects its prey with venom. Cobras, mambas, and copperheads are all snakes with shakes to warn enemies. Some snakes have special holes, or pits, that sense differences in heat. These snakes can find their prey in the dark.



A boa.

They go into underground burrows **Terrapin, Tortoises, and Turtles** when the sun gets too hot. Giant Most terrapins, tortoises, and tortoises live a long time. Tortoises turtles are very similar. They have can live to be over 100 years old. large, bony shells covered with big scales. They can pull their heads, arms, and legs inside the shell when they are threatened. So, why do we have three different names for this group of reptiles? The names are based on the three types of habitats these reptiles live in.

Terrapins spend time both on Turtles spend most of their lives land and in the water. They always in the water and lay their eggs on live near freshwater areas like the land. Turtles usually have marshes, ponds, and streams. webbed feet for swimming. Sea Many have adapted to life in brackish, swampy areas. Some turtles live in saltwater. Their webbed feet are like paddles. The terrapins hibernate during the biggest reptile is a kind of sea winter months. The box turtle is turtle called a leatherback. Other actually a terrapin. turtles live in freshwater like marshes, ponds, streams, and lakes. They swim but also can be seen basking in the sun on logs, rocks. or the banks of the water.



A box turtle or terrapin

Tortoises are turtles that live on land. They have high shells that protect them. Their strong, stumpy legs help them walk on land and dig burrows. Many tortoises have adapted to life in hot, dry areas.







A giant tortoise.



A sea turtle.



Dinosaurs

Dinosaurs were a group of reptiles that

lived in the Mesozoic era millions of years ago. The Mesozoic era is divided into the Triassic, Jurassic, and Cretaceous periods. All the dinosaurs died at the end of the Cretaceous period. They became extinct.

Because there were no people during that time, we only know about them from fossils and from related animals that are still alive today. The word "dinosaur" is often used for any large reptile that is now extinct.

Dinosaurs lived mostly on land. Many were very large, like the Brachiosaurus. The smallest dinosaur was the size of a chicken.

Some dinosaurs ate plants. Triceratops was a group of planteating dinosaurs with three horns and large, bony plates on their necks. They walked on all four legs.

Some dinosaurs hunted other animals. Tyrannosaurus rex is the species name of a large dinosaur that ate other animals. It had a big head and sharp teeth. It walked on its back legs and had small front legs.

Other reptiles related to dinosaurs lived at the same time as dinosaurs. Plesiosaurs were marine reptiles with flat bodies, long necks, and flipper like feet. The pterodactyl was a reptile that could fly. It had wings and a beak, like birds. But it did not have feathers.



Birds

Birds are warm-blooded vertebrates. They are the only animals with feathers. Their two front legs are wings. Most birds use their wings to fly. Birds use their hind legs and feet for walking, swimming, or holding onto branches. Most birds have tails.

All birds lay eggs with hard shells. Most birds build nests to keep their eggs safe and warm. They may use leaves, twigs, grass, feathers, or paper.



A robin's eggs in a nest.

Birds have sharp beaks for eating. They may eat insects, seeds, nectar, or other animals. A woodpecker has a very hard beak for making holes in tree trunks. Some woodpeckers eat insects found in the holes. Others drink the sap that oozes from the holes.



A pelican is a large bird that eats fish. It can carry a whole fish in the large sac in its throat. A hummingbird is a tiny bird with a thin beak. It uses its long tongue to drink nectar from flowers. Hawks and other birds of prey have a hooked beak for ripping and tearing apart prey.





Birds of prey hunt animals, including other birds. They have long, sharp claws called talons. These birds include owls, hawks, and eagles. Owls can turn their heads to look behind them for prey.



Birds like ducks.

swimming.

swans and penguins have webbed feet for

Bird Feet

Birds of prey like hawks, eagles and owls have talons for hunting.



Smaller birds use their feet for perching. Their toes can hold onto branches.

Some birds have beautiful feathers. They use them to attract mates. A male peacock has long, colorful feathers in its tail. It spreads its tail like a fan. A parrot has many bright colors. It can repeat, or mimic, sounds that it hears. You can teach a parrot to repeat words.

Penguins are birds that cannot fly. They use their wings to swim. Penguins wings work like paddles under the water. The Galápagos penguin lives near the equator, the hottest part of the world. The emperor penguin lives in Antarctica, the coldest part of the world.





Ducks, geese, and swans float on water. They have broad, flat feet with pieces of tissue, or webs, between their toes. These webbed feet are like paddles that help the birds swim on top of the water.

Ostrich are one of a few types of birds that cannot swim or fly. The ostrich is a large bird that lives in Africa. The body of the ostrich is too large for its wings to lift it off the ground. It has big, powerful legs and can run very fast. The rhea in South America and the emu in Australia are like the ostrich.

Getting to

know...

John James Audubon was born in 1785 and grew up in France. His family sent him to live in the United States when he was eighteen. He lived on a farm in Pennsylvania. nature and art. He decided to draw every type of bird in He drew male and female birds. He drew illustrations taring for their young and their feeding habits.

Audubon loved nature and art. He decided to draw every type of bird in North America. He drew male and female birds. He drew illustrations showing birds caring for their young and their feeding habits.
Audubon could not find people who were interested in his paintings.
So, he took his pictures to England and Scotland. He earned enough money to begin publishing *The Birds of America*. The book had very large pages. It showed a thousand different birds from five hundred species.
Audubon also wrote about the behavior of birds.

The Audubon Society was named to honor John James Audubon and works to protect birds, other wildlife, and their habitats.



An ostrich.

John James Audubon

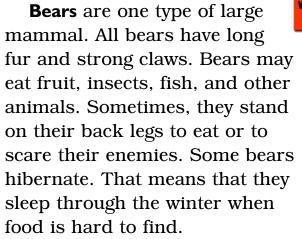
Mammals

Mammals are probably the animals you know best. Humans are mammals. So are dogs and cats. Mammals share some similar traits. They are all warmblooded vertebrates. They have at least some hair or fur on their bodies. Female mammals have special body parts called mammary glands. These glands make milk that baby mammals drink. Almost every mammal gives birth to live offspring. A few types of mammals such as kangaroos have a pouch where the baby continues to grow after it is born. A couple of mammals even lay eggs.



Newborn piglets feed on their mother.

Land mammals

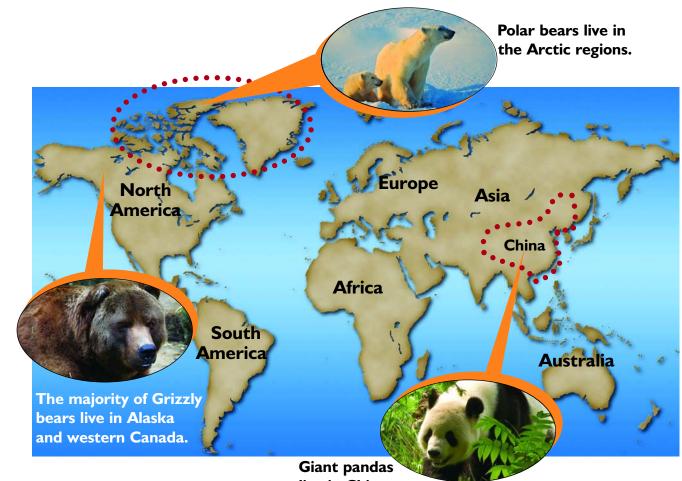


Polar bears are the biggest bear. They live in arctic areas and have white fur. Polar bears have two types of fur. Thick, woolly fur keeps them warm while guard hairs keep them dry. Polar bears catch fish and hunt seals.



Polar bears have thick, woolly fur to keep them warm.





Cats

Some wild mammals are related to domesticated cats. Cats are one type of mammal that comes in many sizes and colors. Cats hunt other animals and have sharp teeth and claws. Many are good climbers.

Tigers are the largest cats. They live in Asia. Most tigers are orange with black stripes. Unlike other cats, tigers like water. They hunt alone rather than in a group.

live in China.



Tigers are an endangered species.

Animal Life

Lions have light brown fur. They live in Africa. It is easy to tell if the lion is male because he has long, darker fur around his head called a mane. Lions live in a group called a pride. Usually, only one male lion will be in the pride. The female lions hunt for food for the pride and will hunt in a group.

Leopards live in Asia and Africa. They have light brown fur with black spots. A leopard hunts alone and drags its prey into a tree to hide it from other hungry animals.

Cat		Details
Cheetah	- Ale	Habitat: Africa Length: 6-7 feet (1.8-2.15 m) Weight: 100-125 pounds (45-55 kg)
Jaguar		Habitat: South and Central America Length: 4-6 feet (1.2-1.8m) Weight 79-300 pounds (36-136 kg)
Leopard		Habitat: Asia and Africa Length: 3.5-5.5 feet (1-1.7 m) Weight: 65-175 pounds (30-80 kg)
Lion		Habitat: Africa and India Length: 6 feet (1.8 m) Weight: 420 pounds (190 kg)
Cougar		Habitat: North and South America Length: 6 feet (1.8 m) Weight: 200 pounds (90 kg)
Tiger		Habitat: Asia Length: 4.5-9 feet (1.4-2.7 m) Weight: 500 pounds (230 kg)

Dogs

Some wild mammals are related to domesticated dogs. These mammals are predators that often hunt in groups, called packs.

Coyotes look like a small, light brown wolf. They live in North America and may hunt near people's homes. A covotes howling and other sounds are one of the few wild mammal sounds commonly heard by humans.



A coyote.

Foxes are smaller than coyotes and have a bushy tail and large ears. Foxes are well adapted to all habitats such as the arctic, deserts, forests, and grasslands.

There Are Different Kinds of Foxes

Arctic Fox. They live in Arctic regions of Europe, Asia, Iceland, Greenland and North America.

Desert Fox or Fennec. Red Fox. They live in Can be found in the Sahara parts of the United States, Canada, Europe, Asia Desert of North Africa. and Australia.



Jackals look like the coyote. They live in Africa and Asia. Jackals usually live alone or in pairs.



Wolves are larger than most domestic dogs. They may be gray or red. Wolves live in North America, Europe, and Asia.







Animal Life

Elephants and Rhinos

Elephants are the biggest land animals. Adult elephants can weigh six tons (5443 kg) or more. There are different types of elephants in different parts of the world. The African elephant is larger than the Asian or Indian elephant and also has bigger ears.

Male elephants have long teeth called tusks made of ivory. Muscles in an elephant's trunk let it pick up objects and drink water. Elephants eat hundreds of pounds of plants every day.

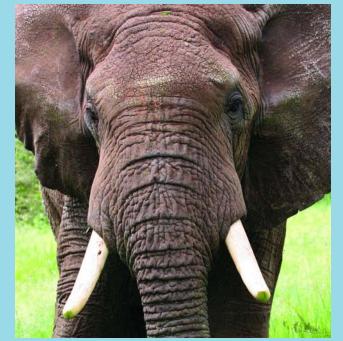




African elephants have larger ears than Indian elephants.



Elephants have few natural enemies except man. They are in danger of extinction because of loss of habitat and poaching. Elephants are hunted for their ivory tusks which have been used to make items such as jewelry and piano keys. They are listed as an endangered species. Conservationists are trying to protect the elephant by making laws to ban the sale of ivory.



Rhinoceros, or rhinos, are another large mammal from Africa and Asia. They have thick gray skin and little hair. like the elephant. A rhino has one or two horns on its nose.

Hoofed mammals

Many mammals have a hard piece on the bottom of each foot called a hoof. They eat plants an often live in groups called herds. Many have horns or antlers on their heads. Some of these mammals are domesticated, such as horses, cows, sheep, goats, and pigs.

Other hoofed mammals live in the wild, such as antelope, bison deer, giraffe, and zebras.

Zebras live in Africa. Zebras are like horses with black-and-white stripes.

There Are Different Kinds of Hooves

Animals like horses, donkeys, and zebras have one hoof on each foot.









	Giraffes also live in Africa. They
	have long legs and a very long
ıd	neck. Giraffes can reach leaves at
•	the tops of trees.
	Camels live in the deserts of
	Africa and Asia. They are a large
ch	animal that has one or two humps
	on its back. Camels have one nail
	and a large, soft pad instead of a
n	hoof. This helps them walk
1,	on sand.

Animals like goats, deer and cows have cloven hooves. They look split.

Camels do not have hooves. Instead they have a two-toed foot with toenails.



Marsupials

Marsupials are mammals with a pouch. The pouch is where the developing young marsupial lives when it leaves its mother's uterus. In the pouch a baby marsupial finds a nipple where it can drink the milk from its mother. The baby will complete its development in the pouch. It will not leave the pouch until it can survive outside. Most marsupials live in Australia and South America.

Kangaroos are the largest marsupials. They have small front legs, large back legs, and a thick tail. The kangaroo uses its back legs to leap high and far. It often stands on its back legs.

Kangaroos eat plants. A baby kangaroo is called a joey. The joey may ride in its mother's pouch to feed or travel until it is a year old.



Koalas are another marsupial from Australia. They look like a bear. Koalas live in eucalyptus trees and eat the trees leaves and young bark. A female koala carries its baby on its back until the offspring is a year old.



Opossums are the only marsupial native to North America. They have a long nose and a tail like a rat. Opossums can hang upside down by their tails. They often live near people and search garbage cans for food. Opossums will eat both plants and animals.



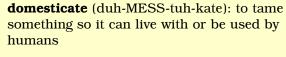
Primates

Humans belong to the group of mammals called primates. The other primates are apes, monkeys, and lemurs. Primates depend on their eyesight to find food or locate a mate. Their eyes are on the front of their faces. Primates see the world with both eyes at the same time. The image seen by one eye overlaps with the image that the other eye sees. This gives primates a good sense of depth, or how far away something is. Primates can see in color, unlike most other animals.

Primates have bodies that are good for climbing trees. They have long arms and legs. Their thumbs are opposable. This means that the bone of the thumb can turn, or rotate, to touch the other fingers. The hands of primates can hold branches or food.

Primates have nails instead of claws. They have small folds on the palms of their hands and soles of their feet to help them hold objects. In humans, these folds are fingerprints. Lemurs and many monkeys have long tails. Apes and humans do not have tails.





native (NAY-tiv): an animal or plant that originally lived or grew in a certain place

poacher (POHCH-UR): a person who hunts or fishes illegally

vertebrate (VUR-tuh-brate): any animal that has a backbone

wild (WILDE): natural or not tamed by humans

Animal Life

Orangutans live on the Pacific islands of Borneo and Sumatra. near Asia. They have brown skin and long red fur. Orangutans climb with their hands and feet. They live in trees and eat plants.

Lemurs

Lemurs are small primates. They live on the island of Madagascar, near Africa. They have small heads, large eyes, soft fur, and a long bushy tail. Most lemurs eat leaves, fruit, flowers and sometimes insects or small vertebrates. Some scientists put lemurs in their own group because they have some differences from other primates.

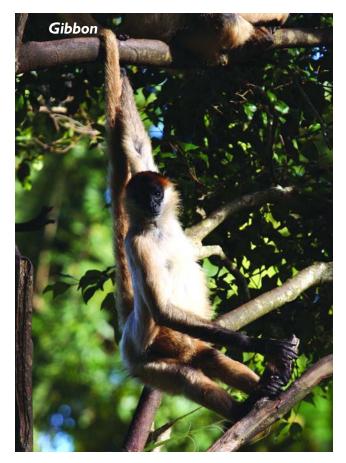
Ruffed Lemurs are just one of many kinds of lemurs.



Apes

Apes live in Africa and Asia and on some islands in the Pacific Ocean. They have no tails. Apes include gorillas, chimpanzees, orangutans, gibbons, and siamang.

Gibbons are small apes. They have very long arms and swing from tree branches.



Chimpanzees live in Africa. They are smaller than gorillas and have dark fur and skin. Chimpanzees walk on their knuckles like the gorillas, but spend more time in trees.

Chimpanzees may use tools in the wild. They will use a stick to get ants or termites out of a hole or to scare away an unwanted intruder.



Gorillas live in Africa. They are very large and strong. Gorillas have dark fur and skin. They walk on their feet and the knuckles of their hands. They can climb trees, but do not do so very often. Gorillas eat mostly plants, but they may also eat meat.







Monkeys

Monkeys are called either New World monkeys or Old World monkeys. New World monkeys live in Central and South America. They live in trees and have long tails. Some use their tails to hang from trees. Howler monkeys can make loud noises. Old World monkeys live in Africa and Asia. They have small tails. The baboon has a long nose, lives on the ground, and eats both plants and animals.



Animal Life

Primate	Where They Live
Chimpanzees	Africa
Gibbons	Tropical rain forests in Southeast Asia
Gorillas	Africa
Orangutans	Borneo and Sumatra, near Asia
Lemurs	Madagascar, near Africa
Monkeys (Old World)	Africa and Asia
Monkeys (New World)	South and Central America

Getting to know...



Jane Goodall

Three women are famous for studying the behavior of apes. Jane Goodall was born in England in 1934. She went to Tanzania, in Africa, to study chimpanzees. Dian Fossey was born in San Francisco in 1932. She went to Zaire, in Africa, to study gorillas. Biruté Galdikas was born in 1946 and grew up in Canada. She went to the Pacific island of Borneo to study orangutans.

All three women were students of Louis Leakey. He was both an anthropologist, a scientist who studies humans, and a paleontologist, a scientist who studies fossils. He wanted to learn about apes so he could understand humans better.

Goodall, Fossey, and Galdikas lived with the apes and got to know them well. They studied the social system of the animals. They tried to protect the apes from human diseases, the destruction of their habitats, and poachers.



- **Dian Fossey**

- ASIA

Biruté Galdikas

AFRICA Zaire Tanzania

Borneo

AUSTRALIA

Rodents

A rodent is a small mammal. All rodents' front teeth continue to grow like your fingernails. They gnaw on food or other things to grind down their front teeth. Rodents often nibble nuts and seeds in small bites.

Rodents that live in the wild include squirrels, gophers,

porcupines, chipmunks, and prairie dogs. Many people keep rodents such as mice, rats, guinea pigs, and hamsters as pets. Rodents reproduce frequently and usually have many offspring. Some mammals that are like rodents are rabbits and shrews.



There Are Different Kinds of Rodents

Capybaras are the largest rodent in the world.

Some rodents, like hamsters, make good pets. covered in quills.

A porcupine is a rodent







Water mammals

Some mammals spend most or all of their lives in water. For example, beavers live both on land and in the water while manatees live their whole life in the water.

Hippos, or hippopotamuses, are a large animal with thick, gray skin like an elephant. Their eyes, ears, and nostrils are located high on their heads so the hippo can stay deep in the water for long periods of time. Hippos do this to stay cool and avoid getting sunburned.

Otters are furry mammals that eat fish and mollusks in rivers and the ocean. They float on their backs and break open shells with rocks.

Beavers are furry rodents that use branches to make dams across rivers. They build homes that they enter from underwater.





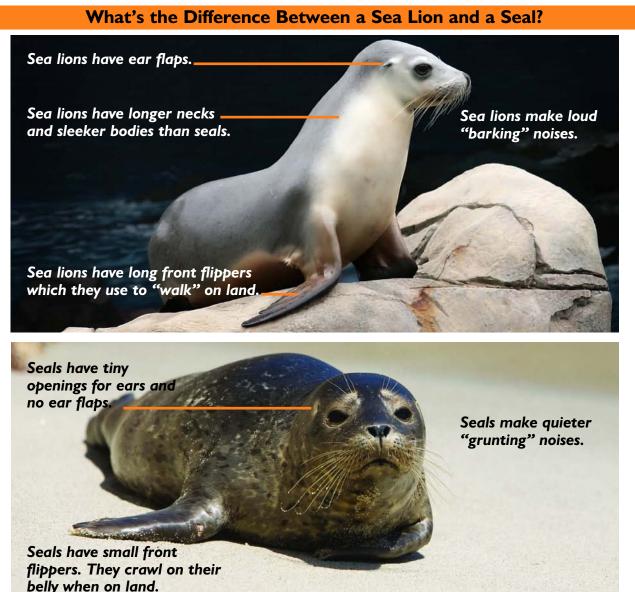


Animal Life

Seals, sea lions and walruses. Seals. sea lions and walruses have webbed flippers to help them swim in the ocean. They can move on land, but are clumsy and slow. They spend time lying around on beaches or rocks. Seals and sea lions eat fish while walrus eat clams, snails, crabs, and worms. Walruses have long tusks.







Whales and dolphins. Whales and dolphins cannot live on land They live in the ocean and must come to the surface to breathe air.



Bottlenose Dolphin



Humpback Whale



Orca

Southern **Right Whale**

	A whale or dolphin breathes
1.	through a nostril on its back
	called a blowhole. The blue whale
ir.	is the largest animal in the world.

There Are Different Kinds of Whales and Dolphins

Also known as White Whales. The beluga is able to change the shape of its head by blowing air around its sinuses. Belugas do not have a fin on their back.

A Blue Whale's tongue is about the size of an elephant and 50 humans could stand in its mouth. Blue Whales eat krill. They are Baleen Whales.

Bottlenose Dolphins are the most common and well-known dolphins. They have small, cone-like teeth. They mostly eat small fish.

The humpback's head and lower jaw are covered with knobs, called tubercles. Humpbacks are Baleen Whales.



Also known as Killer Whales. Orcas belong to the dolphin family. The Orca's intelligence and trainability have made it popular at theme parks.



There are four right whale species: North Atlantic Right Whales, North Pacific Right Whales, Southern Right Whales, and Bowhead Whales.

Mating and Reproduction in Animals

Mating

Courtship is the way in which animals find mates. Male birds often have brightly colored feathers that attract the attention of the female. They also may sing to attract a female. Female cats may rub against males to show they are ready to mate. Mammals that are ready to mate are in the estrus phase, or it is sometimes called being in heat. Some animal groups have dominant males and females. They are the strongest or largest. Sometimes, only the dominant male or female will mate.

Many animals have special behaviors for mating called rituals. Birds often have long courtship rituals. Some of these rituals look strange. They may even seem like a dance. Rituals are a way of creating trust so that the animals will not see each other as a threat. Mating between insects can be dangerous. A female black widow or praying mantis tries to eat the male after mating.



Male peacocks have magnificent feathers of many colors.



A Black Widow spider.

Reproduction

All species of animals must have offspring in order to survive. Animals give birth to their offspring through reproduction.

Reproduction happens in different ways for different animals. Some make copies of themselves. Some lay eggs. Others have live births. Reproduction is the beginning of the cycle of life.

Asexual reproduction is the way Coral reefs are made up o thousands of coral anima many single-celled organisms and other animals have offspring. This **Sexual reproduction** is means that one organism or animal reproduction involving the male makes exact copies of itself all by and female of a species. Each itself. An amoeba splits its nucleus parent produces special cells called in half. Each half becomes a new gametes. Female gametes are called amoeba. This is called mitosis. ova or eggs. They come from the Some animals, like jellyfish, ovaries. Male gametes are called reproduce by breaking off a part of sperm. They come from the testes. their bodies. This part grows into a Each gamete contains half the whole new jellyfish. This is called genetic material for a complete regeneration. Many coral plants animal. Fertilization happens when reproduce by budding. Budding the male and female gametes join happens when a new animal grows together. from a parent. Thousands of coral animals live together in colonies.



Starfish Can Regenerate

When some fishermen wanted to get rid of the starfish in their nets, they cut the starfish into pieces and threw them into the sea. To their surprise they had even more starfish. A starfish can regenerate, or grow new tissue. Each piece became a new starfish!



chrysalis (KRISS-uh-liss): a butterfly at the stage of development between a caterpillar and an adult

fertilize (FUR-tuh-lize): to begin reproduction in an egg by causing sperm to join with the egg

fetus (FEE-tuhss): a baby or an animal before it is born, at the stage when it is developing in its mother's womb

gamete (gam-EET): the male (sperm) or female (egg) reproductive cell of an organism

larvae (LAR-vee): insects at the stage of development between the egg and the pupa, when it looks like a worm

pupa (PYOO-puh): an insect at the stage of development between a larva and an adult

Bird Reproduction

Birds reproduce by laying eggs with hard shells. The eggs are fertilized in the female's body during mating. The female then lays the eggs in a nest. The mother or father sits on the eggs to keep them warm. This is called incubation. The eggs hatch in two or three weeks. Baby birds, or chicks, are born blind and without feathers. They must be fed and kept safe until they are ready to fly.



Chicks are born blind and without feathers.

Fish Reproduction

Fish and amphibians reproduce by spawning. Spawning occurs when a female releases eggs into the water. A male fertilizes the eggs by covering them with sperm. The eggs of most reptiles are fertilized inside the mother's body. This happens during mating, when the

male puts sperm in the female's body. Most reptiles lay soft-shelled eggs on land. Some snakes and lizards have eggs that hatch inside the mother's body.



Close-up of a frog's eggs.



Male Seahorses Give Birth

Seahorses are bony fish with heads that look like those of horses. Female seahorses lay eggs inside a pouch on

the male's stomach. The male gives birth to young seahorses when the eggs hatch! The father takes care of them after they are born.

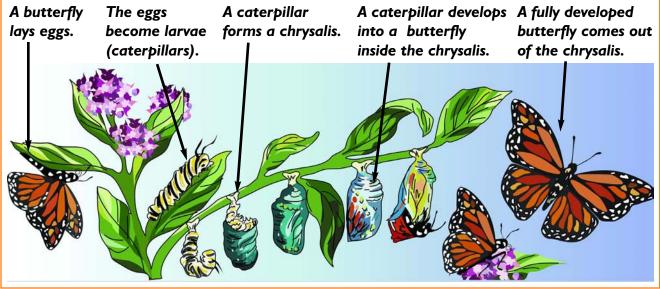


Insect Reproduction

Most female insects lay eggs. Male insects fertilize the eggs. Baby insects are called larvae. Larvae from many insects look like tiny adult insects. Some flying insects larvae do not have wings. They often look like little worms. These larvae must go through metamorphosis, a change in form, before they become adults.



The Butterfly Life Cycle



Metamorphosis

more Some animals have babies that look nothing like their parents. Many insects and some amphibians go through a dramatic change in form as they become adults. This change is called metamorphosis. Butterflies and bees go through a complete metamorphosis. Butterflies lay eggs that hatch into larvae called caterpillars. A caterpillar spends its time eating and growing. It enters the pupa stage by forming a chrysalis. The caterpillar develops into an adult butterfly inside the chrysalis case. The metamorphosis is complete when the butterfly comes out of the case.

Amphibian Reproduction

Frogs go through metamorphosis. The larvae that hatch from frog eggs are called tadpoles. They look like fish because they have gills and a tail that looks like a fin. Tadpoles slowly change into frogs. They grow legs and a mouth after several weeks. Their tails are reabsorbed, or taken back into their bodies. The metamorphosis is done when the tadpole becomes a frog. (See page 19 to see how frog larvae changes into frogs).

Mammal Reproduction

Most mammals carry their offspring in the mother's body until they can live on their own.

Marsupials such as koalas have babies that are not fully developed when they are born. The young marsupial crawls up its mother's



fur into a pouch. It grows in the pouch until it can live on its own.

Monotremes are mammals that lay eggs. The only monotremes are the platypus and the spiny anteater. All other mammals give birth to live young.

Placentals are mammals that carry babies in their bodies until they are fully formed. Most mammals are placentals. The developing fetus is connected to the mother through the placenta. The placenta is an organ through which the fetus gets nutrients. The time that the fetus stays inside the mother is called the gestation period. The gestation period for elephants is almost two years. It is less than a month for mice. The gestation period for primates can be as long as nine months.



A model of a human baby inside its mother.

Reptile Reproduction

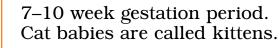
All reptiles hatch from eggs fertilized inside the female. Most reptiles lay their eggs in nests before the young hatch. Sea turtles lay their fertilized eggs buried in a nest in the sand and leave the eggs unprotected. The newly hatched sea turtles must find their way back to the sea on their own. Pythons lay their fertilized eggs in



a nest and protect them from predators.

Some female reptiles such as rattlesnakes carry the eggs inside their bodies. The eggs hatch inside the snake's body and then the mother gives birth to live young. Once the snakes hatch and are born, the young snakes must fend for themselves.

Different Animals Have Different Gestation Periods





7–10 week gestation period. Dog babies are called puppies.



73–104 week gestation period. Elephant babies are called calves.



36–43 week gestation period. Human babies are called infants.

Animal Adaptations

Animals have to adapt to the world in which they live in order to survive. Every species of animal has a different way of surviving. Species develop better ways of dealing with their environment over time. Traits that help an animal survive are passed on to the next generation. Traits that are not needed may disappear. After many generations, these changes become adaptations. Adaptations can be both behavioral and physical traits. Physical adaptations might include the shape of a bird's beak, the shape of nose or ears, or even fur color. Behavioral adaptations include special ways animals mate, defend themselves, move around, or get food.

Behavior

Behavior is what animals do. Some types of behavior are called instincts. Instinct behaviors happen without the animal thinking about it. All animals are born with instincts, like knowing how to eat and sleep. Some behaviors are taught by parents. A female mountain lion may bring home a live rabbit to show her offspring how to hunt. Some behaviors are taught by experience. A dog that is stuck with quills learns not to get too close to a porcupine. Most animals use both instincts and learned behavior to adapt to their world.



An Arctic fox's fur is white when there is snow on the ground.



When the snow melts, the Arctic fox's fur turns dark. This way it blends into its surroundings.

Defense Mechanisms

Many animals have defense mechanisms. These are adaptations that help them protect themselves, or defend themselves from predators. Porcupines and hedgehogs have sharp spines called quills on their backs and tails. The quills rattle when they are shaken. This is a warning to their enemies. The porcupine can release quills into the nose or body of a predator if attacked.



Porcupine quills.

A skunk raises its striped tail when threatened. If the attacker does not go away the skunk squirts a bad-smelling liquid to make the attacker leave. Squids and octopuses can squirt a dark ink in the water when threatened. The ink hides them so they can escape. A turtle has a hard shell that surrounds its entire body. Only the head and legs stick out. It can quickly pull them inside if attacked.



Many animals protect themselves simply by the way they look. Some animals try to hide against a background. They hide themselves with colors or patterns that match the world around them. This is called camouflage. The stripes on zebras help them blend into one another when they stand in a herd. This makes it difficult for a predator to pick out a single zebra.



With so many stripes, it's hard to find one zebra!

Some insects look like leaves and sticks. Leaf butterflies in southern Asia look exactly like tree leaves until they move. Stick insects look like twigs and branches of plants.



Stick insects look like part of the plant they hide in.

Bright colors on animals attract mates and warn predators. Many butterflies have brilliant colors. Their coloring helps males and females find each other for mating. Bright red insects often warn predators that they are poisonous. Red ladybugs taste bad.



The ladybug's color warns predators not to eat them.

Hunting

Predators are meat-eating animals that hunt for their food. Many types of animals hunt. Birds hunt for insects to feed themselves and their offspring. Birds of prey hunt small rodents, fish, and other birds.

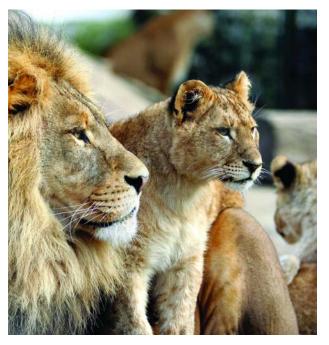


Osprey hunt fish.



Smaller birds hunt worms and insects.

Cats and dogs are the best hunters among land mammals. Cats, like tigers and leopards, usually hunt alone. A cat watches from a hiding place and sneaks up close to its prey. Sometimes, cats hide the dead body, or carcass. They can eat from it for several days. Mothers may bring the carcass back to their offspring. Lions are the only cats that hunt in a group, called a pride.



Lions hunt in groups called prides.

Many dogs, like wolves, hunt in a group called a pack. Hunting in a group is a way for predators to work together to catch their prey. The predators will watch for a young or weak animal. As a group they can easily chase an animal that is separated from its herd.



A pack of African wild dogs.

Some animals find or steal food killed by other animals. They are called scavengers. Vultures and hyenas are common scavengers in Africa. Vultures are large birds. Hyenas are like dogs. Both vultures and hyenas try to take carcasses away from other animals.



Animal Life

Social Groups

Many animals live in small family groups or larger groups. Even an animal that lives alone may join other animals of its species for mating or migration.

Migration is the movement of large groups of animals from one place to another. They may be looking for food or a warmer climate during the winter. Insects called locusts fly in swarms. Many birds fly south for the winter in groups called flocks.



Birds fly in flocks when they migrate.

Other animals live in large groups for food and protection. Ants, bees, and termites are social insects. This means that they live together in colonies and depend on each other for survival. Life in the colony is controlled by the queen.

The queen is larger than the other insects and is the only one in the group that lays eggs.



Some wasps live together in colonies.

Many hoofed mammals live in groups called herds. Some animals in the herd can eat while other animals watch for predators. The males often fight to choose which one is dominant. The dominant members will get to eat before the other members of the herd.



Many hoofed animals live in herds for protection.

Symbiosis

Symbiosis is when organisms of different species live together. Many times an animal's survival depends on a symbiotic relationship. Dust mites must eat dead skin that animals shed. They even eat human's dead skin!

Commensalism

When a symbiotic relationship helps one animal without affecting the other animal it is called commensalism. Remoras are a type of fish that attach themselves to sharks. The remoras get scraps of food and protection from the sharks. The sharks are not affected by this relationship.



A remora attached to a shark.

Mutualism

When a symbiotic relationship helps both animals it is called mutualism. Ants and aphids live

together and benefit each other. Aphids make a sweet liquid called honeydew. The ants drink the honeydew and feed it to their larvae. The ants build shelters for the aphids and protect the aphid larvae.

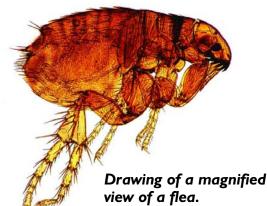




Ants provide protection and shelter for aphids in return for honeydew.



When a symbiotic relationship helps one animal and harms the other animal it is called parasitism. Fleas, ticks, and mites are all parasites that are harmful to their animal host.



How We Use Animals

Humans use animals for a wide variety of purposes. Animals such as dogs, cats, and hamsters can be family pets. Horse racing and dog shows can provide entertainment for people. Scientists study animals. Some animals are eaten as food. Humans use many different products made from animals. Farmers raise many of these animals.



Some people enter their pet dogs into dog shows.

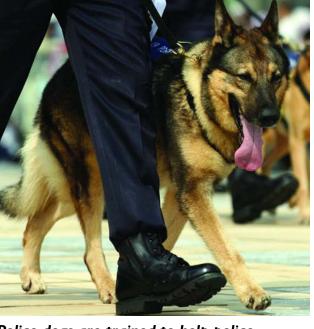
As Pets

All kinds of animals are kept in homes as pets. Mammals such as dogs and cats are the most common pets. Some people have birds. Snakes and lizards are common reptiles kept as pets. Many people keep different kinds of fish in aquariums in their homes. Other people even keep insects as pets. Ant farms and butterfly gardens are fun to watch and see how those creatures move and change. Many people consider their pets to be an important part of their family.

Number of U.S. House Pet (millions)	eholds that Own a
Bird Cat Dog Equine Freshwater Fish Saltwater Fish	6.4 37.7 43.5 4.2 13.9 .8
Reptile Small Animal Total Number of Pets (millions)	4.4 5.7 Owned in the U.S.
Bird Cat Dog Freshwater Fish Saltwater Fish Reptile Small Animal	$16.6 \\90.5 \\73.9 \\139.0 \\9.6 \\11.0 \\18.2$

In Work and Sport

Many animals are working animals. People around the world ride horses, mules, camels, or elephants when they need to go places. Oxen are used to pull plows in fields on farms in many parts of the world. Dogs are used by the police to sniff packages and to track down missing persons and criminals. Rats can be trained to string cables in places that are hard to reach.



Police dogs are trained to help police.

Some animals are used in sports. Jockeys ride horses in races. Many people enjoy hunting wild animals such as deer, rabbits, and wild turkeys for sport. Dogs can be used to help hunters kill and fetch their prey. Matadors, or bullfighters, in Spain and Portugal fight bulls to entertain crowds of people. North America is home to most cowboys who entertain crowds at rodeos.

Bullfights are held in Portugal and Spain.

In Scientific Experiments

Scientists study animals to learn about many different things. Experiments are tests to see if an idea works or not. Scientific experiments are done on animals to find out more about animal behavior. They are also done to test drugs, shampoo, and makeup as well as medical advances for humans that might help to cure a disease.

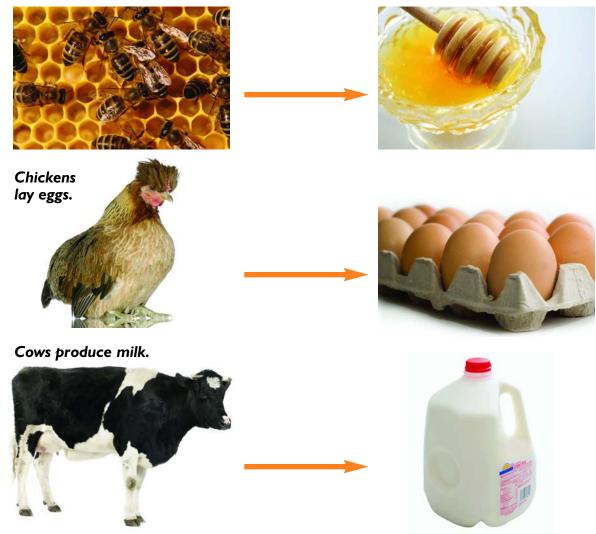
For Food

Many animals are eaten as food. Meat from cows is called beef. Meat from a baby cow is called veal. Meat from birds is called poultry. Meat from pigs is called pork. People also eat seafood. Seafood includes all kinds of fish, mollusks, and crustaceans. Mollusks that people eat include squids, octopuses, clams, oysters, and snails. Crustaceans that people eat

include lobsters, crabs, shrimp, and crayfish. Some people like to eat sushi, which is usually uncooked seafood.

Other foods that we eat come from or contain animal products. Honey comes from bees. Milk comes from cows and goats. Chickens can lay unfertilized eggs that are eaten. Gelatin comes from animal tissues and is used in several food products, like some jellies and ice creams.

Bees make honey.



Other Animal Products

Animal products are things we use that come from animals. Wool, silk, leather, and the fur from some animals are used to make clothes. Wool is trimmed from sheep. Silk comes from the cocoons of silk worms. Leather comes from the skins of cows and other animals. Animal products are also used in a number of cosmetics. Perfume is sometimes made from the oils of whales.

Animal Rights

Many people believe that the use of animals in experiments and in the testing of products is cruel and wrong. They believe that humans should treat animals with respect. They are concerned about the treatment of animals raised to be used for food and to make other animal products. Many animal rights activists believe humans do not need to eat or use animal products. Some people also worry about the methods used for the testing of products on animals. Other groups of people such as The Humane Society work to educate others on how to prevent cruelty to animals.



Sheep are sheared for their wool.



t Mink is just one animal of many that have been hunted for their fur.

Endangered Species

Life on Earth exists in a balance between the environment and the plants and animals that live on it. Throughout history, animals have become extinct when the environment changed. Scientists have discovered and documented many animals that have become extinct by studying fossils. Today, many species of animals are threatened by human activity and environmental changes. Endangered species are animals that are close to becoming extinct.

Many countries are taking steps to protect endangered species. Some countries have banned the sale of endangered animals and animal parts. Some governments have introduced land management programs to protect habitats. The United States has set up National Parks to help preserve many habitats and environments for the future.

Changes to Habitats

Some animals, such as the panther, are endangered because the places they live, known as habitats, are being destroyed.

Humans destroy many animal habitats as they build more houses and cities. Wetland habitats including lakes, rivers, swamps, and marshes are often affected by development. Many birds, insects, fish. and other animals that make their homes in wetlands die when their food supply is destroyed.



Deforestation destroys habitats.

The destruction of forests, or deforestation, throughout the world has also put many animals in danger. In South America, the Amazon Forest is being cut down to make room for farms and to make grasslands for cows. The habitats for many insects, birds, and other animals are being destroyed.

People sometimes release non-native species such as Cuban tree frogs or pythons to a habitat. These new species often destroy the balance of the native animals living in the habitat.

Pollution

The biggest human created danger that affects the world environment is pollution. Pollution is the poisoning of water, land, or air by chemicals or other things. The pollution of oceans, lakes, rivers, and streams has killed and endangered many animals. The Great Barrier Reef in Australia is home to thousands of animal species. Much of the coral reef has been destroyed by a combination of pollution and too many starfish.

Hunting and Poaching

Hunting and poaching, or illegal hunting, are threats to many species of mammals. Whales are killed for their oil and meat. Monkeys are taken from forests in Africa and South America for medical research. Elephants and rhinos are killed by poachers for their ivory tusks and horns. Many of these animals have become endangered.



Zebras are killed for their skins.



Fish and coral of the Great Barrier Reef.



activist (AC-tiv-ist): a person who speaks or shows support for a cause endangered (en-DAN-jered): to threaten with extinction extinct (ex-STINGKT): when a type of plant or animal has died out **pollution** (puh-LOO-shuhn): harmful materials that damage or contaminate the air, water, and soil, such as chemicals, gasoline exhaust, and industrial waste preservation (pres-ur-VA-shuhn): to protect something so that it stays in its original state threatened (THRET-uhnd): animals and plants likely to become endangered in the near future

There are many things about animals that can be studied. We study their anatomy, their behavior, and how they live in the wild. We also learn more about our own bodies, behavior, and development when we look at other animals. We study how animal life can have an affect on humans and how humans can have an affect on animals lives. We study their place in the classification of living things and the history of evolution.

Zoology

Zoology is the study of all animals. It is a branch of biology. There are different fields within



Two marine biologists draw blood from a dolphin.

zoology. They are divided into types of animals that are studied. An entomologist studies insects. A herpetologist studies reptiles and amphibians. An ornithologist studies birds. A marine biologist studies animals that live in the ocean. Ethology is the study of animal behavior.

Veterinarian

A veterinarian, or vet, is a doctor who keeps animals healthy and cares for sick or injured animals. Most veterinarians treat pets. Some treat farm animals, wild animals, and animals that live in zoos.



A veterinarian examining a small dog.



Volume 3



By Thomas F. Sheehan

Editorial Consultant Luana Mitten Project Editor Kurt Sturm

Rourke

Publishing LLC Vero Beach, Florida 32964

Table of Contents

© 2008 Rourke Publishing LLC

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced or utilized in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical including photocopying, recording, or by any information storage and retrieval system without permission in writing from the publisher.

www.rourkepublishing.com

Photo credits: Page 4 © David Hughes; Page 4b © Elemental Imaging; Page 4c © Stephen Aaron Rees; Page 5 © Phil Morley; Page 5b © Pierdelune; Page 5c © Christine Nichols; Page 5d © Victor Balabanov; Page 6 © Blazej Maksym; Page 6b © Dmitry Bodrov; Page 6c © ARphotography; Page 8 © Christopher Meder; Page 8c © American Philosophical Society; Page 8d © Zastavkin; Page 8e © Mikbis; Page 8f © Florin Tirlea; Page 9c © No Credit; Page 9d © Elemental Imaging; Page 10 © No Credit; Page 10 © No Credit; Page 11 © John C. Hooten; Page 11b © Artur Bogacki; Page 12b © vadim kozlovsky; Page 12c © Katrina Leigh; Page 13 © Elena Elisseeva; Page 13b © vnlit; Page 13c © Jo Ann Snover; Page 14 © Rey Rojo; Page 14b © Chris Curtis; Page 14c © No Credit; Page 15 © Ilya D. Gridnev; Page 15b © Michael Carlucci; Page 15c © Jan Krejci; Page 15d © Oshvintsev Alexander; Page 15e © Anette Linnea Rasmussen; Page 17 © The Final Image; Page 17b © Galina Barskaya; Page 18 © No Credit; Page 18 © Kevin M. Kerfoot; Page 19 © No Credit; Page 19b © Maksim Shmeljov; Page 19c © Sergei Tarasov; Page 19d © Leonid Nishko; Page 19e © Tatiana Popova; Page 19f © Kucherenko Olena; Page 20 © Ślyadnyev Oleksandr; Page 21 © Linda Macpherson; Page 22 © Liette Parent; Page 22b © Steve Reed; Page 24 © Socrates; Page 28b © Sharon D; Page 29a © Scott Rothstein; Page 30 © Georgy Markov; Page 30b © Jaimie Duplass; Page 30c © Ewa Walicka; Page 31 © Steve McWilliam; Page 31b © Povl E. Petersen; Page 32 © fotosav; Page 32b © Colour Wheel; Page 32c © Petr Jilek; Page 32d © Devin Koob; Page 33 © Holger Ehlers; Page 35 © Kaspars Grinvalds; Page 35b © Tomo Jesenicnik; Page 36 © Joy Neish; Page 36b © mypokcik; Page 36c © cloki; Page 37 © Donald Gargano; Page 37b © Andrew Kua Seng How; Page 37c © Galina Barskaya; Page 37d © Gary L. Brewer; Page 38 © Jody Dingle; Page 38b © Ingrid E Stamatson; Page 39 © Steve Holderfield; Page 39b © John S. Sfondilias; Page 39c © Sharon D; Page 39d © Rory B Diffin; Page 39e © Emilia Kun; Page 40 © Steve Lovegrove; Page 40b © Stefan Gelobowski; Page 40c © Mike Grindley; Page 40d © Inta Eihmane; Page 41 © Marilyn Barbone; Page 41b © Bonnie Watton; Page 41c © Nathan Jaskowiak; Page 42 © Walter Pall; Page 42b © Robert J. Beyers; Page 42c © Sonya Etchison; Page 42d © Donald Sawvel; Page 43 © Karel Brol; Page 43b © Rick Parsons; Page 43c © Vasilev Ivan Mihaylovich; Page 43d © Kaspars Grinvalds; Page 44 © Louie Schoeman; Page 44b © Adam Bies; Page 44c © iofoto; Page 44d © Stephen Strathdee; Page 45 © Jeff Speigner; Page 45b © Stephen Coburn; Page 46c © Elena Moiseeva; Page 47 © Gregory Donald Horler; Page 47b © kd2; Page 48 © PhotoDisc; Page 48b © PhotoDisc; Page 48c © Peter Elvidge; Page 48d © Karachakov Evgeny Michaylovich; Page 49 © David Huntley; Page 50 © Arlene Jean Gee; Page 50b © Paul Whitted; Page 51 © EuToch; Page 51b © PhotoDisc; Page 51c © Gordana Sermek; Page 52 © David Huntley; Page 52b © Masiov Dmitry; Page 52c © KSR; Page 53 © Stephen J. Sullivan; Page 53b © Edyta Linek; Page 54 © Keith Weller; Page 54b © Ken Hammond; Page 55 © Keith Weller; Page 56 © Sapsiwai; Page 56c © Vasina Natalia Vladimirovna; Page 58 © Carolina K. Smith; Page 59 © No Credit; Page 60 © Elena Elisseeva; Page 60b © MaxFX; Page 60c © Frank Boellmann; Page 60d © Linda Muir; Page 60e © Peggy Greb; Page 61c © Olga Utlyakova; Page 61d © Scott Bauer; Page 62 © Bruce Fritz; Page 62d © Lynn Watson.

Editor: Luana Mitten

Cover design by Nicola Stratford. Blue Door Publishing

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Rourke's world of science encyclopedia / Marcia Freeman ... [et al.]. v. cm. Includes bibliographical references and index. Contents: [1] Human life --ISBN 978-1-60044-646-7 1. Science--Encyclopedias, Juvenile. 2. Technology--Encyclopedias, Juvenile. I. Freeman, Marcia S. (Marcia Sheehan), 1937-Q121.R78 2008 503--dc22 2007042493

Volume 3 of 10 ISBN 978-1-60044-649-8

Printed in the USA

CG/CG

Rourke Publishing www.rourkepublishing.com – rourke@rourkepublishing.com Post Office Box 3328, Vero Beach, FL 32964

What is a	Plant?	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
The	Size of P	lar	nt	S												

How Plants Live Classifying the Plant World

The Parts of Plants

Plant Cells	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Vegetative Parts										
Reproductive Parts	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•

How Plants Grow

The Life Cycle of Plants	•
Plant Reproduction	
Photosynthesis	•

Types of Plants

Algae		• •	•	
Fungi	•••	• •	•	
Mosses and Liverworts	•••	• •	•	
Ferns	•••	• •	•	
Flowering Plants	•••		•	
Shrubs	•••		•	
Vines	•••		•	
Trees			•	
Herbs			•	
Grasses	•••		•	

Plant Movements and Adaptations

Plant Movements

How We Use Plants

Shelter and Decoration Scientific Exploration With Plants Plants as Food Other Plant Products

People Learn From Plants

Why Study Plants

																										.4
																										.5
																										.5
•	•	••	•	•	••	٠	٠	• •	••	٠	•		•	•	••	•	•	• •	••	•	·	••	٠	•	•••	.7
																										.9
																										.9
																										.11
•	•	•••	•	•	••	•	•	• •	••	•	•	•••	•	•	•••	•	•	• •	•••	•	•	•••	•	•	•••	.16
																										.21
																										.21
•	•	••	•	•	• •	•	•		• •	•	•		•	•	••	•	•	• •	••	•	•	••	•	•	•••	.22
•	•		•	•		•	•			•	•		•	•	•••	•	•			•	•		•	•	•••	.24
																										.27
•	•	••	•	•	•••	•	•		•••	•	•		•	•	••	•	•	• •	••	•	·	•••	•	•	•••	.28
•	•		•	•		•	•			•	•		•	•	•••	•	•			•	•		•	•	•••	.30
•	•		•	•		•	•			•	•			•		•	•			•	•		•	•	•••	.33
•	•		•	•		•	•			•	•			•		•	•			•	•		•	•	•••	.35
•	•		•	•		•	•			•	•		•			•	•			•	•		•	•		.36
•	•		•	•		•	•			•	•					•	•						•	•		.38
•	•			•		•				•	•													•		.39
•	•			•		•				•	•													•		.41
•	•		•	•		•	•			•	•					•	•							•		.45
•	•			•		•	•			•													•	•		.47
•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	.49
•	•		•	•		•	•			•	•		•	•	•••	•	•			•	•		•	•	•••	.49
•	•		•	•		•	•			•	•	•••	•	•	••	•	•	• •		•	•		•	•	•••	.50
•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•																			.53
•	•	••	•	•	••	•	•		••	•	•		•	•	••	•	•	• •	••	•	•	••	•	•	•••	.53
	•		•	•	••	•	•		••	•	•		•	•		•	•			•	•		•	•		.54
•	•		•	•	••	•	•		••	•	•		•	•		•	•			•	•		•	•		.56
•	•		•	•		•	•	• •		•	•		•	•		•	•	• •		•	•		•	•	•••	.58
•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	.59
•	•		•	•	••	•	•	• •	••	•	•	•••	•	•	••	•	•	• •		•	•	•••	•	•	•••	.59

What Is a Plant?

Plants and animals are living things, or organisms. Plants make it possible for all the other living things to exist on planet Earth. While plants are similar to animals in some ways, they are unlike animals in many more ways. Plants, like animals, are made up of cells.

Most plant cells contain a green pigment, called chlorophyll. Animal cells do not. Chlorophyll makes it possible for most plants to absorb energy from sunlight. Using a cell process called photosynthesis, plants use that energy (along with water and carbon dioxide molecules) to make food substances and release oxygen. Plants provide all the food and oxygen that animals, including people, depend on.

Fungi are not considered to be plants. They have no chlorophyll. They digest dead things and absorb nutrients from them. These saprotrophs are nature's recyclers.



Plants also need water to carry out photosynthesis.



Plant cells are more angular in shape than animal cells.

While mushrooms resemble plants, they are actually in the fungi kingdom.



The Size of Plants

Unless you use a microscope, some tiny plants, such as some algae, are invisible. Other plants, such as giant Sequoia trees, are hundreds of feet tall. Enormous groves of Aspen trees are hundreds of feet wide.





Some plants are very small and only seen when magnified.



Sequoias can grow up to 379.1 feet (115.5 m) in height and 23 feet (7 m) in diameter at the base.

How Plants Live

Many types of plants grow together in forest, grassland, desert, or aquatic ecosystems. Mosses hug the ground in dense mats. Vines climb up and over other plants and objects.



More than half of the world's plant species live in the rain forest.

Molds and fungi prefer dark, moist places where there is dead stuff for them to digest and absorb. Soil is loaded with them. So are your sneakers. You may even see them in your refrigerator, on food that has been in there too long.



Mold is used to produce some of our foods.

Some aquatic plants live in watery places with their leaves floating on the surface. Desert plants live for long periods without any water at all.



The lily pad's long stem anchors it to the bottom of the pond.

Flowering plants are the most common, but many, such as mosses and ferns, do not have flowers. Evergreen trees (pine, spruce, fir, hemlock, and cedar) all have cones instead of flowers.



organism (OR-guh-niz-uhm): a living plant or animal

chlorophyll (KLOR-uh-fil): the green substance in plants that uses light to make food from carbon dioxide and water

photosynthesis (foh-toh-SIN-thuh-siss): a chemical process, in green plants that makes food and releases oxygen, from carbon dioxide, water, and sunlight energy



The seeds of an evergreen tree are produced in its cones.

Though most plants grow in the wild, people all over the Earth grow and cultivate a large variety of plants. Some are food plants, like rice, wheat, and corn.



Some of the rice we eat might be grown in this field in Bali, Indonesia.

We grow other crops for the beauty of their forms and colors of their flowers. We also value plants for the healthful substances they produce, or just the comfort of having them around.

Classifying the Plant World

There are many organisms on Earth with similar characteristics The plant kingdom has many divisions. We call each division a phylum. The kingdoms Protista and Fungi also contain organism with plant-like characteristics, by they are not considered plants. A class is a division of a phylum.

Further division of the plant kingdom follows the groupings o Carolus Linnaeus, used for all



Carl von Linné was born in Sweden in 1707. We know him by his Latin name, Carolus Linnaeus. Linnaeus was interested in nature and plants. He taught himself about biology and botany, the study of plants.

He devised a system to classify all the plants and animals known at that time. He described living things and grouped them by their shared physical characteristics. For instance, he put animals with backbones, or vertebrae, in one group and those without a backbone in another. He put animals that laid eggs in one group and those that had live young in another. Linnaeus gave each group and each kind of living thing a Latin name made up of two descriptive words. Scientists refer to this system as the binomial (two names) system of nomenclature (naming).

In 1735 he published a series of books, Systema Naturae, which described and named all the animals and plants known at that time. Scientists today still use his binomial classification system to organize and understand all living things.

	organisms. Classes of organisms
	are divided into groups called
	orders, followed by families, and
	finally the genus and species.
	The genus and species is the
s.	first and last name of an
L	organism. They are Latin names.
	Every known organism on Earth
0	has a scientific name, in Latin.
.s ut	The Latin name for human is
ui A	Homo sapiens.
1	When we think of plants, we
	often think of plants belonging in
of	the Coniferophyta or the
1	Anthophyta phylums.

Carolus Linnaeus

Coniferophyta are cone-bearing plants. The cones contain the plants seeds. Some common examples of conifer trees are pines and bald cypress trees. We cut down many conifer trees for lumber.

Anthophyta are flowering plants. The two classes of flowering plants are dicotyledoneae (dicots) and

monocyotyledoneae (monocots). Dicots are plants with net veined leaves and two-parted seeds. Most broad leaf plants such as magnolias, oaks, and roses are dicots. Monocots are flowering plants with parallel veined leaves and one-part seeds. Common monocots are grasses, lilies, and palms.

	The Plant Kingdom Phylur	n
Bryophyta		Mosses
Hepatophyta		Liverworts
Pteridophyta		Ferns
Lycopophyta		Club moss
Coniferophyta		Cone-bearing plants
Anthophyta, also called angiosperms		Flowering plants



The Parts of Plants

Plant Cells

All living things are made up small parts called cells. Plant an animal cells are similar. Animal and plant cells have a nucleus th contains genetic substances, such as DNA. Around the nucleus the is jelly-like cytoplasm.

Both plant and animal cells have special structures in their cytoplasm, called organelles.

The Protista Kingdom

Algae and Diatoms

Marine diatoms as seen through

gi Kingdom Phylum		
	Black molds	
	~	
	Green molds,blue molds, yeasts, mildew	
	moras, yeasts, mildew	
	Mushrooms, puffballs	
	-	
STA A		

	Mitochondria use nutrients to
	release energy for the cells. The
of	endoplasmic reticulum is a folded
ıd	membrane that makes proteins
	and fat molecules.
hat	A noticeable difference between
ch	plant and animal cells is their
ere	shape. Plant cells have rigid cell
	walls around them. This causes
	plant cells to be rectangular and
	blocky. The walls are made of a
	tough material called cellulose.



Robert Hooke

Robert Hooke was born in England in 1635. He went to Oxford University in 1653. He later became the chief scientist for the famous Royal Society of London, a gathering of the foremost scientists of that time. The society had a

meeting every week. Hooke performed three or four new experiments at each meeting.

Hooke was curious about living things. He used an instrument called a microscope to look at objects up close. Hooke looked at insects, plants, hair, and fossils.

He became the first person to see cells when he looked at a piece of bark under his microscope. Hooke made drawings of what he saw. In 1665, he published his studies in a book called Micrographia.



An illustration from Hooke's Micrographia

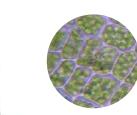


chloroplast (KLOR-uh-plast): a plant cell structure that contains the green pigment, chlorophyll

mitochondria (mitt-oh-KAHN-dree-uh): a cell structure that takes energy from nutrients and makes it available for other cell processes

phloem (FLOW-uhm): tubular cells in plants that carry food from leaves to roots

xylem (ZIE-luhm): tubular cells in plants that carry water and nutrients from roots to leaves

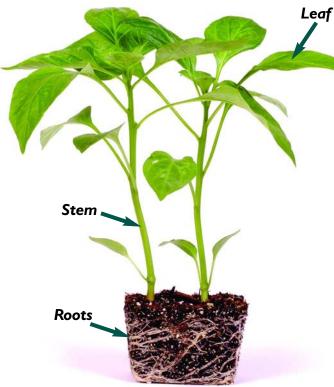


Magnified plant cells have a blocky appearance.

Vegetative Parts

Plants have many parts, or organs. Each plant organ has a particular use, or function. Roots, stems, and leaves are the vegetative organs of plants.

Some organs are underground. Roots absorb water and nutrients from the soil.



Leaves are above ground. They absorb the energy from sunlight and carbon dioxide from the air for photosynthesis.

Stems hold up the leaves. Stems also transport substances between the roots and leaves.

Roots

Roots are the underground parts of plants. Plants need a large, branching root system to perform several functions. By branching and re-branching, plant roots create many surfaces to absorb with and hang on to the soil.

Plants, such as dandelions, grow long roots called taproots that reach water deep in the ground. Other plants, such as witch grass and black spruce trees, grow and spread their roots near the surface.

Functions of Roots

•	Roots connect plants to
	the soil. Millions of microscopic
	root hairs cover their growing
	tips. The root hairs absorb
	water and nutrients from
	the soil.

• Roots anchor, or hold a plant in the ground. Plants with strong, branched roots will not wash away in a storm.

Roots store nutrients. People eat the roots of many plants such as carrots, turnips, beets, and radishes.

Plant & Fungi Life

Stems

The stem of a plant usually grows above the ground surface. Stems can be short, or very long. We find buds, leaves, flowers, fruits. or cones on the stems. Some plants have thorns and tendrils on their stems, too.

When seeds germinate, or sprout, a part called an epicotyl, or leafy shoot, develops into stems and leaves.

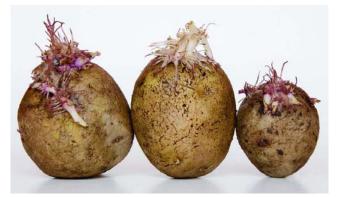
Some plants have soft, green stems called herbaceous stems. They usually live for one season. Woody stems are harder and live for many years. Stems may start out as herbaceous and become woody as they grow.

Irises, ferns, and other plants have special underground stems

called rhizomes. Tubers are thick underground stems with buds called "eyes". Potatoes are tubers.



These iris rhizomes will grow into beautiful plants.



Potatoes are structures called tubers.

An epicotyl develops into leaves and a stem.



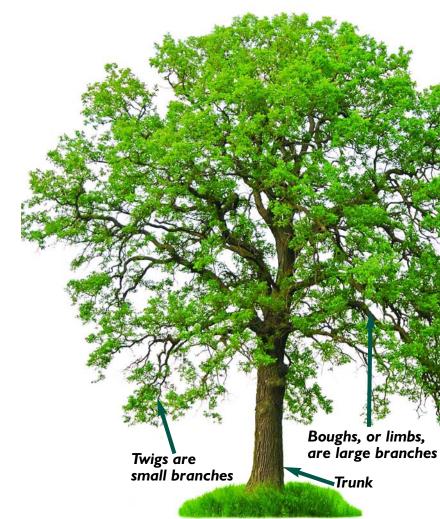




tree is cut down, you can count the **Branches** form as the stems of trees grow and divide. Twigs are small growth rings in the trunk to figure branches. Boughs or limbs are out the tree's age. large branches.

Bark is the hard covering of the trunks and stems of woody plants. It protects the plant from insects and injury. Some desert plants, such as cacti, have chlorophyll in Trunks that grow for many years their bark and use it for photosynthesis.

Trunks are the large single base of a tree. Tree trunks vary from tree to tree. They may be long and bendy or short and sturdy. produce a ring of wood each year called a growth ring. When a On smooth, young stems you can



see tiny dots, called lenticels, which allow air to get into the stems.

Look closely and you can see the growth rings in this cross-section

of a tree trunk.

Lenticels allow air to get into the stem.

Plant & Fungi Life

Plant & Fungi Life



Functions of Stems

- Stems hold up the leaves to get energy from the Sun.
- Stems support the flowers, and the fruits and seeds. that grow from them.
- Stems permit the flow of water and nutrients between roots and leaves.



Some of the most common desert trees around Tucson.

Arizona are Yellow Paloverde trees. Paloverde means "green stick" in Spanish and refers to their distinctive green bark.

Most plants have chlorophyll in their leaves. Paloverde bark is green because it contains the chlorophyll the plant needs for photosynthesis. Threequarters of the photosynthesis in Yellow Paloverde trees takes place in their green bark instead of in their tiny, rather sparse leaflets.





Leaves

Leaves grow from stems and are usually flat, thin, and wide to absorb a lot of sunlight for photosynthesis. Bulbs are underground leaves that store food. Onions and garlic are plants that grow from bulbs. Tulips, daffodils, and gladiolas are flower garden plants that grow from bulbs.



Did you know that for each leaf, there will be a ring of onion? The larger the leaf, the larger the ring will be.

Shapes, Sizes, Colors, and Pigments of Leaves. There is great variability in the shapes, colors, textures, and size of leaves among plants. They can be needle shaped, rounded, pointy, smooth, or wrinkly.



It is easy to see the vein pattern on these ivy leaves.

Palm trees have leaves six feet (1.83 m) long, or bigger. The tiny leaves of duckweed (an aquatic plant) are only about one eighth of an inch (2.5 mm) long.



This magnified photo gives a close-up view of duckweed leaves.

----- Actual size of duckweed leaves.

Leaves can be pink, purple, green, and white. But most leaves are green because their cells contain a green substance, or pigment, called chlorophyll, for photosynthesis.



The same leaf can be different shades of green.

In the fall you can see other pigments contained in leaves. When cool temperatures and short days cause the breakdown of chlorophyll, the red, yellow, and orange colors become visible. Deciduous trees lose their leaves in the fall.

Vein Patterns of Leaves

The parallel pattern is common among grasses, such as lawn grass, wheat, rice, and corn. Their veins run side-byside from the base of the leaf to its tip.

The pinnate pattern

branching pattern of

Birch, alder, elm and

a Christmas tree.

beech trees have

pinnate veins.

The palmate

of maple trees has several large veins that spread out like your fingers from the palm of your

pattern

hand.

resembles the





Functions of Leaves

Absorbing sunlight for photosynthesis is the main function of plant leaves. The chlorophyll contained in the leaves is vital for photosynthesis. In this process, plants convert light energy to food.

Reproductive Parts

Plant reproduction results in new generations of plants. Flowers, cones, fruits, and seeds are the reproductive parts, or organs, of plants. Flowers and cones are for making new plants. Fruits and seeds contain the undeveloped baby plants, called embryos. Special cells called spores, eggs, sperms, and pollen are part of the process in different plants, also.



herbaceous (hur-BAY-shus): non-woody plants

nutrient (NOO-tree-ehnt): a necessary substance found in foods

Spores

Some living things without flowers can use cells called spores to reproduce. These kinds of cells can grow into new plants. Algae, fungi, mosses, and ferns use spores for reproduction. The organisms release huge numbers of spores because most of the spores do not survive long. Released spores travel by wind



Each of the dots on this leaf contains thousands of spores.

and water to spread out away from the parent organisms. Insects and animals can also trigger the release of spores and end up carrying them to other places, too. Cones

A cone is a special type of reproductive structure with spiraling rows of hard, woody scales. Conifers are trees with cones. Pine, spruce, cedar, cypress, hemlock, fir, and tamarack trees are conifers. The cones on juniper trees and yews resemble berries.

Conifers have two types of cones. Male cones produce pollen

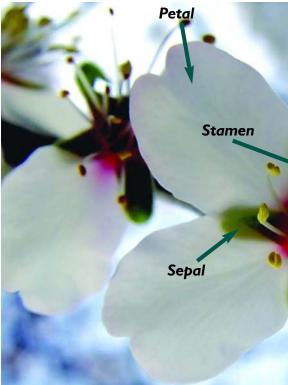


These female cones are much larger than the male cones from the same evergreen tree.

grains. Female cones make egg cells. When egg cells are joined with pollen they develop into seeds. The seeds form at the base of each cone scale.

Flowers

Flowers are the reproductive parts, or organs, of most kinds of



plants. Flowers produce fruits with seeds in them. New plants grow from the seeds.

Petals and sepals make up the outer part of a flower. Petals are usually soft and brightly colored.

The sepals are greenish scalelike structures, which protect the flower while it is developing.

The male stamens are inside the petals and produce the pollen. The female pistils occupy the center of a flower. Egg cells are produced in the ovary at the base of each pistil.

The top of each pistil has a sticky surface area, called the stigma, where pollen grains land.



Pistil

Drupes: Some fruits, such as avocados, cherries, plums, and peaches are called drupes and have a hard seed known as a pit.

Berries: Soft, often brightly colored fruits, containing many seeds are berries. Grapes and tomatoes are actually berries. Oranges and other citrus fruits are actually modified berries with a tough skin, or rind.

Pomes: Soft fruits with a papery core and seeds in the middle are pomes. Apples and pears are pomes.

Aggregates: Raspberries and blackberries are aggregate fruits. Aggregates are clusters of tiny drupes.

Multiple: Pineapples and mulberries are multiple fruits. Multiple fruit develops from a cluster of flowers.

Accessory: Strawberries are accessory fruit. Accessory fruit have tiny hard seeds scattered all over their surface.

Filament Anther Pollen Umbrella shaped style catches pollen Petals

Bract

Sepal

Shapes, Sizes, Colors, and Pigments of Flowers. Flowers occur in many colors, forms, and arrangements on plants. Their colors range from shades of red, orange, yellow, blue, purple, and white. Many are multicolored. Flowers may be cupshaped, trumpet-like, or starry. Some flowers are tiny, such as forget-me-nots. Sunflowers are enormous in comparison. Do you enjoy the fragrances, or smells, of flowers, such as roses or lilacs?



anther (ANN-thur): the male flower structure that produces pollen cells

ovary (OH-vur-ee): the female structure that contains egg cells

pistil (PIS-tuhl): the female structure at the center of a flower

pollen (PAH-lehn): the male cells of flowering plants

stamen (STAY-mehn): the male flower structure that is composed of an anther at the tip of a long, thin filament

The shapes, colors, and fragrances are also very important to the plant because they attract insects, birds, and bats. These animals help to spread pollen from flower to flower.

Fruit

Ovary

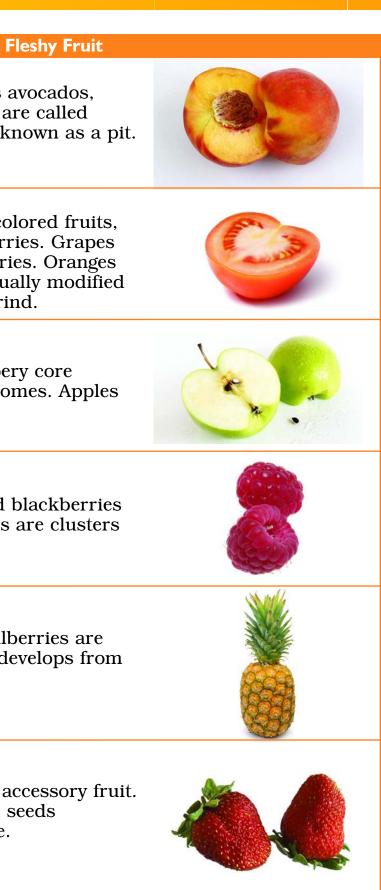
Fruit is actually the ripened part of the plant ovary that contains seeds. Some fruits are hard and dry. Other kinds are soft, sweet, and juicy. Both kinds protect the seeds inside and help to spread, or disperse them in the environment.

Gourds are tough or hard fruits with shells. They contain seeds and pulpy flesh. Plant relatives of gourds include pumpkins, melons, cucumbers, and squash.



In the fall, we enjoy many seasonal gourds.

Edible dry or hard fruits are nuts and beans. Acorns, produced by oak trees, are important wildlife food for bears, deer, squirrels, and birds. Long ago, some Native American Indian people used acorns as food, too.



Sometimes plants produce fruit be as small as dust particles or as that have no seeds. These plants cannot reproduce naturally (because they have no seeds). Plant scientists have figured out different ways to reproduce these kinds of fruit.



Many people prefer eating seedless varieties of fruits

such as watermelon, grapes, grapefruit, and oranges. Grafting is one way to reproduce the seedless varieties of fruit trees.

Grafting is the process of taking small stems and buds from a seedless tree and putting them into a cut in the bark of another tree of the same kind that has seeds. The bud or twig is covered with wax and tape to protect it until it begins to grow and the cut heals.

Later, that bud or twig will produce flowers and fruit that are seedless.



A seed consists of an embryo and a cotyledon.

The embryo is a baby plant, and the cotyledon is a stored food structure. The seeds of plants may big as a coconut. Nuts and grains are seeds. Seeds germinate, or sprout, and grow into new plants.



Coconuts are large seeds.

Gymnosperms, such as evergreen trees, grow seeds on the cones of the plants.

Angiosperms, or flowering plants, produce their seeds within the female ovary of their flowers.

Two Types of Seeds

Monocotyledon seeds have one cotyledon and come from plants such as corn.

Dicotyledon

olume IO

3.3

seeds have two cotyledons and come from plants such as beans.



Comparison of monocot (left) and dicot (right) sprouting.

How Plants Grow

The Life Cycle of Plants

Plants grow and develop in stages called a life cycle. Most plants begin life as a spore or a seed. Some plants make spores that grow into new plants. Other plants make seeds.



A little seedling develops its leaves and roots.

20

Flowers make seeds from egg cells fertilized by pollen. Wind, water, insects, and animals disperse spores to new places where they can grow.

> It grows roots that absorb water and nutrients.

Plant Reproduction

All plants must make new plants for their kind to survive. Reproduction is the name of this process.

Plants reproduce in several ways. Fragments, or pieces, of plants can sometimes grow into new plants. Gardeners make cuttings of stems or leaves and put them in containers of water or wet peat moss to grow them. Since this kind of reproduction does not involve male or female cells, we call it asexual reproduction.



Cut stems will sprout roots when placed in water. This is asexual reproduction.

Sexual reproduction, among plants, relies on eggs and pollen. Most plants use sexual reproduction and reproduce by making seeds.

Mosses, Ferns, and Fungi **Reproduction**

Some plants, such as mosses and ferns, reproduce by releasing spores.

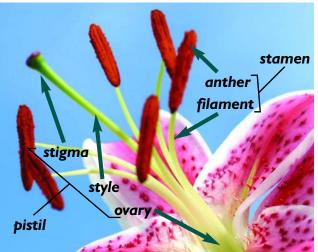


These fern sporangia will produce spores that wind, water, and animals will carry away.

Mosses and liverworts can also reproduce with male and female cells called sperm and eggs. Sperm are cells that must swim to the egg, or ovum. A fertilized egg develops into a chamber called a sporangium that grows from the tip of the moss. This sporangium later makes and releases spores that grow into new moss plants. Alternation of generations is reproduction using eggs and sperm, and then spores.

Flowering Plant Reproduction

Flowering plants use flowers for reproduction. In flowers, anthers on the stamens make the pollen. In cone-bearing plants, a microsporangium makes the pollen.



A pollen grain and an egg cell must combine to produce a seed. In flowering plants, the pollen must get to the top of the pistil of a fertilized egg, or ovule, then flower. In cone-bearing plants, pollen enters an egg at a structure called a micropyle.



Pollination is the name of the process by which pollen gets to the egg bearing structure. Wind, water, insects, and animals pollinate flowers.



A hummingbird pollinating a flower.

Fertilization is the name of the process that combines eggs and pollen in the ovary of a flower. The develops into a seed.



Ears of corn are female flowers. The tassels at the top of

the corn plant are the male flowers. Pollen is shed from the tassels and is carried by the wind to the corn silks at the ends of the ears. Corn silks are long tubes leading to the corn kernels where the egg cells are located.

The pollen cells that land on the silks

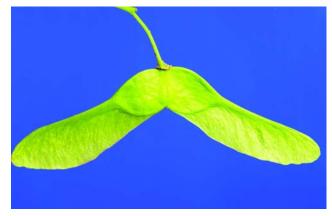
have to go all the way down the silk tubes to fertilize the eggs.

After fertilization, the egg cells develop into the corn that you love to eat!



Seed Dispersal Reproduction

When seeds are fully formed they are usually dispersed, or spread out, from the parent plant. The wind carries away some small seeds and seeds with special winglike structures. Maple tree seeds are winged and flutter to the ground like little helicopters.



Each maple tree that grows was once a tiny winged seed.

Seeds, like those of the burdock Many squirrels bury seeds. plant, have hook-like structures and can hitch a ride on an animal by sticking to its fur.

Birds carry seeds and sometimes drop them far away.



asexual (ay-SEX-you-uhl): reproduction without eggs and sperm

feces (FE-seez): excrement from bowels

fertilization (fur-till-eye-ZAY-shun): the joining, or union of and egg and a sperm cell

pollination (pah-luhn-AY-shun): the transfer of pollen from one flower to another

sexual (SEX-you-uhl): reproduction with eggs and sperm, or pollen cells



Some birds carry seeds and drop them far away.

Animals such as mice and squirrels bury seeds.



Animals eat some seeds and carry them away in their digestive systems. The animals drop the seeds in a new location when they get rid of waste (feces).

Photosynthesis

Photosynthesis is the chemical process in plants that feeds all living things on the Earth. Animal life, including people, would be impossible without the food and oxygen produced by plants.

Photosynthesis occurs in the green leaves of plants, in cell structures called chloroplasts. Chlorophyll is the sunlight absorbing pigment that powers the process.

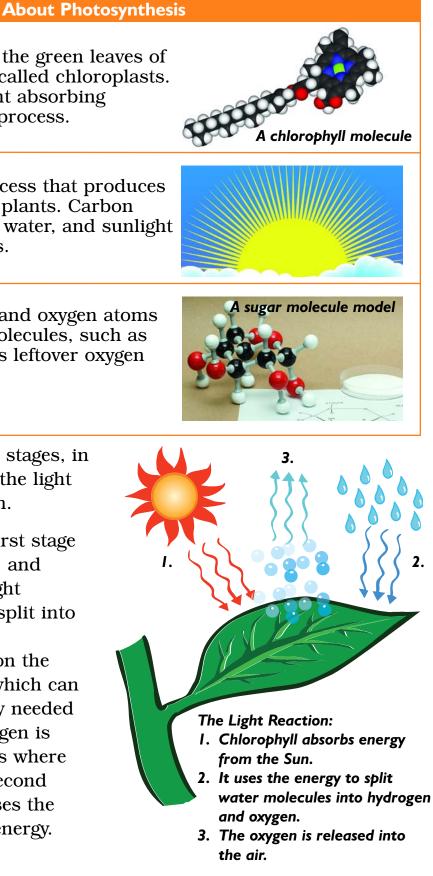
Photosynthesis is the process that produces food substances in green plants. Carbon dioxide, from the air and water, and sunlight are all part of the process.

Some carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen atoms combine to make food molecules, such as sugars. The plant releases leftover oxygen molecules into the air.

There are two parts, or stages, in photosynthesis known as the light reaction and dark reaction.

The Light Reaction is the first stage and needs sunlight, water, and chlorophyll. During the light reaction water molecules split into hydrogen and oxygen.

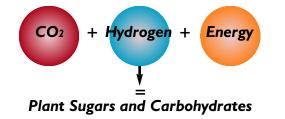
This process depends on the chlorophyll in the plant, which can absorb the sunlight energy needed to split the water. The oxygen is released into the air (that's where we get our oxygen). The second stage of photosynthesis uses the remaining hydrogen and energy.



Plant & Fungi Life

The Dark Reaction is the second part of photosynthesis. It needs no sunlight and goes on all of the time. Another name for it is the Calvin Cycle.

This process takes carbon dioxide from the air and combines it with the hydrogen and energy from the light reaction. In this way, plants can make carbohydrates, such as sugars and starches, they need for food. The plant reuses some of the substances produced during the cycle. The cycle repeats as long as the plant lives.



The Dark Reaction:

- I. Carbon dioxide (CO₂) from the air is combined with the carbon compound and energy from the light reaction.
- 2. The plant uses this to make the sugars and carbohydrates it needs to live.



carbohydrate (kar-boh-HIGH-drait): a food substance produced by the plant process called photosynthesis

chlorophyll (KLOR-uh-fill): a green pigment used by plants to absorb sunlight energy during photosynthesis

meristem (MEH-reh-stem): plant cells at the tips of roots and stems, and under the bark, where growth can occur

The Rate of Photosynthesis

The rate of photosynthesis speeds up or slows down depending on conditions. The amounts of sunlight, temperature, carbon dioxide. and water affect the rate of photosynthesis. If any of these factors decrease, photosynthesis decreases.



Most regions of the Earth provide just about enough of these factors for plants to grow. In some parts of the world, winter conditions slow, or stop, photosynthesis. The polar ice caps and tops of many mountains are too cold for most plants.



Some deserts, such as the Bonneville Salt Flats, are too hot, dry, and salty for photosynthesis to occur. No plants can live there. In the deepest parts of oceans and very deep lakes, it is too dark for photosynthesis.



Karl von Nageli was born in Switzerland in 1817. He first studied medicine, but became interested in plants and know... switched his studies to botany, which is the study of plants. Nageli began to wonder how plants grow and reproduce. After discovering the spores of ferns, he studied mosses, which are simple plants. Nageli also noticed that there are two kinds of tissues in plants. They are structural tissue that has stopped growing and formative tissue that is always growing. He discovered that the formative, or meristem tissues, were located at the growing tips of stems and roots, and under the bark of trees.

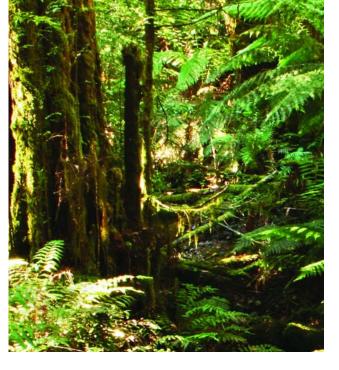
Today, wilderness survival trainers know that if you become lost in the woods, you can scrape the meristem tissue from the inside of the bark of some living trees, and survive by eating it. Meristem tissues contain many nutrients, such as proteins and sugars.

Types of Plants

There are many kinds, shapes, and sizes of plants on Earth. Among them, algae, mosses, liverworts, ferns, and some trees are non-flowering plants. Among the flowering plants are the grasses and other non-woody, herbaceous plants. Shrubs, some vines, and many kinds of trees are woody plants.

> Many different kinds of plants grow in a rain forest, including mosses and ferns.

Karl von Nageli



Annual Plants

Annual plants complete their life cycles in one growing season.



Peas are one kind of annual plant.

Perennial Plants

Perennial plants repeat their life cycles and live for many years.



Day lilies are one kind of perennial plant.

Algae

Some algae are part of the Kingdom Protista, and others are part of the Kingdom Eubacteria, and thus are not really plants. We classify common algae by the pigments that they contain. Algae have been around for many years. Fossils show that blue-green algae were among the first living things on Earth.

Algae are made of cells like other plants but have no roots, stems, or flowers. Common green algae live in water or on wet soil, rocks, and other damp surfaces, such as cellar walls, tree bark, and the sides of flowerpots.



You may also see algae growing on stone steps.

Algae cells can be like bacteria cells with no nuclei. Other algae are one-celled, such as many of the ocean's plankton. Some plankton are photosynthetic algae, capturing energy from sunlight and converting it into useful food for all sea life.



Some ice cream contains agar, which comes from red algae.

When you eat ice cream, you might be eating agar, a jelly-like substance produced by red algae. Agar gives ice cream a smooth texture.

Algae can also cause harm. The rapid growth of blue-green algae in small, polluted lakes can use up so much oxygen that fish suffocate.



Sometimes algae covers the surface of a lake.

Lichens are symbionts composed of blue-green algae cells and fungus cells living together.

They are gravish-green and you can sometimes find them on apple tree branches and evergreens. Hummingbirds use them to build their tiny nests.

Different Kinds of Algae

Spirogyra, a green algae, lives in groups of cells called colonies.

Irish Moss grows on rocks along the shores of the North Atlantic Ocean. and is edible.

Seaweed and kelp are brown algae that live in the ocean. Kelp can grow to 100 feet (30.5 m) in length.

Silica shells enclose the cells of diatoms.

Blue-green algae cells have no nuclei in their cells.



agar (AH-ger): a jelly-like substance produced by some algae

diatom (DYE-uh-tahm): one-celled algae that have shells of silica

lichen (LYE-kuhn): plant composed of a fungus and an algae

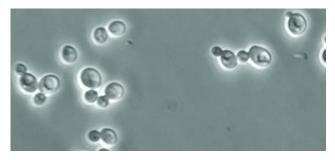
plankton (PLANK-tuhn): microscopic algae and protozoa that live in the ocean



Fungi

Fungi resemble plants in some ways. Their cells have walls like plant cells. They reproduce with spores, like mosses, liverworts, and ferns. But, unlike plants, they have no chlorophyll and can't make their own food.

The structure of a fungus consists of tiny thread-like cells that grow in moist, dark places, such as the soil, dead plants and animals, and other organic substances. Some fungi, such as mushrooms, produce a large, visible, spore-bearing structure, but many are microscopic.



Yeast cells can be seen under a microscope. Yeast is a fungus.

Fungi get their food by digesting and absorbing dead plant and animal substances. They are decomposers and recyclers of dead things. We call them saprophytes. Common fungi are molds, mildews, yeasts, mushrooms, slime molds, bracket fungi, and puffballs.

Helpful Fungi



Molds are fungi that sometimes can grow on spoiled foods. Penicillium is a common green mold, which grows on spoiled food.



Penicillium produces a substance, penicillin, which is an antibiotic. Antibiotics kill bacteria and are important to fight against diseases.



Special molds are used to create the flavors of cheese, such as Roquefort and other blue cheeses.

Helpful Fungi

Yeasts are fungi that decompose fruit. They create alcohol and carbon dioxide bubbles when they digest sugars, and are used to make wine and beer. We call this process fermentation.

Yeast also releases carbon dioxide bubbles when placed in bread dough. The dough rises up and becomes light and spongy when baked.

Some yeasts act as germs, or pathogens, creating infection.

Fungus Diseases

Some fungi cause diseases in plants and animals. Dutch elm disease kills elm trees. Chestnut trees, which were once very common in North America, have almost been eliminated by a blight fungus.



Dutch elm disease is caused by a fungus.

Horses and cattle also suffer from a disease called hoof-rot, caused by a fungus.

Wheat, rye, and other grain crops become infected by Ergot fungus. The bread made with flour from ergot-infected grain is toxic, or poisonous, to humans.



This ergot-infected grain stalk needs to be removed from our food supply.

Edible Fungi

Mushrooms are familiar fungi because people eat them in salads, pizza, and other foods. In nature, they grow on organic matter, such as dead leaves, bark, and in rich soils. They have a great variety of colors and shapes, which are of interest to mycologists, who study them.

Many are edible but some are very poisonous. It's best not to eat mushrooms you find growing outside.

31

Example of an Edible Mushroom



Other Fungi

Out in the woods you are likely to see bracket fungi, growing like shelves on dead trees.



Bracket fungi form spores shaped like wooden clubs.

Puffballs pop up after a warm rain on lawns. They look like ping pong balls when they are young. If

WORL

decomposer (dee-cahm-POZ-er): an organism, such as a fungus, that digests dead material and absorbs nutrients to live

fermentation (fur-men-TAY-shun): a chemical process used by some bacteria and fungi to digest sugars

organic (or-GAN-ick): carbon-containing substance remaining after living thing has died

Example of a Poisonous Mushroom



you step on them when they are mature and dried out, they puff out a cloud of spores.



If you look inside of a puffball, you can see its spores.



FUNGI CAN BE HUGE

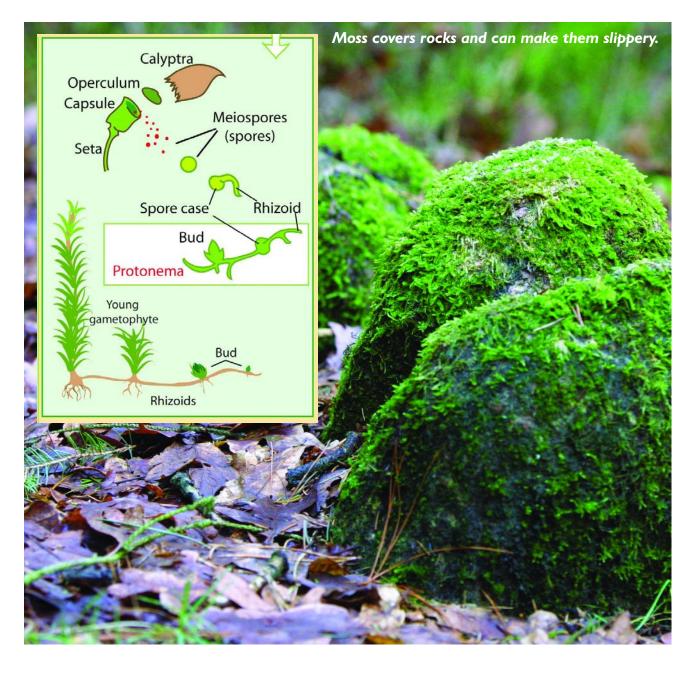
The largest living things are not plants or animals.

They are fungi. Some fungi weigh thousands of pounds. They live underground and cover areas of many square miles.

In the cool, wet, coastal rain forests of the northwestern United States, these fungi destroy large areas of trees.

Mosses and Liverworts

Mosses and liverworts are small, simple, green, flowerless plants. They grow in moist, shady places all over the Earth. They attach themselves to cool and damp surfaces with root-like threads, called rhizoids.

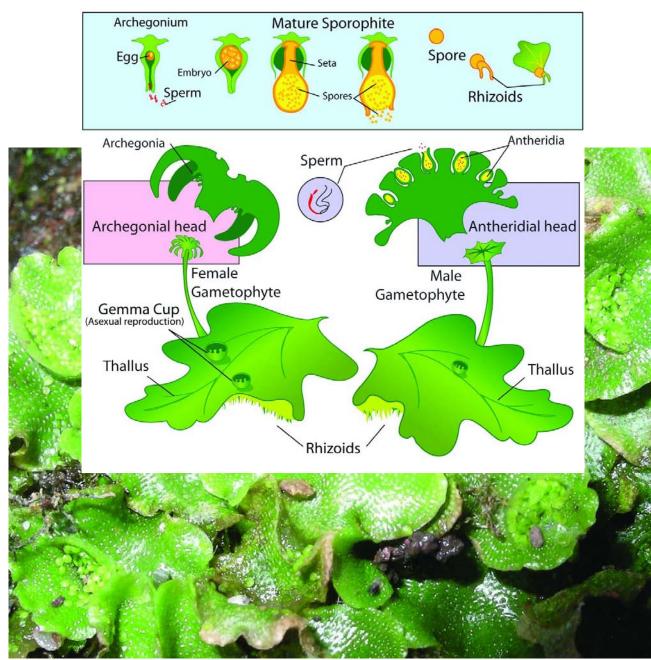


Mosses grow in dense carpets made up of thousands of individuals. Mosses contain chlorophyll and are green.

They reproduce by spores released from tiny capsules at the tips of the plant. At another stage they produce eggs and swimming sperm to continue their life cycle.

Liverworts are like mosses in that they attach themselves by hairlike rhizoids. Unlike mosses, they have no leaves or stems. Their bodies are wide, flat, branching, green ribbons growing on wet rocks and soil near shady, cool woodland streams.

Like mosses, liverworts reproduce with spores and, at another stage, with eggs and sperm during their life cycle. Mosses and liverworts must live in wet places to complete their life cycles.



Liverworts grow in wet places.

Ferns

Ferns have been on Earth for millions of years.

They are flowerless plants. Like mosses and liverworts, they prefer wet and shady places. Most live on the ground but some can live on rocks and tree bark. A few types live in open, sunny places and a few others live completely in water.



Ferns prefer shady places, like forests.

Ferns range in size from tiny rock ferns that look like moss. to giant tree ferns, 40 feet (12.2 m) tall.

Fern leaves, called fronds, are leafy. They grow on stems in a branching pattern resembling an evergreen tree. The leaves sprout from underground stems called rhizomes, uncoiling as they grow. In this stage, they look like the curled end of a violin. That is why we call them fiddleheads.

Edible Ferns

In Maine and eastern Canada, fiddleheads are springtime delicacies that many people eat. Native American and Canadian Indians taught early white settlers to pick and cook fiddleheads during colonial times.

Ferns also alternate between producing spores and making eggs and sperm to reproduce. Sporangia produce the spores. They look like dots on the underside of fronds. A few types of ferns, called seed ferns, reproduce with seeds produced from pollen and egg cells.

- fiddlehead (FID-uhl-head): a coiled, immature fern that resembles the upper end of a violin, or fiddle
 - rhizoid (RYE-zoyd): tiny, hair-like structures that hold mosses, ferns, and liverworts to the rocks, logs, or soil that they grow on



The fiddlehead on this fern will unroll as the plant matures.

frond (frahnd): the green leaf-like part of a fern

Flowering Plants

Flowering plants outnumber all other kinds of plants. There are over 250,000 species of them on Earth.

They grow wild in deserts, forests, meadows, and on mountains. People cultivate them inside and around their homes.



Tulips are grown in regions where the winters are cold.

Flowers that are mostly small and not noticeable are usually wind-pollinated plants. Birds and insects usually have a role in the pollination of flowers that are showy and noticeable. The bird of paradise flower is an unusually shaped flower. It has a perch for birds to sit on and drink the nectar. The pollen collects on the bird's neck and the bird carries the pollen from flower to flower.



Can you see how the bird of paradise got its name? It looks like a beautiful bird in flight.

Simple or Composite

Flowers may be simple or composite.

Simple Flowers

A simple flower is a single blossom with one set of sepals, petals, stamens, and pistils.

Lilies, violets, poppies, tulips, and morning glories are simple flowers.



Composite Flowers

A composite flower is hundreds of tiny flowers clustered together. Petal-like ray flowers surround a button-like cluster of tiny disk shaped flowers in the center. The disk flowers in the center have multiple stamens and sepals. Daisies, asters, chrysanthemums, and sunflowers are composite flowers.



Flower Arrangement

Flowers are arranged on plants in various ways. On some, the flower arrangement is in groups, or clusters. Other plants have single flowers.



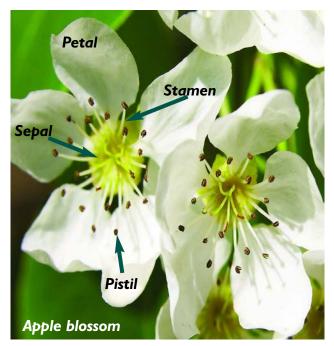
Morning glories grow single flowers.



Complete and

Incomplete Flowers

Complete flowers have a set of sepals, petals, stamens, and pistils. Apple and cherry blossoms are complete flowers.



When the pollen from the stamen fertilizes the ovum in the pistil, an apple will develop.

Plant & Fungi Life

Plant & Fungi Life

Incomplete flowers lack one of the four major parts of a flower. These plants usually rely on the wind to pollinate them. Birch and willow trees have incomplete flowers.

Flowering vines sometimes have separate male and female flowers. Cucumbers, pumpkin, squash, and watermelon plants all have female flowers that develop into vegetable fruits after pollination by separate male flowers.



Pumpkin plants have female flowers.



complete (kom-PLEET): a complete flower has petals and sepals

composite (kom-POZ-itt): a composite flower is made up of ray flowers surrounding a central area of disk flowers

incomplete (inn-cuhm-PLEET): flowers that lack one or more of the four main flower parts

pollinate (POL-uh-nate): to carry or transfer pollen from the stamen to the pistil of the same flower or another flower Sometimes the female flowers are on one plant and the male flowers on others.

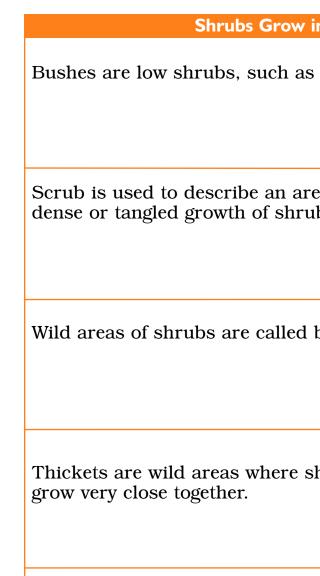


The flowers of a pussy willow are called catkins. You can see the yellow pollen on the tips of this catkin.

Shrubs

Shrubs are woody plants with tree-like branches without a main trunk. The branches grow from the base of the shrub, or from below ground level. Shrubs range from a few inches in height up to 16 feet (4.9 m) tall. Some shrubs are flowering evergreens, such as Rhododendrons.

Shrubs are known by many names, such as scrub, bushes, brush, thickets, and hedges.



Hedges are shrubs used as fence borders around houses, buildin parks. When hedges are trimme side branches develop, causing to thicken. Topiaries are hedges into shapes of animals or other

Vines

Vines are plants that climb up other plants or structures. Some vines grow across the ground between different plants. Some vines simply wind around other things to

in Many	Different Ways
s roses.	
ea with 1bs.	
brush.	
shrubs	
ces or ngs, and ed, more the hed s trimme forms.	ge 🖉 🖉

receive the sunlight that they need. The climbing vines of tropical rain forests grow to the tops of tall trees to get sunlight. Climbing plants use other plants for support because they are not as sturdy or strong.

Climbing Vines Get Support in Many Ways

Tendrils are little branches that can wrap around the stems of other plants for support.

Ivy vines grow roots into the surfaces that they hold onto. They have special little pads that can attach them to walls or other surfaces.

Thorny vines entangle themselves with the supporting plants that they climb on.



Some vines produce edible fruits and vegetables, such as tomatoes, melons, squash, and cucumbers. Other vines have pretty flowers and lots of decorative foliage. Many people enjoy growing these vines for houseplants or in flower gardens.



foliage (FOH-lee-ij): the leaves of a plant

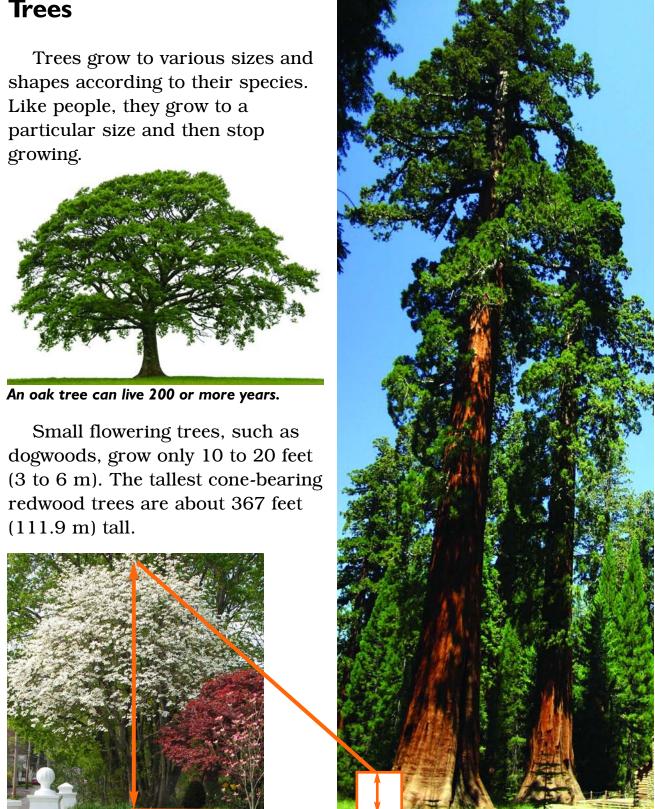
rain forest (RAYN-foh-rest): a lush, moist forest with many kinds of plants and animals

topiary (TOH-pee-air-ee): a hedge that is trimmed in the shape of some object or animal



Cucumbers grow on vines.

Trees





An approximate height comparison of a twenty foot dogwood to a 367 foot redwood.



People grow some tiny trees, called bonsai, in plant pots and trim them to keep the trees little.



Bonsai can be created from almost any tree or shrub.

Some large plants, such as bananas, are treelike but are not trees. Their trunks are not woody and are made of leaves tightly rolled. Yuccas are plants with trunks made of tough fibers and leaves that are blade-like. They grow quite tall, but are not trees either.



Bananas grow in hanging clusters, called hands.

Deciduous trees are trees that shed, or drop their leaves in the fall. The leaves of deciduous trees are usually flat, thin, green leaves. Maple, oak, birch, dogwood, beech, aspen, and many fruit trees are deciduous.



Deciduous trees lose their leaves in the fall.

Some trees. such as the red maples, have dark red leaves. Tree leaves vary in size and shape, too. The shapes of the leaves and other characteristics help us identify trees.



Plant & Fungi Life

Trees produce lots of oxygen through photosynthesis and provide food for wildlife. Many animals, including birds, feed on the nuts and other fruit produced by trees. Tropical rain forests are particularly productive and support large numbers of animal species.



Trees provide food and homes for a variety of animals.

Food products, such as maple syrup, come from deciduous trees. In the spring, the watery sap of maple trees drips from small holes drilled into the trunks. Then we boil down the watery sap to make the sweet syrup.



Sap is collected in February, March, and April, when freezing nights and warm days aid its flow.

Koalas live most of their lives in eucalyptus trees, rarely coming to the ground.

Citrus trees, such as orange, lemon, and grapefruit, grow in groves in mild climates. Other orchard fruits, including apples, peaches, mangos, cherries, plums, and olives, also grow on trees. Dates and coconuts grow on palm trees. Trees also produce nuts, such as walnuts, pecans, and almonds.



Trees provide many nutritious fruits and nuts.

trees are evergreen trees. They can

The Australian koala is an animal

Evergreen trees have green

leaves all year long. Eucalyptus

grow as tall as 300 feet (91 m).

that feeds on eucalyptus leaves

and bark.

Plant & Fungi Life

Plant & Fungi Life

Palm trees are every reen trees. They live in warm tropical places. Their large leaves are shaped like fans or feathers. Large ridges on their bark are the scars that form when their leaves break off. Some palms have large, bushy clumps of dead leaves at their tops.



The coconut palm's leaves can be used to make baskets and thatched roofs.

Conifers are every even trees that bear their seeds on cones. Their leaves are needle-shaped. Conifers grow on mountainsides and in northern forest ecosystems, called Taiga.



Some conifers are more suited to growing at higher altitudes than other types of trees.

Conifers grow in both cold and warm climates. Pine, spruce, and fir trees grow in cold, northerly regions of the Earth. Cedar and tamarack grow in cool, northern bogs. Cypress trees grow in warm, watery swamps, such as the Florida Everglades.



Cypress swamps are found in the southern United States, including the Florida Everglades in the southern tip of Florida.



Conifers grow with boughs that slant downward. This helps them shed heavy snow in winter. Their needle-shaped leaves resist cold temperatures.

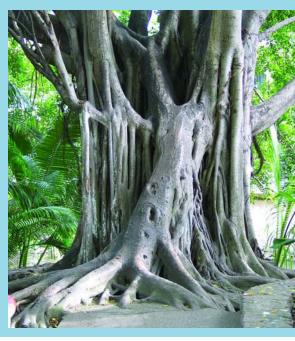


The conifer's shape helps protect its branches from breaking.



The widest trees in the world are banyan trees. They grow in a

region called the East Indies. They sprout new shoots from their branches that reach to the ground, take root in the soil, and become new trunks. One tree can create a whole forest!



Herbs

Herbs are non-woody, or herbaceous, flowering plants. Plants such as tulips, marigolds, asters, and other garden flowers and weeds are herbs.

We call some spices, such as basil, thyme, sage, pepper, and oregano, herbs. Some of them have woody stems, though, and are not really herbs. Herbaceous plants are mostly flowering plants.

Perennial herbs have tops that die at the end of a growing season, but sprout again from the underground roots the following year. The roots are dormant, or inactive. in winter. Some herbs are annuals, which grow from seeds each year and live one growing season.

Culinary herbs are plants that are edible and often used to flavor foods. You may be tasting sweet basil or dill when you eat tomato sauce. Chives are grass-like herbs that taste like onions.



Chives, spearmint, and sage are some of the culinary herbs that add flavor to our meals.



deciduous (di-SIJ-you-uhss): trees that shed their leaves every year

evergreen (EV-ur-green): a shrub or tree that has green leaves throughout the year

botanist (BOT-uhn-ist): one who studies plants

culinary (KUH-lin-airy): having to do with cooking foods

Various Herbs and Spices and Their Uses

Bay Leaf

Fresh or dried bay leaves are used in cooking for their flavor and fragrance. The leaves are not usually eaten, but left to simmer in soups and stews.



Catnip

Catnip is named after the effect it has on cats. Cat owners buy catnip to entertain their pet cats. Cats will rub on it, roll over it, paw at it, chew it, and lick it.



Cinnamon

Cinnamon is a spice mostly used to flavor desserts, cereals, and hot chocolate. Cinnamon comes from the bark of a small evergreen tree native to Sri Lanka and Southern India.



Echinacea

Echinacea is an herb native to prairie habitats in the United States. Some people believe it can boost the body's immune system and ward off infections like the common cold.



Patchouli

The oil from a patchouli plant has been used for centuries in perfumes and is grown in the East and West Indies.



Wasabi

Wasabi is a member of the cabbage family. Its root is used as a spice and has an extremely strong flavor that can leave a burning sensation on the tongue and in the nasal passages.



We use the leaves of many kinds of herbs to make herbal teas. Some herbal teas help people sleep and some keep them awake. Caffeine is

The leaves and stems of grasses a substance in some teas that wither and die at the end of a growing season. Water and keeps people awake. Some herbs, such as mint or nutrients remain in the roots so sage, have very pleasant aromas that the grass can regrow when conditions improve in the and are used in cooking, aroma therapy, and many other products. springtime. Healthy grasses grow The large roots of some herbs, new stems and blades throughout a such as carrots. beets. and growing season.

There are many varieties of radishes, are used as food. Many grass. Corn, rice, wheat, oats, rye, herbs also contain substances that are useful medicines. barley and millet are all grasses. The grains from these grasses are Grasses used for food, including cereal.

Grasses are flowering plants with tiny flowers, arranged in clusters, on the tips of long stems, or stalks. Grasses are low-growing plants with long, thin leaves. Most have very fine, thin roots that bind them to the soil. Tube-shaped



Some grasses are used for landscaping, lawns, and athletic fields.

Ordinary grasses, such as Timothy, a common hay plant, usually grow a few feet tall. Hay, or dried grasses, is what many farm animals eat.



Bamboo is a type of grass that can grow over 100 feet tall.

In nature, grasslands are regions that receive too little rainfall to

grow trees. Grasses require less water than trees.

Grasslands of the World

In Africa grasslands are called savannahs.





In North America grasslands are called prairies.





In South America grasslands are called pampas.





In Europe and Asia grasslands are called steppes.



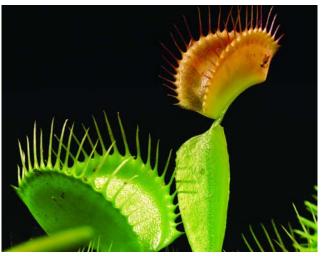


Plant Movements and Adaptations

Plant Movements

Plant reactions usually are slower than those of animals. Some plants, such as jewelweed, have seed pods that pop open when touched, flinging their seeds in all directions. Mimosa trees have leaves that wilt and collapse when touched.

Carnivorous bog plants, such as the Venus flytrap, have special leaves that close up on insects when they touch them.



The speed at which a Venus flytrap closes on its prey depends on the humidity, light, size of the prey, and even the health of the plant.

Tropisms

Tropisms are plant growth movements. They help plants grow closer to the things they need and away from things that might harm them.

Have you ever noticed how some plants bend toward light?

Sunflowers move to face the Sun from sunrise until sunset. Light makes some parts of the plant grow faster than others. This bending or growing toward the light is called phototropism.



The fungus phycomyces exhibits phototropism.

Plant growth reactions, or tropisms, can be positive or negative. A positive tropism is growth toward something, such as a leaf facing the Sun. A negative tropism is growth away from something, such as a stem growing upward, away from the Earth.

Roots grow toward the Earth, a positive geotropism. Tendrils of a vine touch an object and grow around it, a positive thigmotropism.



AUXINS

Auxins are chemicals produced by plants that control growth.

A stem grows toward the light because the auxin moves to the shady side of the stem. The cells on the shaded side grow longer, making the stem bend toward the light. This can happen within minutes, or may take hours.

Plant Adaptations

Plants are threatened by many dangers in their environment. Some plants live in saltwater oceans and must resist salt poisoning. Others live in dry deserts and struggle to get water.

Plants also must compete with other plants for sunlight, water, and soil. Insects and other animals damage them. So plants have developed many adaptations, or changes, to survive all these threats.



auxin (AUX-in): plant substance that may speed up or slow down growth

carnivorous (kar-NIV-uhr-uhss): meat eating

tropisms (TROP-izmz): plant growth movements



Plants are damaged by many creatures.

Water Plants

Water plants live in water and have special problems. Saltwater plants must prevent too much salt from killing their cells. Freshwater plants must keep too much water from entering their cells, causing them to burst.

Water lilies use air filled sacs to keep their leaves on the surface helping them get air and sunlight. Giant Amazon water lilies can be 6 feet (almost 2 m) across and can support the weight of large birds.



Kelp beds create an underwater forest off the coast of California.

Desert Plants

Desert plants have adapted to live in hot, dry places. They remain dormant for many months, until it rains. They complete their entire life cycle, producing flowers and seeds, in a few weeks or months. Desert plants, such as cacti, adapt to the dryness by being leafless. Leaves have large surfaces that lose a lot of water. Cacti are also succulent plants with fleshy stems that hold in water. After a rain, each cactus rapidly blooms and produces seeds.

Large spines on cacti repel desert herbivores (animals that try to eat them). This keeps animals from biting into the cacti, causing it to lose water. Many other plants,



A cactus blooms after a desert rain.

such as rose bushes, have thorns. Thorns protect them from being eaten, too.

Spines keep most animals from biting or eating a cactus.

Epiphytes

Epiphytes are plants that grow on trees. Plants must have sunlight. Forests are crowded with trees and other plants that shade the forest floor. Some ferns, mosses, and even small, flowering plants survive by growing on the taller trees to get the light they need. Mistletoe is an epiphyte.



Mistletoe can be harmful to its host tree, but it helps provide many animals with food and a habitat.





PLANTS THAT EAT ANIMALS

Some plants get the nitrogen they need from insects rather than soil. They are carnivorous, or meat-eating. Plants such as Venus flytraps,

sundews, and pitcher plants capture flies and other insects and digest them.

Flytraps have leaves that fold together and grasp whatever lands on them. Chemicals called enzymes digest the insect.



A Venus flytrap



A sundew plant



A pitcher plant



adaptation (ad-ap-TAY-shuhn): a change that a living thing goes through, so that it fits better into its environment

desert (DES-urt): a dry, often sandy area where hardly any plants grow because there is so little rain

enzyme (EN-zime): a chemical that causes chemical reactions to occur in living things

herbivore (HER-buh vor): a plant-eating organism

parasite (PAIR-uh-site): an animal or plant that gets its food by living on or inside another animal or plant

Parasitic Plants

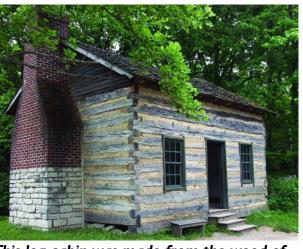
Parasitic plants do not have chlorophyll. They are parasites on other plants. This means that they take food substances from others by growing into their stems or roots. Beech drops are odd looking little plants that grow attached to the roots of beech trees. They are very pale, almost colorless, because they have no chlorophyll. They absorb the nutrients that they need from the beech roots.

How We Use Plants

Humans use plants in many ways. We build structures with them. We plant them in and arou our homes to enjoy their colors, forms, and fragrance. We study them to learn from them. We eat them and use them to make food products and drinks. We even make our clothes from their fibe Some of them provide medicines and cosmetics.

Shelter and Decoration

People have always made hom from plants. Grasses, logs, and bamboo poles have been useful building materials throughout our history.



This log cabin was made from the wood of nearby trees.

Axes, handsaws, and eventually sawmills, made it possible to create planks and boards. Today, many

	people live in houses with wooden
	frames covered with plywood
und	sheets, wooden shingles, and
,	clapboard siding.
	People cut down trees for their
t	wood. People plant trees to
d	decorate, or landscape, yards and
	parks.
ers.	Flowers are pleasant to look at,
ers. s	and fruits and vegetables are
	-
	and fruits and vegetables are
	and fruits and vegetables are delicious to eat. That is why so
	and fruits and vegetables are delicious to eat. That is why so many of us plant them in our
S	and fruits and vegetables are delicious to eat. That is why so many of us plant them in our gardens. People even grow
	and fruits and vegetables are delicious to eat. That is why so many of us plant them in our gardens. People even grow houseplants, such as ferns, palms,



Gardening can be an enjoyable hobby at any age.

Many people enjoy taking care of their indoor and outdoor plants, feeding them a mixture of nutrients called fertilizer. They must make sure their plants get enough water and sunlight, too.

Scientific Exploration With Plants

Scientists find many things that plants and animals have in common by studying and experimenting with them. The way plants and animals inherit and pass down physical traits, or heredity, was discovered in this way.



A researcher examines the roots of a plant.

Cross-Pollination

Plant breeders cross-pollinate plants to improve the next generation of plants. The seeds produced by cross-pollinated plants may have bigger, more colorful flowers. These young plants, called hybrids, may also produce bigger and more nutritious fruit.

Cross-pollinating means that you put the male pollen cells from a plant with a good characteristic on the female pistils of another plant that has a good characteristic. The seeds that are produced from cross-pollination grow up to have both of the good characteristics.



Cross-pollination can lead to better fruits and vegetables.

Plant Genetics

In the 1860s, a man named Gregor Mendel studied and experimented with the colors and shapes of pea plants.





В

etting to know...

Barbara McClintock was born in Connecticut in 1902. As a child, she loved nature and spent a lot of time in the countryside.

She studied biology at Cornell University, in New York, and earned a PhD in 1927. Because women at that time were not hired as college professors, she could not find a job at a college. She continued studying genetics, working with Indian corn, or maize, that has seed kernels of many colors.

She discovered genes could move, or "jump", from one chromosome to another, changing their genetics. Other scientists later discovered jumping genes in bacteria, flies, and other animals. McClintock was awarded the 1983 Nobel Prize in Medicine for her work.

He noticed that certain traits were passed down from plant to plant in certain ways. By counting and using mathematics, he figured out how plants inherited traits and created the science of genetics.

Later, scientists discovered the genes that control the inheritance of traits. Other scientists have figured out the chemical structure of the chemical substances, the DNA, that genes are composed of.

Barbara McClintock



THE NOBEL PRIZE

The Nobel Prize is an award that honors

men and women... "who, during the preceding year, shall have conferred the greatest benefit on mankind."

The Nobel Prize started in 1895 when Alfred Nobel, a Swedish chemist, engineer, innovator, and inventor of dynamite, wrote his last will, leaving much of his wealth to set up the prizes.

Since 1901, the prize has honored men and women for outstanding achievements in physics, chemistry, medicine, literature, economics, and for work in peace.

Plant & Fungi Life

Plants as Food

People eat many kinds of plants. We eat all the parts of plants. We eat roots, stems, and leaves...flowers, fruits, and seeds.

A tall, strong grass called sugar cane is the source of most of our sugar. The flavoring cocoa, or chocolate, comes from the ground up beans of cacao plants. Coffee comes from the ground beans of the coffee plant. Agar, a gel, used to thicken ice cream, comes from seaweed (red algae).



Heavy machines help farmers harvest sugar cane.



chromosome (kroh-muh-sohm): the part of the cell that contains the genes that gives living things their characteristics

fertilizer (fur-tuh-lize-ur): a substance, such as animal manure, compost, or a chemical that promotes plant growth

genetics (juh-net-iks): the study of the ways that personal characteristics are passed along from one generation to another by genes



Each cacao pod can contain 20 to 60 cocoa beans.



Coffee plants growing on a plantation.



Coffee fruit is red when it's on the plant, but turns brown when roasted.

Plants and t

Roots

Roots that we eat include carrot turnips, parsnips, and radishes

Stems

Stems, such as celery and rhuba tasty and nutritious.

Leaves

The leaves of lettuce, cabbage, s collards, chard, and others are foods, too.

Flowers

Flowers, such as broccoli and ca are good cooked or eaten raw.

Fruits

Fruits, including apples, oranges grapes, kiwis, and others are sw juicy. Vegetable fruits, such as to cucumbers, squash, and eggplan the variety that is available to pe

Seeds

Seeds are eaten by people and return the bulk of most of our nutrition wheat, rice, and all the other gramake into breads and pastas comportant nutrients.

he Parts Tha	t We Eat
ts, beets, 5.	
oarb, are	
spinach, common	
cauliflower,	
es, cherries, weet and comatoes, int add to eople.	
make up on. Corn, rains we ontain	



George Washington Carver

George Washington Carver was born to black slave parents in Missouri in the 1860s. His mother was taken away to the South when he was a baby. His mother's

former owners raised him and helped him get an education.

A college in Kansas originally accepted Carver but then rejected him when they saw that he was an African American. At a college in Iowa, he studied botany and agriculture, the science of farming.

He went on to teach at the Tuskegee Institute in Alabama. Insects called boll weevils were destroying cotton plants at that time. Carver convinced farmers to grow peanuts instead of cotton.

Carver developed over 300 products made from peanuts. He made inks, dyes, makeup, medicine, glue, soap, and even peanut milk.

Other Plant Products

Today, plants are used to produce many things. One product is ethanol made from corn and used to fuel engines. Dyes come from plants, as do other chemicals, such as rubber, turpentine, and shellac.

We make clothing from cotton



agriculture (AG-ruh-kul-chur): farming

ethanol (EH-than-all): an alcohol produced by yeasts from the fermentation of sugar

gel (gehl): a thick, jelly-like substance

latex (LAY-teks): the milky juice of the rubber tree

fibers twisted into thread and then woven into cloth. Hemp rope is made of plant fiber.

Milky juices of some tropical trees are the source of natural rubber. The juice, or latex, is cooked and it thickens to become the elastic, or stretchy material we call rubber.



Many newer model cars can run on E-85 ethanol.

People Learn From Plants

Why Study Plants?

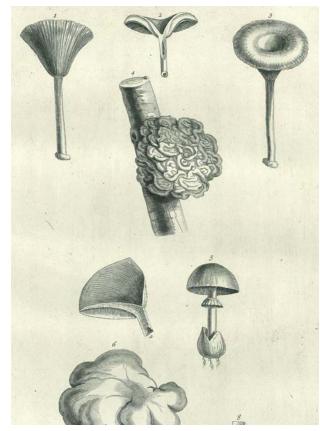
Knowledge of plants has always been useful to people. Wild fruits, vegetables, and nuts first became food sources thousands of years ago. They still are.



Plants have always been a food source for humans.

When people discovered how to grow their own plants, farming began. Edible plant crops made more food available to more people.

People long ago discovered the value of plants in making medicines such as pain killers.



Plant drawings by Sebastian Vaillant in the 1700s.

Today we understand and depend on the use of plants and plant products. Plant scientists are discovering more and more about plants.

Young people can learn about plants and, someday, work at interesting and important jobs all over the world.

Botany is the branch of biology that studies plants. There are many people who work with plants including botanists, or plant scientists.

	PEOPLE WHO WORK WI	TH PLANTS		PEOPLE WHO
		Specializes in		
Arborist		the science of tree growing.	Paleobotanist	
Aroma-therapist		knowing scents, or smells, of plants that relax, calm, and comfort people.	Phytopathologist	
Bryologist		studying mosses.	Pomologist	
Herbalist		using herbs to treat illnesses.	Plant growers, or require knowledge cultivation, and ha wide variety of pla	e of the planting, arvesting of a
Horticulturist		having knowledge of the varieties of plants used in landscaping and ornamental gardening.	Farmers must le chemicals, too. Fer pesticides are imp that farmers use, l be dangerous.	rtilizers and ortant chemical

WORK WITH PLANTS

Specializes in...



studying plant fossils.



studying plant diseases.



working with orchard plants, such as apple trees and others.



m als lso



Farmers examine the health of their crops.

Agricultural engineers invent machines used in farming and show farmers how to use or repair them.



An agricultural engineer explains how a farm machine works.

Other people who study and work with plants include gardeners, who take care of private and public gardens.



A gardener tends his flowers.



ancient (AYN-shunt): very old

engineer (en-juh-NIHR): a person who builds structures

pesticide (PESS-tuh-side): a chemical used to kill pests, such as harmful insects

Landscape architects design plans for arranging plants around homes, buildings, parks, and highways.



Landscapers use grass, herbs, and trees in attractive combinations.

Florists grow and sell plants and need to know ways of keeping them fresh and healthy.



Florists sell many different types and arrangements of flowers.



Volume 4

Earth Science



By Tim Clifford

Editorial Consultant Luana Mitten Project Editor Kurt Sturm

Rourke Publishing LLC Vero Beach, Florida 32964

. . .

. . .

. . .

.

. . .

© 2008 Rourke Publishing LLC

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced or utilized in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical including photocopying, recording, or by any information storage and retrieval system without permission in writing from the publisher.

www.rourkepublishing.com

Photo credits: Page 4 © Vera Bogaerts; Page 4b © Jaroslaw Grudzinski; Page 5 © Mares Lucian; Page 5a © Taissiya Shaidarova; Page 5b © George Burba; Page 5c © Brykaylo Yuriy; Page 6 © Arkadiy Yarmolenko; Page 6b © Hiroshi Ichikawa; Page 6c © Elder Vieira Salles; Page 8 © Sebastian Kaulitzki; Page 11 © magali bolla; Page 13 © Khafizov Ivan Harisovich; Page 15 © Charles Taylor; Page 15 © Lorelyn Medina; Page 15c © Alexander Maksimov; Page 16b © David Dohnal; Page 16d © Guojón Eyjólfur Ólafsson; Page 17b © Walter Quirtmair; Page 17d - Nicholas Peter Gavin Davies; Page 18 © Michael Ledray; Page 18b © Chung Ooi Tan; Page 19c © T-Design; Page 19e © Jozef Sedmak; Page 19f © Kondrashov MIkhail Evgenevich; Page 20 © Joe Gough; Page 20b © oksanaperkins; Page 21a © No Čredit; Page 21c © Cheryl Casey; Page 23 © Patrick Hermans; Page 24 © Craig Hansen; Page 24b © Terry Underwood Evans; Page 24c © Aron Brand; Page 24d © Mikael Eriksson; Page 25 © Bychkov Kirill Alexandrovich; Page 27 © Galyna Andrushko; Page 27 b © Galyna Andrushko; Page 29 © NASA; Page 29 b © USGS; Page 29c © USGS; Page 30 © NASA; Page 31 © Péter Gudella; Page 32 © Peter Wey; Page 33 © Natalia Bratslavsky; Page 33 © pmphoto; Page 34 © Vova Pomortzeff; Page 34b © Jaan-Martin Kuusmann; Page 35 © Miguel Angelo Silva; Page 35b © Photodisc; Page 36 © Allen Furmanski; Page 36b © US Department of the Interior; Page 36c © Dmcdevit; Page 36d © iofoto; Page 37 © Pichugin Dmitry; Page 37b © Richard Griffin; Page 38 © Jarno Gonzalez Zarraonandia; Page 38b © Manfred Steinbach; Page 38c © Viktoriya; Page 39 © Thomas Smolek; Page 39b © Adam Romanowicz; Page 39c © iofoto; Page 40 © salamanderman; Page 40b © William Attard McCarthy; Page 40c © Vova Pomortzeff; Page 41 © Naumov Roman; Page 41b © Nick Stubbs; Page 41c © Susan Ridley; Page 42 © Matej Krajcovic; Page 42b © Jack Dagley Photography; Page 43 © U.S. National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration; Page 44 © Carolina K. Smith; Page 45 © NASA; Page 45 © Robert A. Mansker; Page 47 © Diana Lundin; Page 48 © Ian Scott; Page 49 © FloridaStock; Page 49b © NASA; Page 50 © NASA; Page 50b © Sebastien Windal; Page 50c © Pres Panayotov; Page 51 © Povl E. Petersen; Page 51b © Valeriy Kalyuzhnyy; Page 51c © Piotr Sikora; Page 51d © Caleb Foster; Page 52 © Dariusz Urbanczyk; Page 52b © Pichugin Dmitry; Page 53 © Cristi Bastian; Page 53b © Dr. Morley Read; Page 53c © Brian McEntire; Page 54 © Brandon Stein; Page 54b © Steffen Foerster Photography; Page 55 © Igor Smichkov; Page 55b © Kaleb Timberlake; Page 56 © David Hyde; Page 56b © Andrea Booher; Page 57 © Sai Yeung Chan; Page 57b © Peter Zaharov.

Editor: Luana Mitten

Cover design by Nicola Stratford. Blue Door Publishing

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Rourke's world of science encyclopedia / Marcia Freeman ... [et al.]. v. cm. Includes bibliographical references and index. Contents: [1] Human life --ISBN 978-1-60044-646-7 1. Science--Encyclopedias, Juvenile. 2. Technology--Encyclopedias, Juvenile. I. Freeman, Marcia S. (Marcia Sheehan), 1937-Q121.R78 2008 503--dc22 2007042493

Volume 4 of 10 ISBN 978-1-60044-650-4 Printed in the USA

CG/CG



What Is Earth Science?

The Earth's Hemispheres	•	 •	•	•	
The Origin of Our Planet	•		•	•	
The Earth Today	•	 •	•	•	

The Parts of the Earth

The Earth's Layers	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Rocks	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
The Ocean	•	•									•	•
The Atmosphere	•	•									•	

Forces That Shape the Earth

Plate Tectonics	
Continental Drift	
Volcanos	
Earthquakes	
Glaciers	
Erosion	
Human Activities	

Veath	er.	•	•	•	•				•	•	•	•		•				•	•	
-------	-----	---	---	---	---	--	--	--	---	---	---	---	--	---	--	--	--	---	---	--

Wind
Clouds
Rain
Snow
Tornados
Hurricanes
The Seasons

The Ocean
Lakes and Rivers
Swamps and Marshes
Deserts
Prairies
Forests
Mountains

The Environment in Danger

Fires	
Deforestation	
Smog	
Acid Rain	
Global Warming	
	Fires Deforestation Smog Acid Rain Global Warming

People Who Study the Earth

Table of Contents

	•																									.4
																										.7
																										.8 .10
																										.13
																										.13
																										.16
																										.20 .22
																										.24
																										.25
																										.26
																										.28
																										.30
																										.32
																										.33
·	•••	•	·	• •	•	·	·	•••	•	·	·	•••	٠	·	•••	•	•	·	•••	٠	·	••	•	•	•••	.35
•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	.37
•		•	·	• •	•	•	·		•	•	•	•••	•	•	•••	•	•	•	•••	•	•	••	•	•	•••	.37
																										.38
																										.40
																										.41
																										.43
																										.44
•	•••	•	·	• •	•	•	·	•••	•	•	·	•••	·	·	•••	•	•	·	•••	·	·	••	•	•	••	.46
•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	.47
•	•••	٠	·	• •	•	·	·		٠	•	·		٠	•	•••	٠	٠	•	•••	٠	•	••	•	٠	••	.47
																										.49
																										.50
																										.51
																										.52
																										.53
•	•••	•	·	• •	•	•	·	•••	•	•	·	•••	٠	•	•••	•	•	·	•••	•	•	••	•	•	••	.55
																										.56
																										.56
																										.57
																										.57
																										.58
•	•••	•	•	• •	•	•	•	•••	•	•	·	•••	٠	•	••	•	•	•	••	•	•	•••	•	•	•••	.59
•		•		•							•	•		•	•	•		•	•	•	•			•		.62

Earth Science

Earth Science

Science

Physical

Geography

Limnology

Meteorology

What Is Earth Science?

As far as we know, Earth is the only place in the solar system that contains all the ingredients (liquid water, chemical building blocks, and an energy source) needed for life. All the living things we know of live on Earth. It is home to plants, animals, and humans. Everything on the planet needs everything else to survive. Earth scientists help us understand and value our unique home.

Earth science is the study of the Earth. It includes how the Earth works and its origin, structure, and physical features. The term Earth science is a general term



that includes all the sciences related to the Earth. It might surprise you that sciences like meteorology and oceanography are both Earth sciences.

EARTH SCIENCES		
Science	What Is Studied	
Glaciology	Glaciers and ice	
Geology	Solid matter including rocks and minerals	



Oceanography

Paleontology



EARTH SCIENCES

What Is Studied



Patterns and processes including weathering and erosion



Inland waters including lakes, ponds, rivers, streams, wetlands, and groundwaters

Atmosphere, including the weather



Oceans and seas

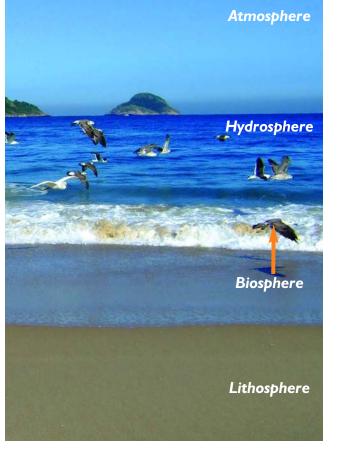


Fossils and prehistoric life

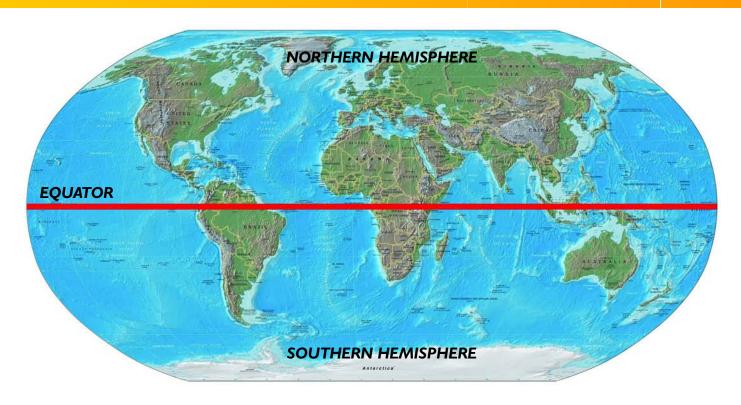
	EARTH SCIENCES		
Science	What Is Studied		
Pedology	Soil		
Volcanology	Volcanos, lava, and magma		

The Earth's shape is almost round like a ball, or sphere. But unlike a ball, the Earth is made of different parts. Scientists call these parts Earth's spheres. The four spheres are the lithosphere, hydrosphere, biosphere, and atmosphere. Hydro means water. Can you guess what part of Earth makes up the hydrosphere? The hydrosphere includes all forms of water under, on, and above Earth.

Earth's Spheres				
Atmosphere	= air			
Hydrosphere	= water			
Biosphere	= life			
Lithosphere	= land			



This photo shows all four Earth spheres.



The Earth's Hemispheres from the North Pole to the South Pole. We call this line Earth's axis. The axis tilts at 23.45 degrees. We call the top half of the Earth Earth rotates around the axis. The the Northern Hemisphere and the tilt of Earth's axis is why our bottom half the Southern seasons change. Hemisphere. The equator is an The seasons in the Southern imaginary line around the middle Hemisphere are opposite of the of Earth's surface separating the seasons in the Northern Northern Hemisphere from the Hemisphere. If it is winter in the Southern Hemisphere. Northern Hemisphere, it is summer At the top of the Northern in the Southern Hemisphere. Hemisphere is the North Pole. The South Pole is at the bottom of the planet in the Southern SUN Hemisphere. The closer you live to the equator, the warmer your weather. And the further away

from the equator you live, the colder your weather is.

EARTH

Another imaginary line runs through the center of the Earth

In this illustration, the Sun's rays shine more directly on the Southern Hemisphere, causing those below the equator to experience summer.

7

What Season Is It?				
Months (approximate range)	Northern Hemisphere Season	Southern Hemisphere Season		
December, January, February	Winter	Summer		
March, April, May	Spring	Fall		
June, July, August	Summer	Winter		
September, October, November	Fall	Spring		

Findert Did you know Earth really isn't a perfect sphere? Earth bulges slightly at the equator making the Earth a geoid. Earth rotates (spins) faster at the equator than at the poles because the poles are closer to Earth's axis. This is what causes the bulge.

The Origin of Our Planet

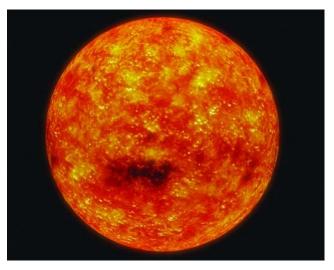
Scientists believe the Earth was created over 4.5 billion years ago. It came from a cloud of dust and gas swirling in space. Some of the dust and gas formed the Sun. The rest became planets in the solar system.



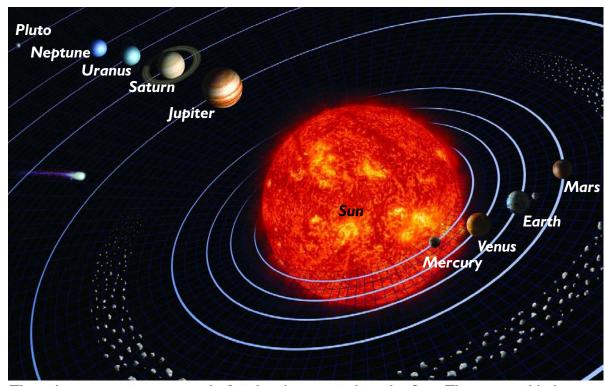
equator (i-KWAY-tur): an imaginary line around the middle of the Earth

pole (pohl): one of the two points that are farthest away from the equator, the North Pole or the South Pole

sphere (sfihr): a solid shape like a basketball or globe



The Sun is the star closest to Earth.



The solar system is composed of eight planets circling the Sun. The asteroid belt can be seen between the orbits of Mars and Jupiter. Pluto, once called the ninth planet, is now considered a dwarf planet.

The young Earth looked very different than it does today. Intens heat inside the growing planet caused molten, or liquid, rock to form. The hot surface slowly cooled over millions of years. Water vapor and other gases mad the atmosphere. Clouds covered the planet. Rain helped cool the hot surface. Cooling rocks slowly began to soak up the falling rain. When the ground could not hold any more water, oceans formed.

The land above the level of the ocean formed continents, and the continents have been moving and changing ever since. Sometimes the continents moved together forming a supercontinent before

se	separating again. Pangaea was the last supercontinent. When Pangaea separated, the continents moved into their current formation.			
e	Eurasia			
	7 SATTES C			
	North America			
	North America			
	2524 72			
	South America			
	India			
•	Antarctica			
	Antarctica Nostrilla			
	56			

The supercontinent Pangaea existed 250 million years ago.

9

The continents weren't the only thing changing. The clouds became thinner and sunlight could shine through. Heat and other forces inside the planet continued

GEOLOGIC TIMELINE

		Cenozoic Era	Quaternary 1.8 million years ago to today	
	Phanerozoic Eon 543 million years ago to present time	65 million years ago to present time	Tertiary 65 to 1.8 million years ago	
		Mesozoic Era 248 to 65 million years ago	Cretaceous 144 to 65 million years ago	
			Jurassic 206 to 144 million years ago	
			Triassic 248 to 206 million years ago	
		Paleozoic Era 540 to 548 million years ago	Permian 280 to 248 million years ago	
			Devonian 408 to 360 million years ago	
			Cambrian 540 to 500 million years ago	
	Precambrian Time	Proterozoic Eon 2.5 billion years ago to 540 million years ago		
	4.6 billion years ago to 543 million years ago	Archeozic Eon 3.9 billion years ago to 2.5 billion years ago		
		Hadean Eon 4.6 billion years ago to 3.9 billion years ago		

The Earth Today

From outer space, the Earth looks very blue. That is because water covers most of the planet. Nearly three quarters of the Earth's

surface is oceans, seas, lakes, rivers, and other bodies of water. The seven continents cover the rest of the planet.

changing the surface. Ice ages and

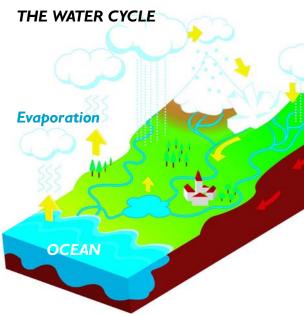
many living organisms came and

went. Over billions of years, the

Earth became the way it is today.



The ocean is the source of most between all the living and nonliving things in the environment. This of the water on the planet. It provides much of the water that includes everything from the air makes clouds in the sky. Water and soil to the plants and animals. rises up into the air when it evaporates. This means that it turns into a mist you cannot see. The water comes back down to the ground as rain. Rain fills the lakes, rivers, and streams on the land. Plants and animals need this water to survive.



The different environments of Earth support many different plants, animals, and other organisms. Deserts, prairies, forests, and mountains are all types of environments on the land. Oceans, lakes, rivers, and ponds are all types of water environments. Both water and land environments depend on a balance





Forests and mountains are types of land environments.



The ocean is a type of water environment.

Arctic

Ocea

Souti

North



The North and South Poles

Would you like to visit the North Pole? It probably is harder than you think.

There is no land at the North Pole, only huge moving sheets of ice in the middle of the Arctic Ocean. An American explorer, Robert E. Peary, is usually credited as being the first person to reach the North Pole on April 6, 1909. Peary, his trusted assistant, Matthew Henson, and four Eskimos traveled over the ice using dogsleds.

Even though the South Pole is on the continent Antarctica, it is still difficult to visit. A polar ice sheet that is about 9,000 feet (2,700 m) thick covers the land. The temperatures in the winter can get down to minus 76 degrees Fahrenheit (-60 degrees Celsius). It warms up to minus 18 degrees Fahrenheit (-28 degrees Celsius) during the summer. Now that's a cold place to visit!

Year round, scientists live and work at the Amundsen-Scott South Pole Station run by the United States. The station, named for polar explorers Roald Amundsen and Robert Scott, is important to research.



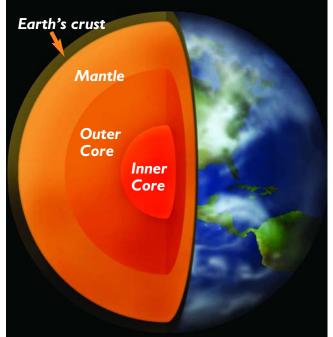
The Amundsen-Scott South Pole Station sits within 330 feet (100 meters) of the Geographic South Pole.

The Parts of the Earth

When studying the Earth, scientists look at the surface of the Earth and the parts that are above and below it. The atmosphere is a part above the surface while the core is a part below the surface. All of Earth's parts work together to make life possible.

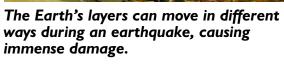
The Earth's Layers

Earth is a terrestrial planet, meaning that it is mostly made of rock. There are three major layers from the surface of the planet to its center. They are the crust, the mantle, and the core. The force of gravity pulls Earth's layers together.



The Earth has a solid inner core and a liauid outer core, which is the source of the Earth's magnetic field.

Studying how an earthquake wave moves is one important way scientists learn about the different materials in the Earth's layers. Scientists estimate that they can detect nearly 500,000 earthquakes each year in the world. Fortunately, only about 100 quakes cause damage on Earth's surface.





The Crust

The top layer of the Earth is the crust. Just like the crust on a loaf of bread, the Earth's crust covers the entire planet. This top layer is also the thinnest layer of the Earth.

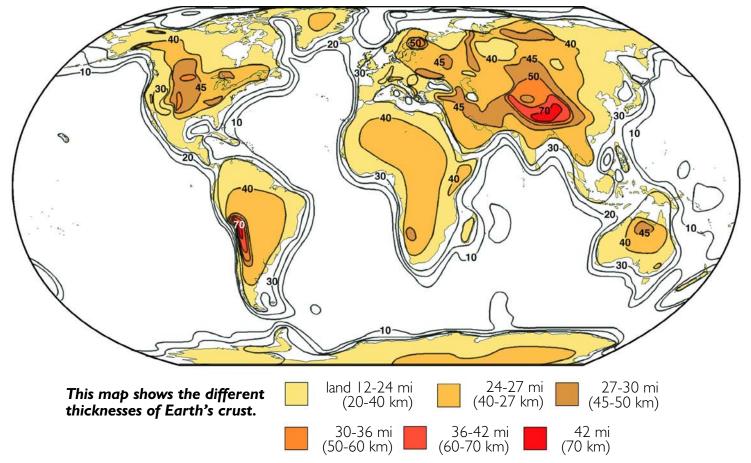
There are two types of crust. Under the oceans, the oceanic crust is 3-6 miles (5-10 km) thick. Below the tallest mountains, the continental crust can be over 40 miles (70 km) thick.

Forty miles sounds thick but if you compared the Earth to an apple, the crust is like the apple's peel. All life on the planet lives in or above the crust.

The Mantle

Below the crust is the mantle. The mantle is the thickest layer of the Earth. It goes down over 1,800 miles (2,900 km). Most of Earth's rocks are in the mantle. Rocks in the mantle are dense. This means that the rocks are packed closer together than rocks in the crust. They are under the weight of all the rocks on top of them.

The temperature in the mantle is very hot. Some rocks even melt and become molten. This molten rock is called magma. Sometimes magma comes to Earth's surface through volcanos. Lava is magma that has reached the surface of the Earth.





Lava oozes from an erupting volcano.



The deepest manmade hole in the Earth's crust is on the

Kola Peninsula in Russia. It is 7.6 miles (12.3 km) deep. Drilling began in 1970 and ended in 1992 because the temperature inside the Earth's crust was getting too hot. There were many different boreholes drilled from the main hole. The deepest borehole was drilled in 1989.

The reason for drilling into the Earth's crust was not for an oil well but for research. Scientists learned new information about the layers of

rock in Earth's crust from samples taken from the drill.

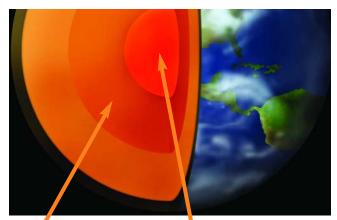


The Core

The middle of the Earth is the core. The core has two different layers. They are the inner core and the outer core.

The outer core is right below the mantle. It is a combination of the metals iron and nickel. There may even be sulfur in the outer core. The outer core is a liquid because it is so hot.

At the very center of the Earth is the inner core. The inner core is made of solid metal. It is also made of iron and nickel and is very hot. It is solid metal because the pressure is so high. If you were able to travel to Earth's core, the high pressure would squeeze you to be about the size of a pea.



Outer Core

Liquid
Mostly nickel and iron

- Temperatures from 4,000 to 9,000 degrees
- Fahrenheit (2,200-5,000 degrees Celsius) • 1,800-3,200 miles
- (2,897-5,150 km) deep

• Solid

- Mostly nickel and iron
- Temperatures reach 9,000 degrees Fahrenheit (5,000 degrees Celsius)
- 3200-3900 miles (5,150-6,276km) deep

Rocks

The Earth's crust is made of rocks. The substances that make up most rocks are minerals. The three basic kinds of rocks are igneous, metamorphic, and sedimentary.

Igneous Rocks

The most common type of rock is igneous rock. Another name for igneous rocks is fire rocks, because they form when magma cools. Magma is hot liquid rock that comes from the Earth's crust and the mantle.

Igneous rocks can form below Earth's surface or above it. Erupting volcanos bring magma to the surface. We call this magma lava. As the lava cools, it forms igneous rocks.

Metamorphic Rocks

All metamorphic rocks were once either igneous, sedimentary, or other metamorphic rocks. Heat and pressure caused the rocks to change form. When rocks change from one type of rock into another, they change mineral makeup and

texture. The process of rocks "morphing" from one form to another can take thousands of years.



Igneous Rocks

Granite is usually found in large slabs. It is very hard and tough. Its colors range from pink to dark gray or black.



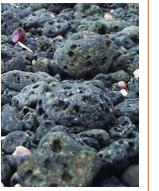
Pumice is very porous, or full of holes. It is usually white, but can be yellow, gray, brown, or dull red.



Obsidian is a type of naturallyoccurring glass. Its edges can be so thin and sharp that it was used in ancient times for weapons.



Basalt is a common rock it makes up most of the world's oceanic crust. It is usually dark gray in color.



Foliated Metamorphic Rocks (Made of many different minerals)



slate



schist



gneiss

Textures of Metamorphic Rocks

Non-Foliated Metamorphic Rocks (Usually made of one mineral)



marble



quartzite



serpentinite

Earth Science

Sedimentary Rocks

Sedimentary rocks form from sediments, or little bits, of other rocks. Over time, erosion and weathering cause little bits to wear off rocks. Then rain, streams, and rivers carry the little bits of rock until they settle on the bottom of rivers, lakes, seas, or the oceans. The layers of sediment build up on top of one another, pressing the bits of rock together. Slowly these layers turn into rock.

Sedimentary rocks form layers, or strata, in the Earth's crust. Strata near the surface are newer than those further underground. Each layer tells about the Earth's past. The different strata of sedimentary rock often hold fossils of plants, animals, and other organisms that lived long ago. We usually think of fossils looking like animal bones, shells, or plant leaves. But did you know that even a footprint could become a fossil?



This fossil, found in Colorado, is a footprint left by a duck-billed dinosaur that lived millions of years ago.

Limestone is produced from the mineral calcite (calcium carbonate) and sediment.



Shale rock is a type of sedimentary rock formed from clay.



THE GEOLOGIC TIME SCALE

Precambrian Era, from 4 billion to 540 million years ago.



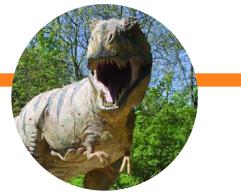
Simple life first appeared, such as bacteria and hard shelled animals.

Paleozoic Era, from 540 to 250 million years ago.



The earliest fish, reptiles, and land plants appeared.

Mesozoic Era, from 250 to 65 million years ago.



The dinosaurs appeared, and became extinct at the end of the era.

Sedimentary Rocks

Most sandstone is composed of quartz and/or feldspar.





Gypsum is a soft mineral composed of calcium sulfate dihydrate.



Cenozoic Era,

from 65 million years ago to the present.



Large mammals and humans evolved.

The Ocean

In the solar system, Earth is the only planet that has liquid water. Most of this water is in the ocean. The ocean's salty water covers nearly 70 percent of the Earth's surface. The first living things evolved in the ocean. Today, many more plants and animals live in the oceans than on the land.

Not only is the ocean home to lots of plants and animals, it is important to all life on our planet. Nearly 97 percent of the Earths water is in the ocean. The ocean affects the weather and temperature on Earth. In the summer, the ocean cools the land and air. In the winter, it warms them. How the ocean moves also has a big effect on life on land.



dense (DENSS): crowded, or thick

erode (i-RODE): to wear away by water and wind

geologic (jee-o-LOJ-ik): having to do with the study of soil and rock

mineral (MIN-ur-uhl): a natural substance, such as gold, quartz, or copper, that is not a plant or animal

pressure (PRESH-ur): the force produced by pressing on something

surface (SUR-fiss): the outside or outermost layer of something



Ninety-seven percent of the Earth's water is in its salty oceans, but most of the water we use is from freshwater sources.

Tides

Tides are the rising and falling of the ocean level near the shore. During high tides, the water level rises. During low tides, the water level falls. The Moon causes most of the tidal movement. The gravity of the Moon pulls the water in the ocean toward it. In most places, there are two high tides and two low tides each day.



At low tide, the ocean level lowers exposing more beach.

The Sun also affects the tides. It is larger than the Moon and has more gravity, but because the Sun is farther away, it does not pull on the oceans as strongly as the Moon. When the Sun, Moon, and Earth all line up, the gravitational pulls from the Sun and Moon work together making the tides higher.

Plants and animals near the shore spend their lives adapting to high and low tides. Land at the shores, called coastlines, is built up and torn down by the movement of the ocean tides.



Tide pools are formed as a high tide comes in over a rocky shore.

Waves

The movement of waves also changes the coastlines. Waves break up rocks, coral, and shells into smooth pieces of sand. The waves carry the sand to the land's coastline making beaches.

Many things make waves, including ship's wakes, earthquakes,





Waves erode rock.



Waves sculpt sandy beaches.

volcanos, and landslides. But most waves form from winds blowing across the water's surface. Stronger winds make bigger waves. Some strong winds in the middle of the ocean can make waves that hit a beach very far away.

We usually see waves crashing onto a beach, making us think that the water in a wave is moving forward. Waves in deep water are really the forward motion of energy, not the water. The water is only moving up and down.



Tsunamis

A tsunami (tsoo-NAH-mee) is a

destructive series of waves. Tsunamis are often called tidal waves, but they are not caused by tides. They can be caused by an underwater earthquake or by a volcano erupting beneath the ocean.

These waves can be small, but sometimes they are very large and cause great destruction. They can travel at a speed of almost 500 miles an hour, and reach heights of over 100 feet. Tsunamis are not like hurricanes that meteorologists track, allowing people to get out of harm's way. Tsunamis can arrive on land within fifteen minutes of a quake.



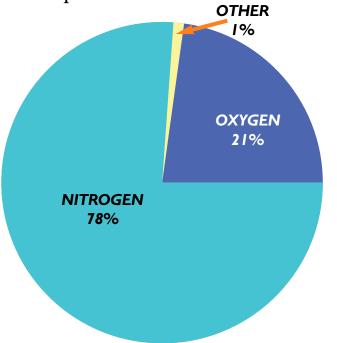
A tsunami caused by an earthquake in the Indian Ocean on December 26, 2004 killed as many as 200,000 people. It was one of the deadliest disasters in modern times. Because of this disaster, scientists are working to create better ways of detecting and warning people of approaching tsunamis.

The Atmosphere

An atmosphere is the layer of gases that covers the surface of a planet. Earth's atmosphere is about 600 miles (1,000 km) deep. It is very important to all plants and animals. It protects our planet from dangerous radiation from the Sun. It also provides gases that animals need to breathe and that plants need to make food.

Composition Of The Atmosphere

Earth's atmosphere is made mostly of nitrogen and oxygen, with small amounts of argon, carbon dioxide, hydrogen, methane, and other gases. Ash from volcanos, dust, and small drops of water called vapor are also in the atmosphere.



The Layers of the Atmosphere

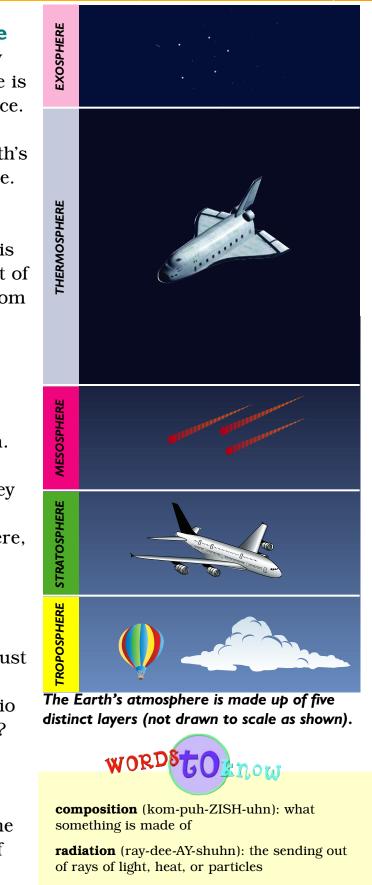
Earth's atmosphere has many different layers. The troposphere is the layer closest to Earth's surface. It is where most changes in the weather happen. Half of the Earth's atmosphere is in the troposphere.

Above the troposphere is the stratosphere. The stratosphere contains the ozone layer. Ozone is a form of oxygen that stops most of the Sun's ultraviolet radiation from reaching the lower part of the atmosphere. If you've flown on a commercial jet, you've probably been in the stratosphere. Pilots like to fly in the stratosphere because it is very clear and calm.

The mesosphere is the next layer up. Meteors burn up as they move through this layer.

Then, on top of the mesosphere, is the thermosphere. Space shuttles orbit the Earth in the thermosphere.

The exosphere is the highest layer in the atmosphere, and it just fades into space. Have you ever wondered why you get more radio stations at night than in the day? Well, thank the exosphere. The exosphere reflects radio waves. The Sun affects the exosphere's height. The changing height of the exosphere increases the range of radio stations after dark.



vapor (VAY-pur): fine particles of mist or steam

Forces That Shape the Earth

Many forces can form, or shape, the Earth. Some of these forces come from deep within the ground. Volcanos and earthquakes cause major changes to the landscape.

Other changes occur because of natural forces on the surface. Water and wind shape the planet every day. Human activity also plays a role in shaping the world.

Forces That Shape The Earth



Volcanos erupt when pressure builds; sending out lava, hot gases, and ash.



Earthquakes cause cracks that run deep into the Earth's crust.



Sandstorms move huge clouds of sand and dust from place to place.



Waves erode rock, sand, and sometimes, man-made structures.

Plate Tectonics

It's difficult to imagine entire tectonics is the idea that the continents moving, but they do. The Earth's crust is not all one plates. piece. It is broken up into 16 huge Plates come together to form pieces and several smaller ones ridges on land and underwater. called tectonic plates. These plates They form trenches where they make up all the Earth's dry land separate from one another. and the ocean floor.

A plate grows bigger on one edge The tectonic plates move at the where new igneous rock forms. rate of about four inches (10 cm) a The other edge of the plate slides year. That may not seem like under or on top of another plate.



Plate tectonics causes earthquakes to shake, volcanos to erupt, mountains to grow, and continents to move.

much, but over hundreds of millions of years, the plates have moved long distances. Plate lithosphere is made of slow moving

South American ustralian plate

This map shows the world's tectonic plates. Can you find the continents drawn in lighter colors?

continent (KON-tuh-nuhnt): one of the seven large land masses of the Earth

ridge (rij): a narrow, raised strip

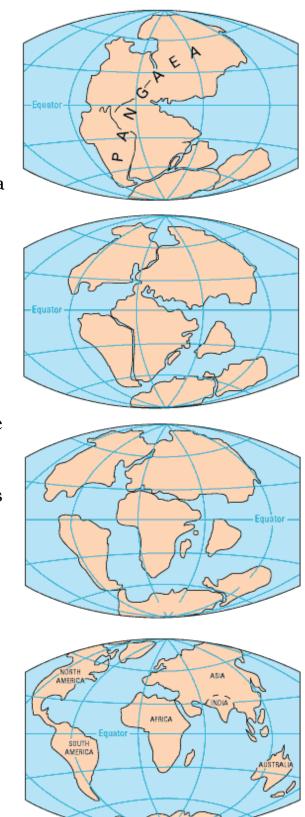
trench (trench): a long, narrow ditch

Continental Drift

Throughout Earth's history, the continents have connected and separated. The last time all the continents were connected they made one huge continent, Pangaea. Pangaea means "all lands". Pangaea broke up about 200 million years ago. Its pieces drifted apart over time. They created the continents as we know them today. Continental drift is the process of the continents shifting relative to one another.

Plate tectonics cause the continents to drift. The giant trenches created from this drift are called rift valleys. The plates on which the continents sit spread away from these valleys. The plates move apart as new material from within the Earth comes up.

In some places, an ocean plate will slide below a continental plate. Mountains are often pushed up along the plate that stays on top. The Andes in South America formed this way. Sometimes, two continental plates collide. This causes the plates to crumple and high mountains to form. India collided with Asia and formed the Himalayas.





The Himalayas contain the three highest mountains on Earth.

There are actually more Earth's longest mountain range, the Mid-Atlantic Ridge sits in the mountains under the water than there are above the water. Many of middle of the Atlantic Ocean these mountains are taller than the between South America and Africa. ones we see above the water.



Alfred Wegener was born in Germany in 1880. He dreamed of exploring Greenland and the Arctic. In school, Wegener studied astronomy, meteorology, and geophysics, the study of the forces that shape the Earth. He fought in World War I and

was wounded twice.

Wegener is best known for his ideas about continental drift. He looked at a map of the world and noticed the similar shapes of the coasts of Africa and South America. Wegener suggested that they were once joined and then drifted apart. In 1924, he published his theories in the book The Origin of Continents and Oceans. Wegener died in 1930. It was not until the 1960's that discoveries confirmed that continental drift really happens.

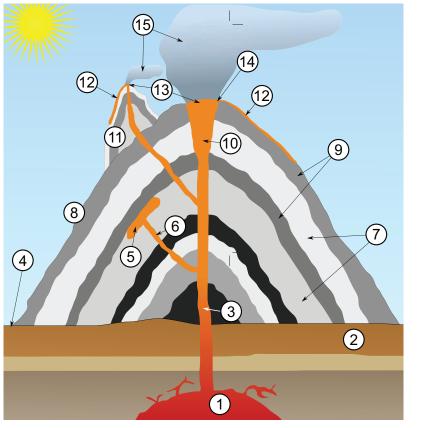
The Hawaiian Islands are actually mountain tops poking above the waterline.

Alfred Wegener

Volcanos

A volcano is a hole or vent in the Earth where hot rock and gas come out. Magma deep within the Earth puts pressure on weak areas of the crust. The magma melts away rock and creates hot gases. The gas and magma come together many miles underground in the magma chamber. Pressure builds. The volcano erupts when the pressure becomes high enough.

An eruption sends out lava, hot gases, and ash. Lava is magma that reaches the surface. Volcanos erupt

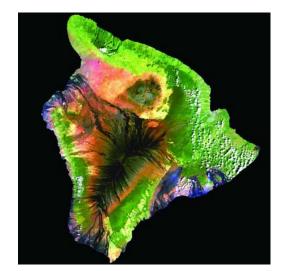


in many ways. Some volcanos send out towers of lava and clouds of ash. Other volcanos ooze rivers of lava. Many volcanos explode violently.

Volcanos usually occur on or near the edges of the plates in the crust. They often erupt when the plates move.

Volcanos in the ocean can create islands. The islands of Hawaii formed this way.

- Large magma chamber
- Bedrock 2.
- 3. Conduit (pipe)
- Base
- Sill 5.
- Branch pipe 6.
- Layers of ash emitted by 7. the volcano
- Flank 8.
- 9. Layers of lava emitted by the volcano
- 10. Throat
- **II.** Parasitic cone
- 12. Lava flow
- 13. Vent
- 14. Crater
- 15. Ash cloud



more

Mount St. Helens

In May of 1980, the volcano Mount St. Helens erupted in Washington

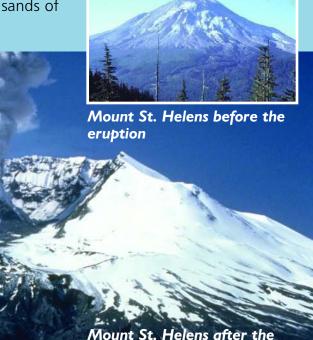
State. It had been dormant for over 120 years. For several months, earthquakes shook the mountain. Steam was seen shooting out of the top. Then on May 18, 1980, the north side of the mountain collapsed. Mount St. Helens erupted! Hot magma and ash began gushing out. The eruption lasted nine hours.

Before it was over, lava and ash covered 230 square miles of land. Fifty-seven human lives were lost. The eruption destroyed thousands and thousands of acres of forest. It also killed thousands of forest animals and millions of fish.



Volcanos on land sometimes make mountains. Active volcanos still erupt sometimes. Dormant volcanos have not erupted in a long time, but might. Extinct volcanos will never erupt again.

The island of Hawaii was created by volcanic eruptions.



eruption

29

Earth Science

Earthquakes

An earthquake is an event that causes the ground to shake. A sudden movement of the Earth's crust causes an earthquake. This releases energy within the ground.

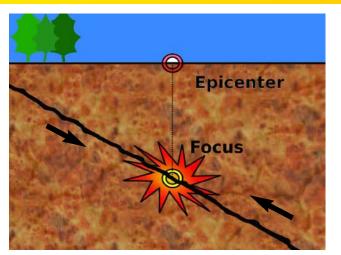
How Earthquakes Happen

When tectonic plates collide, they can cause the Earth's crust to crack. These cracks, called faults, usually run along the edges of the plates. A few are in the middle of the plates. Most faults run deep into the crust.

The rocks on both sides of the fault fit tightly together. They bend as stress builds up because of continental drift. If the stress gets strong enough, the rocks suddenly snap back into shape. They release shock waves of energy. The shock waves reach the surface of the Earth. The land starts to shake. An earthquake has begun.

The focus of the earthquake is the point where the stress releases. The epicenter is the place on the Earth's surface directly above the focus.

The San Andreas Fault is the best known fault in North America. It runs through California for 800 miles (1,300 km). It was the cause of the Great San Francisco



Earthquake of 1906. The earthquake caused massive fires and terrible destruction. It was one of the worst natural disasters ever



The San Andreas fault marks a boundary where two tectonic plates meet.

to hit the United States.

Many people think of fault lines occurring near the edges of continents. In fact, faults can occur anywhere. If you live in the Southern or Midwestern United States, you might live near the New Madrid Fault Line.

Measuring Earthquakes

Seismologists, scientists who study earthquakes, have several ways to measure them. If you've heard a news report on an earthquake, you've probably heard of the Richter Scale. The Richter Scale describes the
strength, or magnitude, of an
earthquake. It is named after
American scientist Charles Richter.The Richter Scale ranges from
1 to 10. Each number of the scale
stands for a tenfold increase in the
strength of an earthquake. An
earthquake that registers five on
the scale is ten times worse than
an earthquake with a magnitude
of four.

	Measurements
Earthquake Magnitude	Effects
1-3	Can be reco causes damUsually not
3-6	 Can be felt Damage is u Some build
6-9+	 Is felt by hu Can cause g An earthqua cause dama Anything gr damage ove

The Mercalli Scale measures how much the Earth shakes. It is named after Italian scientist Giuseppe Mercalli. Earthquakes with Mercalli intensity of I (one) are not felt. Special instruments detect them. Those with an intensity of XII (twelve) cause total destruction of cities and change the Earth's surface.

s on the Richter Scale

orded on a seismograph, but rarely nage t felt by humans

by humans usually minor lings can be affected

umans great damage ake with a magnitude over six can age for 100 miles reater than eight can cause severe er an area of hundreds of miles



This once-sturdy structure was completely destroyed by an earthquake.

Glaciers

Glaciers are big sheets of ice. About 75 percent of the worlds fresh water is stored in glaciers. When layer upon layer of snow compresses into ice, glaciers form. Glacier ice is not like the ice that forms in the winter and melts in summer on a lake. The ice from glaciers does not melt away from season to season. Glaciers cover about 10 percent of Earth's land area.

Glacial ice is always moving. It advances, and then retreats. Glaciers begin to move as the ice builds up and becomes denser. Glaciers slowly move down hills and valleys like a river of ice. They can carry huge rocks with them. They often carve deep valleys as they move. Glaciers make mountain peaks and ridges sharper. They also make valley walls steeper. Three glaciers around a mountain in Switzerland created a peak called the Matterhorn.

Glaciers in the Ice Ages

Glaciers covered more of the Earth at various times in the past. We call these ice ages. The temperature of the planet became much colder during the ice ages.



The steep faces of the Matterhorn, in Switzerland, make it difficult for much ice and snow to build up.

During the last ice age, huge glaciers covered about 32 percent of the total land area. Water levels in the oceans dropped over 300 feet (about 100 meters) as glaciers grew. The landscape was changed when the glaciers melted.

Glaciers Today

Today, many glaciers are small. You may see one in a mountain valley where it stays cold and shady. The largest glaciers are in Antarctica and Greenland. These huge masses of ice are continental glaciers. They are so big that they cool the air and water far away from the glacier.

North America has about 29,000 square miles (75,000

square kilometers) of glaciers. Can you guess what state most of the glaciers are in? If you guessed Alaska, you're right!



This Alaskan glacier appears blue because the ice absorbs all colors of the visible light spectrum except blue.

Erosion

Sunlight, wind, rain, and snow all cause the Earth's surface to change, or break down, over time. We call this erosion.

Weathering

Weather causes the most erosion. Wind, rain, and frost make many rocks fall apart. Chemical weathering is erosion affecting the chemical structure of things.

Water Erosion

Water in all forms causes erosion. Ocean waves can erode sand from beaches, create bays, hollow out caves, and change

shorelines. Rain often washes away loose topsoil. Rain can sometimes make hillsides very wet and cause landslides. Over time, rivers sometimes wear away rocks and form valleys and canyons. The Grand Canyon formed over millions of years. The sides of the canyon wall show many layers of sedimentary rock.



A view of the Grand Canyon shows the layers of sedimentary rock.



compress (kuhm-PRESS): to squeeze something so it fits in a smaller space

landscape (LAND-skape): a large area of land that you can view from one place

valley (val-ee): an area of low ground between two hills or mountains

bay (bay): a portion of the ocean that is partly enclosed by land

canyon (KAN-yuhn): a narrow, deep river valley with steep sides

topsoil (TOP-soil): the top or surface layer of soil

Wind Erosion

Wind can also change landscapes dramatically. Sand and dust grind down the surfaces of rocks and other objects they blow across. Strong winds can change the shape of piles of sand, called dunes, in deserts and on beaches.



With very little plant life to help hold the sand in place, these dunes will shift with the wind.



Caves

Sometimes, erosion takes place underground. Caves often form because of streams that flow underground. The stream flows just above the water table. The water table is the level at which the ground is made completely wet, or saturated, by water. When the water table goes down, an empty cave, or cavern, is left. Caves are holes that run horizontally underground. The longest cave system is in the United States in Kentucky. Mammoth Cave is 348 miles (560 km) long.

When water drips through the rocks above the cave, mineral deposits form on the cave's roof. They create stalactites that hang down like icicles from the top of the cave. More deposits form as the water drips down to the cave's floor. Eventually, deposits on the floor will form a stalagmite that comes up from the floor of the cave. A column forms when a stalactite and a stalagmite meet.

An easy way to remember the difference between a stalactite and a stalagmite is, a stalactite "holds tight" to a cave's roof so it doesn't fall!

The inside of a cave shows stalactites and stalagmites.

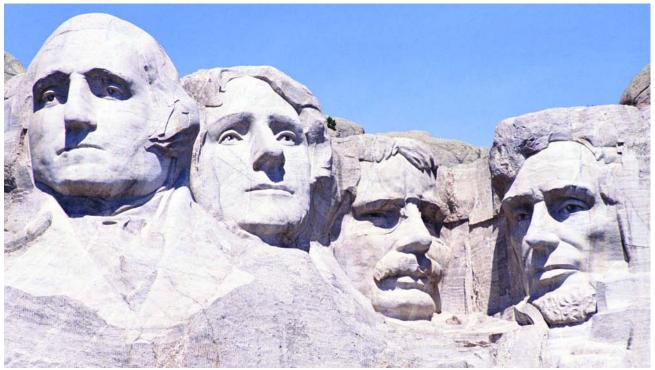


Human Activities

Natural forces have always shaped the Earth. Only recently in Earth's history have people helped shape it, too.

Humans can change the surface of the Earth in many ways. Mountains are flattened, and valleys are filled in. Sometimes, people dig caves in mountains, called mines, to bring out minerals. Cars. trucks. and trains travel through tunnels in mountains. People may carve mountains into monuments, like Mount Rushmore in South Dakota.

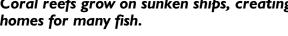
Under the sea, coral reefs form on the wrecks of sunken ships.



The faces of George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, Theodore Roosevelt, and Abraham Lincoln gaze down from Mount Rushmore in South Dakota.

They provide a new place for sea creatures to live. We construct harbors and walls (breakwaters) by moving piles of dirt and rocks into the ocean. Breakwaters prevent waves from destroying ships.

Coral reefs grow on sunken ships, creating homes for many fish.





Earth Science

We dig canals to link two bodies of water. Some canals are small. Other canals, like the Panama Canal, are big enough for huge freighters. The Panama Canal connects the Atlantic Ocean and the Pacific Ocean.



The Panama Canal, completed in 1914, is 51 miles long.

We move rivers to provide water to areas that do not have enough. Aqueducts change the flow of the water. The Central Arizona Project (CAP) aqueduct is 336 miles long.



An aerial photo of the Colorado River also gives a view of the surrounding landscape.

It brings water from the Colorado River to parts of central and southern Arizona.

Sometimes we build dams across rivers. These dams create lakes and provide energy to communities. Hydroelectric energy is electricity made using the power of water.



Arizona residents appreciate the water the CAP aqueduct brings.



Dams change the landscape and affect the plants and animals that live in the area.

Weather

We talk about the weather every day, but what exactly is it? We can define it as the state of the atmosphere. The amount of wind, the temperature, the moisture, and cloudiness are some of the things that make up weather.



A thunderstorm rolls in over the grasslands.

Weather affects many things on Earth. Weather extremes usually have a negative effect on people and the environment. Normal weather has a positive effect. Plants and animals need water to survive, but too much water can be a problem. When the usual weather (climate) changes, some plants and animals cannot adapt to the changes and will die off. Weather can be powerful and even dangerous.



Wind



Wind is moving air. Changes in

pressure in the atmosphere create

affect pressure. Warm air expands

and rises. There is low pressure in

areas with warm air. Cold air is heavier. There is high pressure in areas with cold air. A barometer

measures air pressure.

this movement. Temperatures

A barometer helps predict changes in the weather.



climate (KLYE-mit): the usual weather in a place
extreme (ek-STREEM): one of two ends or opposites, as in wet and dry
moisture (MOIST-chyer): the amount of water in the air
normal (NOR-muhl): usual or regular

Earth Science

Earth Science

moi

instruments.

Measuring the Wind

You can measure the speed of the wind and its direction with different weather

A weather vane usually looks like a rooster. The rooster's head points in the direction the wind is coming from.

A wind sock measures both the speed and direction of the wind. It points the way the wind is blowing. As wind speed increases, the wind sock moves upwards.

An anemometer measures wind speed. Its cups catch the wind and cause the device to spin. The faster it spins, the greater the wind speed.



Winds that blow across deserts are usually warm. Winds that blow across mountains are often cold. especially when there is snow. The wind chill factor is how much colder it feels outside when a cold wind is blowing.

Some winds happen only in smaller areas like cities. towns. canyons, and valleys. These winds are low to the ground. Other winds occur across very large areas like continents and oceans. These winds are higher up in the atmosphere. They move clouds. Jet streams are fast winds high in the sky.

A breeze is a light wind. It may move leaves and flags. A sudden stronger wind is a gust. Strong winds can knock over trees and power lines.

Clouds

Clouds form when moisture on the Earth's surface evaporates. It rises into the air where it is too cold to stay as mist. The moisture sticks to particles like dust to make drops of water or crystals of ice. Many drops of water form a cloud.

The moisture in the cloud either evaporates or falls back down as precipitation. Mist, rain, hail, snow,

and sleet are all types of precipitation.

Clouds come in many shapes and sizes. Fog is a large cloud that touches the ground. It can be thick and hard to see through. Cloud names come from Latin words that describe how a cloud looks when we're looking up at it.

Cumulus Clouds

Cumulus means heap. These clouds are tall and puffy like cotton. They can start near the ground and extend far up into the sky.



Cumulus clouds usually mean fair weather.

Strong updrafts can change cumulus clouds into thunderclouds. Thunderclouds give off electricity in the form of lightning. A flash of lightning makes the surrounding air expand, which causes a loud sound called thunder. A thundercloud does not always bring rain.

If you visit Florida in the summer months, be prepared for almost daily thunderstorms. Florida has more thunderstorms than any other place in the United States.



Storm clouds warn of stormy weather on its way.

Cirrus Clouds

Cirrus means curl of hair. These clouds are thin and wispy. They are high in the atmosphere. This is the most common type of cloud.



Cirrus clouds are formed of ice crystals.

Stratus Clouds

Stratus means layer. These clouds form a large layer or sheet in the sky. They are usually low in the sky. They rarely bring precipitation.



Stratus clouds look like a soft blanket covering the sky.

Nimbus Clouds

Nimbus means rain. These clouds are dark because they are full of water. Nimbus clouds bring precipitation.



Nimbus clouds mean rain, snow, hail, or sleet is on its way.

Rain

Rain is water that falls from the sky. Rain can be very small drops of water that are almost like mist. It can include some larger drops. We call this sprinkles or drizzle. Showers are short periods of rain that can be heavier. A downpour is a heavy, often sudden rain. A rain storm has heavy rains and, often, strong winds.



A summer rainstorm is refreshing.

A thunderstorm also has lightning and thunder. You can tell the distance to a thunderstorm by counting. We see lightning instantly, but the sound of thunder takes several seconds to reach us.

When you are near a thunderstorm, watch for a flash of lightning and count until you hear

thunder. Every five seconds is a mile, and every three seconds is a kilometer.



Lightning illuminates a stormy sky.

Heavy rains can cause damage to houses and nature and can hurt people. This is especially true if it rains constantly over a long time or if it rains a lot very quickly. A flood happens when water rises in rivers or lakes and flows over land that is usually dry. The water in a flood can rise slowly or move very fast, like a river.

A flash flood is a flood that happens quickly in a low lying area. The ground cannot absorb the huge amounts of falling rain fast enough. There is little time for warnings. Flash floods can cover houses, wash away roads and bridges, and drown people.

Sometimes, a hillside gets too much rain and cannot soak up any more water. The top layer of soil falls down causing a mudslide.



A mudslide carries debris to the road below.

Snow

Rain often starts out as ice crystals high in the atmosphere. The crystals melt into raindrops if the air on the way down is above freezing. The crystals stay as snow if the air on the way down is below freezing. Snow is falling water in the form of ice flakes.



Snow falls on a forest of fir trees.

A lot of snow may fall in an area. Snow can block roads and your door. Being snowed in means you cannot get outside because there is so much snow on the ground.



A heavy snowfall can make it difficult to get around.

Snowflakes

Every snowflake is a little different from the rest. They all have six sides, but some also have needles, stars, or other shapes. Snowflakes all have six sides because of the chemical formula for water (H₂O). Larger snowflakes form when the temperature is near freezing. The snowflakes are wet and stick together as they fall through the sky. Smaller snowflakes form when the air is colder.



Under a microscope's lens, it is easier to see the different shapes snowflakes can form.

Sleet and Hail

Sleet is made of frozen raindrops that bounce when they hit the ground. Hail is made of larger frozen raindrops. Hail can fall during thunderstorms. Most pieces of hail are small, but some can be the size of a golf ball or bigger. Large hail can damage crops and even hurt people.



This golf ball-sized hail fell from thunderclouds.



Avalanches

Snow builds up in layers on the side of a mountain. Avalanches

happen when there is more snow than the slope of the mountain can hold or when one layer of snow slides across the surface of another layer. The snow suddenly slides down causing an avalanche.

An avalanche can bury people. Sometimes this happens to skiers or hikers. Because of this, ski resorts sometimes set off explosives in the mountains to cause small avalanches when no one is around. This prevents snow from building up into a large avalanche when people are on the mountain.

Tornados



A tornado is a fast moving, violent storm. The wind spins very fast and looks like a funnel. Sometimes people call tornados a twister or whirlwind. Water spouts are tornados occurring over water.

A tornado usually forms inside a thundercloud. Areas of cold air pull in warm, moist air. This makes an area of low pressure. A cloud turns around the low pressure. It makes a spinning cone called a funnel. The funnel usually stays in the air, but it can hit the ground, or touch down, suddenly.



The tornado is the thin tube reaching from the cloud to the ground.

Small tornados may break tree branches and street signs. Larger ones can break windows, pull up trees, flip over cars, and knock down walls. The biggest tornados can destroy houses and other buildings. They can kill many people.

Tornados can occur all over the world but most occur in the United States. Tornado Alley, an area from Texas to Nebraska, has had many very destructive tornados. Texas, Florida, and Oklahoma have the most tornados each year. Cold air from the north and warm air from the Gulf of Mexico meet in these places.



Tornado Alley, circled in white, is an area where tornados frequently occur.

The Fujita scale rates a tornados force. An F0 is a small gale tornado. An F5 or F6 tornado destroys everything in its path.

Meteorologists have developed tools and warning systems, giving people a chance to get to a safe place. A tornado watch means that weather conditions are right for a tornado to form. A tornado warning means there is immediate danger and you should move to a safe place quickly.



Vilhelm Bjerknes

Vilhelm Bjerknes was born in Norway in 1862. He worked with his father, a physicist who studied the motion of fluids called hydrodynamics.

Bjerknes studied the atmosphere and the oceans. His ideas helped start meteorology, the science of the atmosphere and weather. Vilhelm's son, Jacob Bjerknes, became a meteorologist and worked with his father to set up weather stations to collect information. Their results suggested the polar front theory to explain how a cyclone forms. A front is the area between different masses of air. Bjerknes said that cyclones happen where warm and cold fronts meet.

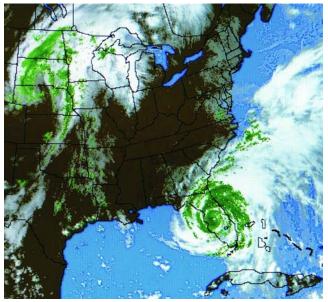
The Bjerknes crater on the moon was named in his honor.

Hurricanes

Hurricanes and typhoons are both tropical cyclones. Tropical cyclones are powerful storms that form in places near the equator, or the tropics. Whether a tropical cyclone is called a typhoon or hurricane depends on where it is located. A tropical cyclone west of the International Date Line is a typhoon. A tropical cyclone east of the International Date Line is a hurricane.

A tropical cyclone always forms over water. It begins as a tropical depression. Then it becomes a tropical storm spinning around an area of low pressure.

A tropical storm becomes a hurricane when the winds reach high speeds of about 74 miles (119 kilometers) per hour. It usually lasts from five to seven days and slows down when it reaches land. A hurricane often brings rain, lightning, and a storm surge in addition to its strong winds. A storm surge is the water pushed from the ocean inland.



This large hurricane covers most of the state of Florida.

Hurricane Categories						
Category	Wind speed	Storm surge				
1	74-95 mph (121-153 kph)	3-5 feet (1-1.7 m)				
2	96-110 mph (154-178 kph)	6-8 feet (1.8-2.6 m)				
3	111-130 mph (178-210 kph)	9-12 feet (2.7-3.8 m)				
4	131-155 mph (210-249 kph)	13-18 feet (3.9-5.6 m)				
5	More than 155 mph (more than 249 kph)	19 feet or more (more than 5.7 m)				

The center of the hurricane is the eye. Clouds spin around the eye and carry a lot of moisture. Inside the eye of a hurricane, it is strangely calm. There may be sunshine, warmer air, and almost no wind. Some people in the eye of the hurricane think that the storm is over, but the second part will come in a few minutes or hours.



Strong hurricanes can destroy buildings and boats and can kill many people. The worst hurricanes often form in the Atlantic Ocean. They cause a lot of damage on Caribbean islands and in the southern and eastern United States.



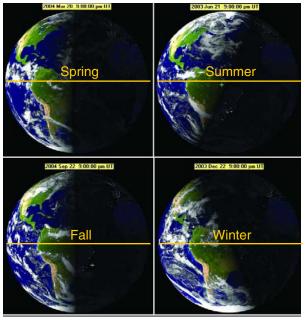
A hurricane completely destroyed this home.

The Seasons

The earth tilts, or leans, in one direction as it orbits the Sun. It rotates like a spinning top as it moves through space. Half of the Earth tilts toward the Sun. The Northern Hemisphere gets more sunlight when the Earth is on one side of the Sun. There, summer has long days and hot temperatures. Not as much sunlight reaches the Southern Hemisphere.

Half a year later, the Southern Hemisphere receives more sunlight and has warmer weather. At this time, it is winter in the Northern Hemisphere.

The equator receives nearly the same amount of heat from the Sun



Photos from space show the position of Earth in relation to the Sun's light at the start of spring, summer, fall, and winter in the Northern Hemisphere.

year round. There are no seasons on the equator. The changes in seasons are greater the farther north or south you get from the equator.

The North and South Poles have only two seasons. The Sun never rises during the middle of winter. The Sun never sets during most of the summer. Much of the United States and southern Canada has



four seasons every year.

Weather Forecasting

"What will the weather be like today?" People want to know if it will be warm or cold, if it will be windy, or if it might rain or snow. The answers help them decide what to wear or whether to go outside at all. A meteorologist is someone who studies the weather and tries to answer these questions. Weather forecasting is the science of predicting what the weather will be like for that day or for the next few days.

Meteorologists measure the air's temperature, pressure, and amount of moisture, or humidity. They measure the direction and speed of the wind. They also watch pictures of the Earth's weather taken by satellites in space. These pictures can follow storms and show where they are going. Meteorologists use all of this information to make a weather report about what will happen.

Habitats

Life on Earth is delicate. Ther needs to be a balance between th environment and living things.

A habitat is where certain type of animals and plants usually liv Some habitats are as small as the shade under a rock. Most habita are larger areas. They may conta many species of plants and animals. Many kinds of plants and animals can only survive in a specific habitat. Look around you. What plants and animals live in your habitat?

The Ocean

The ocean has many different habitats. Some fish swim down in the deepest parts of the ocean where it is very dark. Other fish spend their lives swimming near the top.

Tide Pools

Many plants and animals live near the shore in tide pools. Whe the tide comes in, saltwater pour into the tide pools. When the tide goes out, most of the water leave exposing the tide pool to the air.

A tide pool is a very tough environment. Animals living in tide

re	pools must be able to live on land
he	and in water. They must be strong
	enough to keep from washing out
bes	to sea with the tide. They also
ve.	must adjust to the waves that
he	crash over them. Many of the
ats	animals that live there have hard
ain	shells to protect them.



Sea stars cling onto the rocks of a tide pool.

Some animals that live in tide pools are sea anemones, crabs, mussels, sea stars, snails, sea urchins, and whelks.

Coral Reefs

	Many different creatures live in
en	coral reefs. Coral is not a plant but
rs	an animal. Colonies of coral
e	provide homes for many small
es,	fish. They swim in and out of the
	coral to protect themselves from
	larger fish looking for a meal.
ide	

Earth Science

Earth Science

Some parts of the oceans change temperature. A condition called El Niño is when a large pa of the Pacific Ocean off the west coast of South America becomes warmer than usual. A condition called La Niña is when the same part of the Pacific Ocean become colder than usual. These changes can affect the weather around the world. Temperature changes can cause some types of fish to die. When this happens, mammals an fish that eat other fish may also die or migrate somewhere else to look for food.

Lakes and Rivers

Lakes and rivers are areas of freshwater. This means that their water is not salty, like the ocean. Lakes and rivers are not just home to fish living in the water. Many other animals live on the land surrounding the lakes. Water fowl are birds that live near water. Many birds such as bald eagles dive into the water to catch fish.



Bald Eagles are skilled at catching fish.



Many varieties of coral grow in the warm waters of the Great Barrier Reef.

The Great Barrier Reef off the coast of Northeast Australia is the largest reef system in the world. It is made of nearly 3,000 reefs and 900 islands. The reef system is in the Coral Sea and is more than 1,600 miles (2,600 km) long. Many forms of sea life from the tiniest of fish to large sharks live there.

Many people travel to Australia to visit this natural wonder.

The Open Ocean

Many sea creatures live in the open ocean. Some live close to the surface because they need sunlight. Seaweed needs light for photosynthesis. Photosynthesis is how plants convert sunlight into food. Seaweed never grows deep where light cannot reach it. Other creatures have adapted to live deep under the sea where there is very little light and enormus pressure. Some deepwater creatures have no eyes.



Cave fish do not have eyes. They live in darkness so they do not need them.





Jacques Cousteau

Jacques Cousteau was born in France in 1910. He joined

the French navy in 1930. Cousteau tested how long he could hold his breath underwater. He wanted to go on long dives. At that time, big diving suits and hoses were used for breathing underwater. They did not work well. Cousteau helped develop the aqua-lung. It was a device for controlling the flow of gases on a small tank of air.

Cousteau studied the world under the ocean. He used a ship called the Calypso as his laboratory. He explored sunken ships on the ocean floor. He filmed sea animals like sharks, whales, dolphins, and turtles. He went more than one mile, or kilometer, down into the ocean.

Lakes

1	A lake is a body of water that is
art	contained within land. Some lakes
	are very large and deep. For
5	example, the Great Lakes in North
	America are almost like small
•	oceans. Other lakes are small and
es	shallow.
s	Different lakes can have very
le	different temperatures. They can
1	have different mixtures of
	chemicals. These things depend on
nd	the surrounding climate and the
	source of the water that flows into
0	the lake. Lakes getting water from
	mountain streams of melted snow
	can be very cold.



The Great Lakes can be seen from space. Lake Superior, on the far left, is the largest and deepest of the five lakes.

Rivers

Rivers can be large or small. The Mississippi River in the United States, the Nile in Egypt, and the Amazon in South America are very large, wide rivers. They flow very quickly and have strong currents.

All rivers have a source. It may be a spring, a lake, or even melting

glacial water. From its source, a river always flows downhill, ending in another body of water such as a lake or an ocean. Estuaries are the point a river habitat meets with coastal waters. Estuaries tend to be areas teeming with life.



Swamps and Marshes

Water is always covering the soil of swamps and marshes. Frequent rains or poor drainage causes this to happen. These habitats are very important for the environment. Many types of animals live in swamp and marsh areas.



Cypress trees have knees that grow up out of the water. The knees help provide oxygen to the tree's roots.

The blanket of plants growing in them prevents the soil from washing away. The water also makes dead material decay faster and keeps the soil healthy. Another name for these habitats is wetlands. Some wetlands are huge and cover a lot of land, such as the Everglades in Florida.

Swamps and marshes are very muddy. Swamps have more woody plants, while marshes have more grasses.



The grasses of this marsh provide habitats to many life forms.

Saltwater fills some marshes. Saltwater marshes are often flooded by the ocean. The plants and animals in them must be able to live in different levels of water and salt. Other marshes have freshwater. Reeds often grow in freshwater marshes.

Another type of marsh is a bog. It starts out as a freshwater marsh. Then moving water washes away the nutrients in the soil. The soil left behind contains a lot of acid. Mosses grow well in bogs.



The soil in bogs has so much plant matter in it that it can be dried and used for fuel.

Deserts

Many people think that deserts are dry places where it is always hot and it never rains. A few deserts are like that, but most are not. Deserts often get several inches of rain every year. This rain may fall in only one short period. Some deserts have flash floods when too much rain falls at once. Other deserts have an oasis, an area with more water where trees and other green plants can grow.



This desert is hot in the daytime and cold at night because there is little moisture in the air to moderate the temperatures.

An oasis is a welcome sight to desert travelers.

Temperatures in deserts can be very hot during the day and very cold at night. The Gobi Desert in eastern Asia can drop 58 degrees Fahrenheit (32 degrees Celsius) in a 24 hour period.

Some deserts have hills or ridges of sand called dunes. These sand dunes are shaped by the wind.

Most deserts are much more than sand. Many plants and animals live in these conditions. Animals like lizards and rabbits dig, or burrow, underground to escape the heat. Other animals only move around at night when it is cooler.



This lizard has adapted to life in a desert.



THE SAHARA DESERT

The largest desert in the world is the Sahara Desert. It covers most of North Africa. It is about 3000 miles (5000 km) across from east to west. That is about the same size as the United States. It has some of the harshest weather in the world. Daytime temperatures can reach over 130 degrees Fahrenheit (54 degrees Celsius). At night, it can sometimes plunge below freezing.

Despite the difficult climate, the Sahara is home to many wonderful plants and animals. Ostriches, raptors, gazelles, jackals, spotted hyenas, and many other animal species call the Sahara home. It also contains many species of high grasses and trees.

Some plants and animals have ways of keeping water in their bodies. Camels can live a long time without food or water by using the fat stored in the humps on their backs. Plants such as cactus hold extra water in their stems.



The camel's long, curly eyelashes protect his eyes from the dust and sand of the desert.

Prairies

Prairies are vast grassland habitats found on every continent except Antarctica. In Africa, grasslands are called savannas. In Asia, they are called steppes. Prairies look like a sea of grass.

The prairies of North America are low habitats. Very few trees grow there. Most of the plant life is low to the ground. This helps plants survive when there is little water available.



Strong winds blow across the prairie in both summer and winter.

Grasses provide food sources for many grazing animals. Huge herds of buffalo once lived on the wild prairies of North America. They ate the grass for food. Because grasses grow from the bottom of their stems, they grow back easily. As the herds moved, they trampled seeds into the ground. Their droppings provided nutrients and fertilizer that encouraged new growth.

Many animals live underground The pine forests in the Pacific in the prairies. Prairie dogs live in Northwest have many trees that packs and dig burrows need a lot of space to grow. They underground for shelter and provide homes for birds of prey protection. Mice and other rodents like owls. It is easier for birds to also dig tunnels underground. hunt animals that live on the Mice eat the seeds and grass that ground in forests where the trees are all around. Animals like are not tightly packed. covotes often eat mice.

Many farm crops grow well in prairies. Giant fields of wheat and corn can stretch out for miles. We use the grains harvested from these fields for food, fuel, and other products.

Forests

Forests also provide animals A forest is a habitat with lots of with shelter from bad weather. A trees. Animals and plants live and single tree in a forest can provide a grow both on the ground and habitat for many other living above it. There are different kinds things. of forests throughout the world. Rain forests have many trees tightly packed together. Monkeys can live in these trees away from predators.



The trees of the rain forest provide much of the Earth's oxygen.



Insects and birds live in healthy trees and in dead and decaying trees in the Pacific Northwest.



Many owls make their home in a forest.

the trees for protection. Insects might also find a home in the trees. Some birds eat insects. The tree itself can provide food through its fruit and seeds. A tree that falls down can provide a home to many animals on the ground.

Humans often destroy forest habitats. We cut down some

Birds and squirrels may nest in forests to make room for farming or construction. Pollution damages other forests. But humans can also help forests. We can recycle things made from trees. We can plant new trees. Reforestation is planting new trees in forests to replace the ones we chopped down. What have you done today to save a tree?



TROPICAL **RAIN FORESTS** The Earth's tropical

areas are around the equator. Tropical areas usually have dense forests that get a lot of rain, called rain forests. These rain forests are very important to the planet. They turn a lot of carbon dioxide in the air into oxygen. They are like giant air filters for the planet.

Trees in the rain forest grow tall. The tops of the trees make up the canopy. Most of the animals in the rain forests live there. The canopy contains a lot of sunlight and food. It is cooler and darker underneath the canopy. Fewer animals live there.

Over half of all the species of plants and animals on Earth live in tropical rain forests. Sloths move very slowly and eat fruit and insects that live on the trees. Snakes like the warm climate of the rain forest. Birds of all different shapes and colors fly above the canopy.



The forest canopy gets a lot of sunlight.



Sloths move so slowly that algae sometimes grows on their fur.

Mountains

Mountains are landforms rising above the land around them. Most mountains are very different at the top than at the bottom. The habitats change from top to bottom as well. As you go up a mountain, the temperature gets colder, and the air gets thinner. We identify mountain habitats by zones.

The Tree Line

Along the base of most mountains are forests. The forests will only grow up a mountain to a certain point. The tree line is the height above which trees will not grow. Other plants grow beyond the tree line. They tend to be small plants that can withstand cold temperatures and high winds.

Tree line zones are not the same for all mountains. Sometimes the



Strong winds and the amount of sunlight a mountain receives can affect the height of its tree line.

tree line zone changes from one side of a mountain to the other.

Animals living above the tree line tend to be ready for cold weather. Mammals like deer and mountain goats have big hearts and lungs. These help the animals breathe in the high altitude and cold. Many insects survive well in this habitat. Ants and other insects without wings can stay low to the ground to avoid the wind.



high altitudes. Temperatures are ice-cold on

top of a mountain. The point up a mountain where snow stays year round is the snow line. The closer to the equator a mountain is, the higher the snow line will be.

Mountains in the arctic or polar areas of the world are often entirely above the snow line. Very few plants and animals live in this cold region.

The Environment in Danger

Everything on Earth is connected in some way. Changes on land can affect the air. Changes in the air can affect the water. Damage to one thing always affects something else. It is easy to damage the Earth.

Our planet's population continues to grow. More people means we need to produce more food and build more homes. More people means we need more electricity and fuel. The need for Earth's resources grows.

To meet the needs of a growing population, we often hurt the environment. We have caused the destruction of many habitats. Many species of plants and animals are endangered or extinct.



arson (AR-suhn): deliberate lighting of a fire to destroy something

endangered (en-DAYN-jurd): put in a dangerous situation: threatened

extinct (ek-STINGKT): having died out

habitat (HAB-uh-tat): a place or natural condition where a plant or animal lives

population (pop-yuh-LAY-shuhn): the total number of people who live in a place



When we cut down trees, we are destroying important animal habitats.

Fires

Fires are one of the ways people might hurt the environment. Fires can burn homes and other buildings. They can burn habitats, too. Forest fires and brush fires destroy trees and other plants. Sometimes these fires start naturally from lightning strikes, but other times it is arson.



Forest fires destroy habitats, too.

Deforestation

People use fires as a way to clear land for agricultural use. W call this deforestation. Humans of the most harm when they burn t much land.

Currently, tropical rain forests are the most endangered forests in the world. Many species of rain forest animal and plant species are endangered because of deforestation.

Trees are important to the environment. They provide food for animals and people. Trees also provide important things such as fuel, paper, wood, and food. Some tree foliage removes pollution from the air. Most importantly, trees affect the climate.



Scientists believe deforestation in the areas surrounding Kilimanjaro might be the strongest human influence on its glacial ice loss.

Smog

/e	
do	
00	
5	

Smog is another environmental hazard that comes from human activity. Smog is fog mixed with smoke and other chemicals. It makes the air look brown or dirty. Smog has chemicals that hurt the lungs. It is especially dangerous to people who have trouble breathing.



Smog makes the air appear dirty and lessens visibility.

Two kinds of smog can develop. One type of smog forms when people burn fuel that contains the chemical sulfur. Coal-burning electric plants emit sulfur compounds. This smog is common in the eastern United States and Europe.

Another type of smog forms from chemicals released by cars burning gasoline. Sunlight changes these chemicals. Photochemical smog is the result (photo means light). Places with many cars, like cities, have this type of smog.



F. Sherwood Rowland and Mario Molina

F. Sherwood Rowland was born in Ohio in 1927. In 1964, he became the head of the new chemistry department at the University of California at Irvine.

Rowland began to study chlorofluorocarbons, or CFCs. These chemicals were being used in spray cans, refrigerators, and air conditioners. He wondered what happened to CFCs in the atmosphere.

Mario Molina was born in Mexico in 1943. He joined Rowland's Irvine research team in 1973. Together, they discovered that CFCs break apart and form atoms of chlorine. Chlorine destroys the ozone that protects life on Earth from radiation.

Rowland and Molina helped to create the worldwide ban on CFCs. It is believed that because of their work the hole in the ozone layer is now shrinking. They won the Nobel Prize for their research.

Acid Rain

Acid rain is rain in which oxides of sulfur and nitrogen mix with the water in the atmosphere. Most acid rain comes from human sources such as car exhausts and manufacturing smoke. Some acid rain comes from natural sources such as the gases released by animals and decaying plants.



emit (i-MIT): to release or give off hazard (HAZ-urd): a danger or a risk

Wind can carry these oxides a long way from their source. The acid molecules can travel for hundreds of miles. They can even be carried into other countries. The acids created this way fall back down to Earth when it rains.

Acid rain is more acid than natural rain. It may damage lakes, forests, and soil. Fish die when the water in lakes is too acidic.



Acid rain damages the leaves and needles of trees.

Acid rain can also hurt buildings. Statues made of stone can be eaten away by acid rain. The areas with the worst damage have been the eastern United States and the southeastern part of Canada.



The damage on this building was caused by acid rain.

Global Warming

The Earth's climate has varied throughout the planet's history. Geologists and paleontologists have found evidence that Earth has had periods of extreme cooling. We know that during one such period, 1,000,000 B.C. to 10,000 B.C., glaciers covered much of North America.

Scientists have also found evidence that the planet has had periods of significant warming.

Oceans once covered Florida. tropical plants grew within the Arctic circle, and dinosaurs roamed Montana (150 million years ago).

Recently, the Earth's temperature has once more been rising. We can see some of the effects, some of which are undesirable, others helpful.

Glaciers are melting and shrinking. Potential water sources are lost.







- Some species of plants and animals have become endangered as their habitat changes or is lost.
- Some species of plants and insects have increased their northern ranges. This makes agriculture possible in areas formerly too cold for crops.

Earth Science

Earth Science

Possible Causes Of Global Warming

Scientists are exploring and debating how much of the overall temperature rise is due to humans and how much from other natural phenomena. Regardless of the answer, everyone agrees we should do what we can reasonably do to lessen our impact during this warming period.

Scientists are studying:

- the Sun's activity
- current global warming on Mars
- Earth's weather patterns
- glacial retreat ٠
- ice shelves in the Antarctic
- ocean and sea life populations
- other biological evidence

They are trying to identify the possible causes to the current global warming. They also want to know how much each contributes to the temperature increase.

We know that human activity such as deforestation and the burning of fossil fuels is contributing to the rise in the Earth's temperature.

Burning Fossil Fuels

People burn fossil fuels to produce electricity and run engines. This produces carbon dioxide.

A small amount of carbon dioxide in the air is normal. (Air is made up of 78 percent nitrogen, 21 percent oxygen, and the rest is carbon dioxide and other gases.) Plants use carbon dioxide to grow and to produce oxygen and animal food. When we burn oil, coal, and wood, we create extra carbon dioxide and other gases. We call these greenhouse gases.



Some manufacturing plants produce greenhouse gases as a byproduct.

Greenhouse gases form a layer around the Earth. This layer allows sunlight to pass through to the surface, but it prevents heat from escaping into outer space. Other gases do this too. These include methane and nitrous oxide. These pollutant gases come from cows and other grazing animals, and from agricultural fertilizers.

Scientists believe that increases in the amount of greenhouse gases are contributing to current global warming.

What People Can Do

Governments, companies, and individuals are taking steps to reduce people's contribution to greenhouse gases.

- Car manufacturers are designing cars that burn fuel more efficiently.
- Engineers are creating biodegradable fuels that do not produce as many pollutants.



- Factories are continuing to find methods of manufacturing that generate fewer CO₂ emissions.
- Nuclear plants are being built to replace coal and oil burning electric plants.
- Conservation groups are encouraging people to use less electricity.
- Engineers design appliances that use electricity more efficiently.

Builders use more efficient insulation.



• Farmers are trying to use less fertilizer.

something

- glacier: (GLAY-shur) a huge sheet of ice found in mountain areas and polar regions **impact:** (im-PAKT) the effect that something has on a thing

geologist: (jee-OL-uh-jist) a scientist who studies

- paleontologist: (pay-lee-uhn-TOL-uh-jist) a scientist who studies fossils
- undesirable: (uhn-di-ZYE-ruh-buhl) not wanted. not pleasant





debate: (di-BATE) to consider or discuss

rocks and the Earth's crust

People Who Study the Earth

Throughout history, people have always wanted to understand the planet we live on. They wanted to know why the weather changes from hot to cold and back again. They wanted to know why it rains or snows and what lightning and thunder are. They wanted to know why volcanos erupt and why earthquakes move the ground.



Volcanologists study volcanos.

Scientists decided to study nature. Earth science is the study of the Earth and all the forces that can affect it.



pollution ((puh-LOO-shuhn): harmful materials that damage the air, water, or soil

resistant (re-ZIS-tent): having the ability to withstand

resource (REE-sorss): something valuable to a place or a person

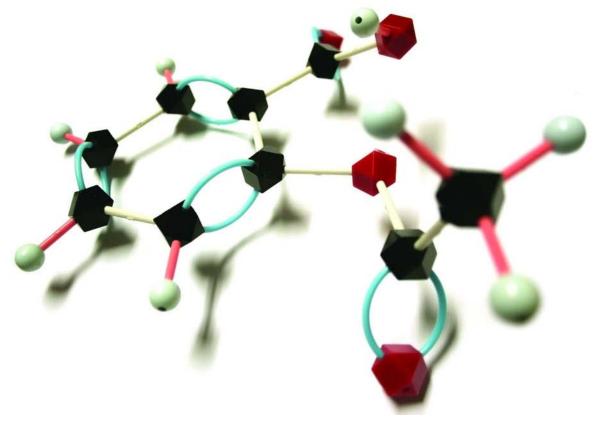
There are different fields within Earth science. Most Earth scientists spend lots of time out studying the Earth. Many of the things they learn affect our daily lives.

- Meteorologists study the atmosphere. They watch and try to predict the weather.
- Some geologists study the history of the Earth by looking at rocks. Other geologists study natural resources such as ground water, petroleum, and metals; all things we use in our daily lives.
- Seismologists measure earthquakes and study the movement of the continental plates. They sometimes try to predict when future earthquakes will occur. Seismologists also help design and build earthquake resistant structures.
- Ecologists try to understand how living things and their environments affect each other. Environmentalists try to protect the environment from pollution and other dangers.

Learning about these things helps people use the resources of the Earth wisely. Human beings must understand that everything they do affects the planet that all living things share.



Volume 5 Chemistry



By Nancy Harris

Editorial Consultant Luana Mitten Project Editor Kurt Sturm

Rourke Publishing LLC Vero Beach, Florida 32964

Table of Contents

© 2008 Rourke Publishing LLC

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced or utilized in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical including photocopying, recording, or by any information storage and retrieval system without permission in writing from the publisher.

www.rourkepublishing.com

Photo credits: Page 4 © Lisa F. Young; Page 4b © Denis Pepin; Page 4c © Roman Sigaev; Page 4d © ASP; Page 5 © Stavchansky Yakov; Page 5b © EcoPrint; Page 6 © Emin Kuliyev; Page 6b © Scott Bauer; Page 6c © Kiselev Andrey Valerevich; Page 7 © Oliver Hoffmann; Page 7b © Kiselev Andrey Valerevich; Page 7c © Emin Kuliyev; Page 7d © Anyka; Page 8 © Dragan Trifunovic; Page 9 © Nikola Hristovski; Page 9b © NASA; Page 10 © Ron Hilton; Page 10b © mmm; Page 11 © U.S. Department of Defense; Page 12 © Leo; Page 13 © U.S. Department of Energy; Page 13b © Courtesy of Brookhaven National Laboratory; Page 14 © Steffen Foerster Photography; Page 14b © Jon Zander; Page 14c © Carsten Reisinger; Page 15 © Ilya D. Gridnev; Page 16 © Michael Dayah, www.ptable.com; Page 17 © Michael Dayah, www.ptable.com; Page 18 © Clarence S Lewis; Page 18b © Jorge Pedro Barradas de Casais; Page 18c © Konovalikov Andrey; Page 19 © Lorelyn Medina; Page 20 © Scott Bauer - USDA; Page 22 © Zsoit Nyulaszi; Page 22b © Tracy Lee Didas; Page 24 © vm; Page 24b © Giovanni Bernintende: Page 25 © Michael J. Thompson; Page 25b © Ivaschenko Roman; Page 26 © Joana Drutu; Page 28 © Sz Akos; Page 29 © PhotoCreate; Page 29b © Shironina Lidiya Alexandrovna; Page 29c © Zaichenko Olga; Page 29d © Can Balcioglu; Page 30 © Stephane Tougard; Page 30b © Rebecca Abell; Page 30c © Dr. Morley Read; Page 31 © DigitalLife; Page 31b © David Lee; Page 32 © Artsilense; Page 32b © PhotoDisc ; Page 32c © NASA; Page 33 © Gordana Sermek; Page 33b © Olivier Le Queinec; Page 33c © Ingrid Balabanova; Page 34 © Andreas Gradin; Page 34b © Vera Bogaerts; Page 34c © PhotoDisc; Page 35 © Leonid Smirnov; Page 35b © Nicholas James Homrich; Page 35c © Losevsky Pavel; Page 36 © Jason Stitt; Page 36b © Andraz Cerar: Page 37 © hd connellv: Page 37b © Vuk Vukmirovic: Page 37c © Robert Taylor: Page 38 © Dellison: Page 38b © Michael Rolands; Page 38c © Vladimir Sazonov; Page 39 © Peter Witkop; Page 39b © Joel Shawn; Page 39c © Michael Ledray; Page 40 © Sonya Etchison; Page 40b © Saniphoto; Page 41 © Charles Allen; Page 41b © Sir Thomas Lawrence; Page 42 © Kamarulzaman Russali; Page 42b © Michael Ledray; Page 43 © Elena Blokhina; Page 43b © Graca Victoria; Page 44 © Vicente Barcelo Varona; Page 44b © hd connelly; Page 45 © Robyn Mackenzie; Page 45b © Richard Thornton; Page 45c © Sean Lean Tung Pek; Page 46 © Nicolaas Weber; Page 46b © Nicole Weiss; Page 47 © Sklep Spozywczy; Page 47b © Sai Yeung Chan; Page 48 © Shannon Workman; Page 48b © Alex; Page 49 © Scott Bauer - USDA; Page 50 © Fedorenko Oleg Nikolaevich; Page 51 © David M. Albrecht; Page 51b © NASA; Page 52 © Keely Deuschle; Page 52b © Kris Butler; Page 53 © Oshchepkov Dmitry; Page 53b © Peter Gudella; Page 53c © Michael Onisforou; Page 54 © NASA; Page 54b © Micah May; Page 55b © Frances L Fruit; Page 56 © Micah May; Page 56b © Frank Anusewicz ; Page 57 © Kamarulzaman Russali; Page 58 © Polina Lobanova; Page 58b © Dori O'Connell;Page 58c © Dragan Trifunovic; Page 59 © Anyka; Page 60 © Trout55; Page 60b © ARTSILENSEcom; Page 60c © DJ Images; Page 60d © PhotoDisc; Page 60e © Lorelyn Medina; Page 61 © Laser222; Page 61b © ASP; Page 61c © Olga Zaporozhskaya; Page 61d © Kamarulzaman Russali; Page 61e © Janprchal; Page 62e © Courtesy: Pugwash Conferences on Science and World Affairs

Editor: Luana Mitten

Cover design by Nicola Stratford. Blue Door Publishing

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Rourke's world of science encyclopedia / Marcia Freeman ... [et al.]. v. cm.

Includes bibliographical references and index. Contents: [1] Human life --ISBN 978-1-60044-646-7 1. Science--Encyclopedias, Juvenile. 2. Technology--Encyclopedias, Juvenile. I. Freeman, Marcia S. (Marcia Sheehan), 1937-Q121.R78 2008 503--dc22

2007042493

Volume 5 of 10 ISBN 978-1-60044-651-1

Printed in the USA

CG/CG

Rourke Publishing www.rourkepublishing.com - rourke@rourkepublishing.com Post Office Box 3328, Vero Beach, FL 32964

What

Atom

t is Chemistry?	.4
The Scientific Method	5
Measurement	.8
ns and Elements	.11
The Parts of an Atom	
Elements	
The Periodic Table	
Elements Important to Life	19
Isotopes and Radioactive Elements	
cules	.24
Bonds	25
Chemical Formulas	.28
er	.29
Phases of Matter	29
Properties of Matter	31
Changes in Matter	.38
pounds, Acids and Bases, Mixtures, and Solutions	.40
Compounds	.41
Acids and Bases	
Mixtures	.45
Solutions	.46
tions	.48
Chemical Reactions	.48
Making and Breaking Bonds	.49
Catalysts	
Oxidation and Reduction	
Releasing Energy	.55
Explosions	.56
le Who Study Chemistry	
Types of Chemists	
Women in Chemistry	.62

Mole

Bonds		•••	• •	•••	•	•	•	•	•	
Chemi	al Formulas .	•••	• •	•••	•	•	•	•	•	

Matte

Com

Compounds	•
Acids and Bases	
Mixtures	•
Solutions	•

Reac

Chemical Reactions
Making and Breaking Bonds .
Catalysts
Oxidation and Reduction
Releasing Energy
Explosions

Peopl

Chemistry

What Is Chemistry?

Chemistry is the study of substances and the changes that happen to them. Substances are things like food, clothes, and medicine.

Chemistry is very important. Plastic bags and shoes with rubber soles would not exist without chemistry. Fuels for cars, airplanes, and rockets would not exist without chemistry. Chemical reactions, or changes, inside the human body are important. They make it possible for people to think, eat, and breathe. Chemistry is everywhere.



Enzymes in the girls' stomachs will help them digest their food.



Chemicals in fertilizer helped these fruits and vegetables grow.



Without chemistry, we would not have these clothes to keep us warm.



We know how our medicine works because of chemistry.



What do elephant tusks and billiard balls have in common?

Before the invention of plastic, elephant tusks were the main material used to make billiard balls. John Wesley Hyatt invented celluloid, a special kind of plastic, in 1868. Celluloid proved to be the perfect ingredient for creating billiard balls as well as movie film.





The Scientific Method

5

Scientists learn about chemistry in three ways. They observe, or watch, substances. They study substances and they do experiments. They try to make substances change and then record what happens. Scientists carefully plan how they learn about chemistry. They often use a system called the scientific method to answer questions they might have.

The scientific method is very important. It allows scientists to learn about how things work. There are four parts to the scientific method:

- 1. Scientists begin the scientific method by asking a question.
- They research information about their question, or problem. When gathering information, scientists use observation to watch what they are studying very carefully. They might write down, or record their observations when collecting the information. Scientists call this information data. They also collect data by reading other scientists' books and journal articles. The Internet is another useful tool for gathering information.

Chemistry

<image>

A scientist carefully records data during an experiment.

3. The third step of the scientific method is making a thoughtful guess, or hypothesis. A hypothesis is an idea or opinion based on some data or observations, but not proven.



Scientists formed the hypothesis that this fertilizer is what makes the plants grow big and healthy. They will test their hypothesis to see if it is true.

4. The fourth step of the scientific method is gathering materials and then testing the hypothesis. Scientists, test or try out, their hypotheses in experiments.



Scientists conduct the same experiment many times to be sure of the results.

Scientists often do their experiments in a laboratory. A laboratory is a place where scientists conduct experiments and collect data. Controlling conditions in a laboratory is easier than controlling conditions in the real world. For example, temperature levels are able to remain constant in a controlled setting. That would be impossible to do outside of a laboratory.

HOW DO SCIENTISTS LEARN ABOUT CHEMISTRY?

They observe or watch substances.



They do experiments.



They try to make substances change and then record what happens.



An experiment might show that the hypothesis is not correct. For this reason, scientists always perform tests for one experiment several times. They call these tests trials. In each trial, scientists change only one thing, also known as the variable. New data might cause a scientist to change the hypothesis. Sometimes, a scientist throws away the hypothesis and starts all over. Hypotheses proven true predict how things will work and can be very helpful.



Chemists made sure this medicine was safe for children.



control (kuhn-TROHL): to make something or someone do what you want

experiment (ek-SPER-uh-ment): a scientific test to try out a theory or to see the effect of something

fuel (FYOO-uhl): something that is used as a source of heat or energy, such as coal, wood, gasoline, or natural gas

observation (ob-zur-VAY-shuhn): the careful watching of someone or something

Chemistry

Measurement	
-------------	--

People can describe the world in many ways. They can say how big something is, how much it weighs, or how hot it feels. They can use measurements to describe these things.

Scientists use the metric system to measure distance and length. They measure distance and length using a metric ruler, tape measure, or other special tools. A meter is a specific unit of measurement. A meter can be broken down into smaller parts called centimeters and millimeters. There are 100

centimeters (cm) in 1 meter (m). There are 1,000 millimeters (mm) in 1 meter. There are 1,000 meters in a kilometer (km).

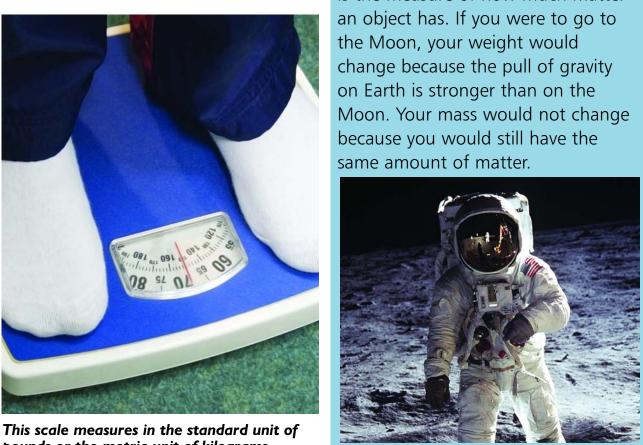


Your dad measures your height in the standard unit of inches. Scientists measure height in the metric unit of centimeters.

Unit of Measurement	Abbreviation	Things You Might Measure With This Unit
millimeter	mm	ant, small button, or end of an eraser
centimeter	cm	hamster, length of your foot, or the length of a gecko lizard
meter	m	distance between your classroom and the lunchroom, or the length of a Komodo dragon or a whale
kilometer	km	distance of a marathon or the distance between two cities

Unit of Measurement	Abbreviation	Things You Might Measure With This Unit
kilogram	kg	yourself or a tiger
gram	g	a bag of apples or a box of cookies
milligram	mg	a paper clip or a baby tooth

Scientists use grams or milligrams to measure the weight of something. Scales are instruments used to measure weight. Scientists use scales that weigh in kilograms, grams or milligrams.



pounds or the metric unit of kilograms.

What's the **Difference Between** more Mass and Weight? Weight is the measure of how strongly gravity pulls on matter. Mass is the measure of how much matter

Chemistry

Scientists measure temperature using the Celsius temperature scale. The freezing and boiling points of water is the basis for Celsius (°C). Water freezes at 0°C and boils at 100°C. An average room temperature is about 20°C.

Another way of measuring temperature is to use the Kelvin scale. The lowest possible temperature determines the Kelvin (K) scale. This is 0 K or -273°C. Absolute temperatures are temperatures measured in the Kelvin scale.



Thermometers display temperature using the standard Fahrenheit scale and the metric Celsius scale.



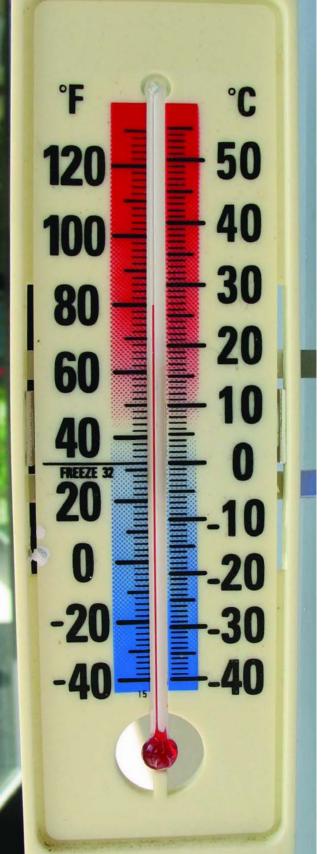
distance (DISS-tuhnss): the amount of space between two places

length (lengkth): the distance from one end of something to the other

measure (MEZH-ur): to find out the size, capacity, weight, etc. of something

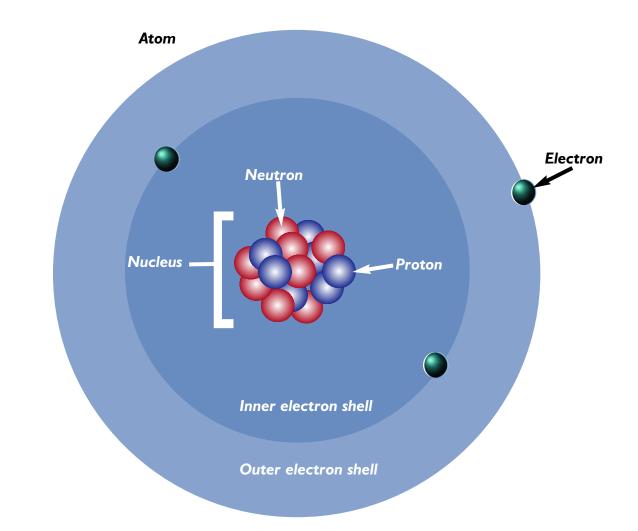
metric system (MET-rik SISS-tim): a system of measurement based on counting by 10's

temperature (TEM-put-uh-chur): the degree of heat or cold in something



Atoms and Elements

Atoms are the building blocks of all matter. Atoms are very small. Many atoms put together make up everything in the world. Atoms are so small that you cannot see an individual atom without a special microscope. All atoms are made of the same basic parts. Putting these parts together in different ways, by scientists or in nature, causes the traits of the atom to change.





Scientists use electron microscopes to give them an idea of what atoms look like.

Chemistry

The Parts of an Atom

The parts inside the atom are much smaller than the atom itself. There are two sections in an atom. There is a center section and an outer section.

Center Section

The center section contains the nucleus. The nucleus is made of two types of particles. We call these particles protons and neutrons. Protons have a positive electrical charge. Neutrons do not have an electrical charge. Scientists say they are neutral. The nucleus of most common atoms is made of the same number of protons and neutrons.

Outer Section

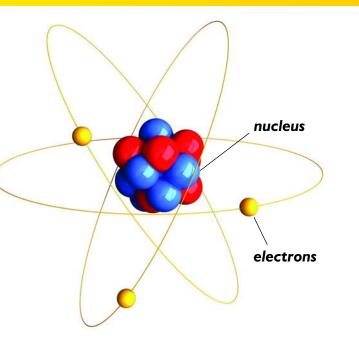
The outer part of the atom is made of electrons. Electrons are very tiny particles. They move around the nucleus of an atom in special layers called shells. Each



neutral (NU-trel): neither positive or negative

particle (PAR-tuh-kuhl): an extremely small piece or amount of something

trait (trate): a quality or characteristic that makes one person or thing different from another



shell can have several electrons in it. Many atoms have several electron shells. All electrons have a negative electrical charge. Normal atoms have the same number of electrons and protons. The negative electron and the positive proton attract. This is what holds the atom together.

Subatomic Particles

Subatomic particles exist inside an atom. Protons, neutrons, and electrons are examples of subatomic particles. Many other subatomic particles exist inside an atom. For example, protons and neutrons are made of tiny particles called quarks. Gluons, even smaller particles, hold quarks together. There are more than 200 other types of subatomic particles.

know...

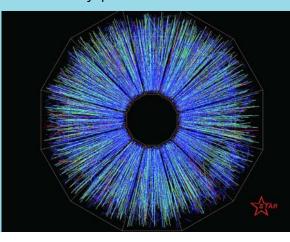
Niels Bohr was born in Denmark in 1885. His father was a professor who invited many important scientists to their home. Bohr studied physics at the University of

Copenhagen. Then he went to England to work with the famous physicists J.J. Thomson and Ernest Rutherford. Bohr returned to Denmark and became a professor. He wrote papers in which he described the structure of an atom. Bohr showed that electrons have stable orbits around the nucleus, which allows them to keep spinning. Electrons give off energy only when they jump to a different orbit. In 1922, Bohr won the Nobel Prize for his studies of atoms.

more

Scientists Can Smash Atoms Particle accelerators

are giant machines used by scientists to discover subatomic particles. These machines move atoms and subatomic particles very fast. Then they smash them together! Special photographs and computer images from the accelerator show the impact. The picture below shows the trails left by particles.



Niels Bohr





Elements

An element is a substance made of the same type of atoms. Scientists know of over 100 different elements. Most elements occur naturally. Some are very common. Others are harder to find. Scientists have created a few elements in laboratories.



Gold and copper are naturally occurring elements.

Solid Metals

Most of the elements are solid metals and usually shiny. They can also conduct, or pass on, heat and electricity. Metals are malleable and easily formed into many shapes.

Flattened sheets of metal used as prongs in an electrical cord conduct electricity. Pulling metals very thin without breaking them means they are ductile. Wires are an example of ductile metals.



The prongs on this electrical cord plugs into a wall. It will conduct the electricity to a lamp when switched on.

Nonmetals and Semimetals

The rest of the elements are nonmetals or semimetals. Nonmetals are different from metals in many ways. Most nonmetals are gases, like oxygen. Solid nonmetals are hard and brittle, like carbon. They break apart easily. Carbon is used to make some pencil tips. Bromine is the only liquid nonmetal. Semimetals have traits of both metals and nonmetals.



Helium is lighter than oxygen, allowing these balloons to float.

Atomic Number

Elements differ from one another depending on the number of protons each possesses. The number of protons in an element determines the atomic number o the element.

Protons and neutrons have about the same mass. Mass is the amount of physical material in a object. The atomic number determines the organization of all elements in the periodic table of elements. The first element, hydrogen is number one. The las known element, lawrencium, is number 103.

Protons and neutrons make u nearly all of the mass of an atom The atomic mass of the element the approximate total number of

-	
	1
-	

er	
t	
of	
ıe	
n	

protons and neutrons in that element. The unit of measurement for atomic mass is the atomic mass unit (AMU).

How many
Find out neutrons are there in
more Krypton? The atomic
number of Krypton is 36. This means
there are 36 protons and 36
electrons in its nucleus. To determine
the number of neutrons, you must
first round the atomic weight.
Krypton is
about 84
AMU. 36
Subtract the
number of protons and
that will leave us krypton
with the 83.80
neutrons,
48.

Use the table below to help find the number of protons, electrons, and neutrons of any element.

st	Number of Protons	Atomic Number
ıp	Number of Electrons	Atomic Number (or Number of Protons)
n. Tis f	Number of Neutrons	Mass Number (rounded)- Atomic Number

Chemistry

The Periodic Table

Symbols

The periodic table lists all known elements. Each element has a special symbol that describes it. Some symbols are the first letter of the element. The first element has the letter H for hydrogen. O is for oxygen. C is for carbon. Most of the

elements have a symbol with two letters. Helium has the letters He. Ca is the symbol for Calcium. Bromine is Br. Every element must have a different symbol, so sometimes the symbol is very different from the actual name of the element. Many of these symbols come from Latin words. Gold is Au. Tin is Sn. Silver is Ag.

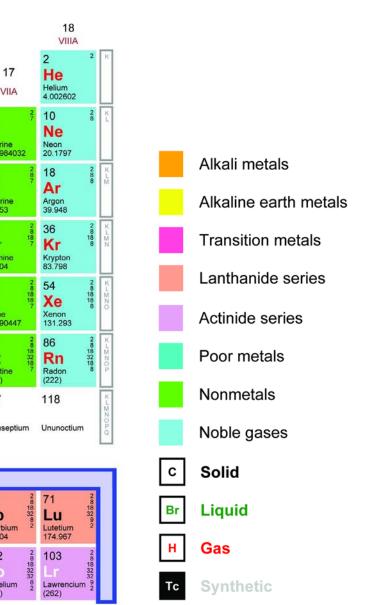
Periods **Periodic Table** New Origina 2 of the Elements IIA Hydroge 1.00794 2 Li Be Beryllium 9.012182 12 11 3 5 6 7 8 4 3 Mg Na Magnesi 24.3050 IIIB VB VIIE 23 V 20 22 24 29 21 25 Ti Ni Nickel 58.6934 Ca Cr Mn Fe Co Cu Sc 4 Calciun 40.078 Cobalt 58.93320 Vanadiur 50.9415 Titaniur 47.867 Iron 55.8457 Scandium 44 955910 Chromiu 51.9961 Manganese 54,938049 Copper 63.546 38 39 40 41 42 44 45 47 43 Rb Sr Y Zr Nb Mo Ru Rh Pd Ag Tc 5 Strontiu 87.62 Palladiu 106.42 Yttrium 88 90585 Zirconiu 91 224 Niobium 92.90638 Ruthen 101 07 Rhodium 102 9055 Silver 107.8682 Molybde 95,94 5 4678 56 73 74 72 75 76 77 78 79 Ba Hf W 6 Cs 57 to 71 Та Re Os Ir Pt Au Tantalum 180.9479 Barium 137.327 Tungste 183 84 Rheniun 186 207 Osmiun 190.23 Iridium 192.21 Platinum 195.078 Gold 196.96655 Hafniun 178.49 105 88 107 108 109 110 104 106 111 Radium (226) Db Hs Bh Mt Rg 89 to 103 Rf Sg Ds 7 Dubni (261 Atomic masses in parentheses are those of the most stable or common isotope convright @ 1997 Michael Dava 62 64 61 58 60 63 59 Note: The subgroup Ce Nd Sm Eu Gd Pr La Pm numbers 1-18 were adopted Lanthanur 138.9055 Cerium 140.116 Prometi (145) Gadolinii 157.25 Samariun 150.36 Europium 151.964 Neodyr 144.24 in 1984 by the International Praseodymiun 140.90765 Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry. The names of 89 90 91 92 93 94 96 elements 112-118 are the U Latin equivalents of those Ac Th Pa numbers. Uranium 238.02891 Thorium 232.0381 Plutonium (244) Neptunium (237) Americium Curium (247) Protactinium 231.03588 (243)

Listing Elements

as you move left to right across the The periodic table lists over 100 table. The chemical properties of the elements change slowly as well. elements. The atomic number determines the arrangement of Each element contains one more electron and one more proton than each element. Rows and columns help to organize the elements the next. Columns, also known as according to specific properties. A groups, consist of elements that row going across is called a period. share similar chemical and The atomic number in each period physical properties. increases by one with each element

	13	14	15	16	1
	IIIA	IVA	VA	VIA	V
	5 23 B Boron 10.811	6 4 C Carbon 12.0107	7 5 N Nitrogen 14.00674	8 26 0 0xygen 15.9994	9 F Fluorin 18.998
12 IIB	13 8 Al Aluminum 26.981538	14 ² / ₈ Si Silicon 28.0855	15 8 P Phosphorus 30.973761	16 ² / ₈ S Sulfur 32.066	17 Cl Chlorir 35.453
30 ² Zn ¹⁸ ² ² ² ^{65,409}	31 ² Ga ¹⁸ Gallium 69.723	32 ² Ge ¹⁸ Germanium 72.64	33 ² As ¹⁸ Arsenic 74.92160	34 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	35 Br Bromir 79.904
48 8 8 8 8 8 18 18 2 2 8 18 2 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18	49 28 10 18 114.818	50 28 Sn 18 18 18 4 Tin 118.710	51 28 Sb 18 5 Antimony 121.760	52 28 Te 127.60 28 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18	53 I Iodine 126.90
80 28 18 Mercury 200.59	81 28 TI 32 Thallium 204.3833	82 28 Pb 32 Lead 4 207.2	83 28 Bi 18 Bismuth 208.98038	84 Po Polonium (209) 8 8 18 6 18 6 18 18 6 18 18	85 At Astatin (210)
112 28 Uub 32 Ununbium 18 (285) 12	113 Uut ^{Ununtrium} (284)	114 Uuq ^{Ununquadium} (289)	115 Uup ^{Ununpentium} (288)	116 Uuh ^{Ununhexium} (292)	117 Ununse

65 28 Tb 27 Terbium 27 158.92534	66 8 Dy 8 Dysprosium 2 162.500	67 8 Ho 18 Holmium 2 164.93032	68 8 Er 18 167.259 2 8	69 28 Tm 18 31 31 31 168.93421	70 Yb Ytterbiu 173.04
97 28 Bk 32 Berkelium 8 (247)	98 28 01 32 28 Californium 2 (251)	99 ² Eis ¹⁸ Einsteinium ⁸ (252) ²	100 28 Fm 32 30 Fermium 2 (257)	101 28 18 M cl 32 31 Mendelevium 8 (258) 2	102 No Nobeliu (259)



Chemistry

Periods

Periods are the rows going across the periodic table of elements. As you move across the rows from left to right, the atomic number increases by one. This means that each element contains one more electron and one more proton than the previous element. The chemical and physical properties gradually change across the row. A new period begins with a drastic difference in properties.

As an example, the first period in the periodic table is very short. It contains only two elements, hydrogen (H) and helium (He). The second period contains eight elements. It begins with lithium (the symbol Li) and ends with neon (Ne). The fifth period also has 18 elements. It starts with rubidium (Rb) and ends with xenon (Xe). See chart on pages 16 and 17. Scientists are still discovering new elements.

Groups

Elements in the same group have similar properties. Every element in a group has the same number of electrons in its outer electron shell. With the exception of hydrogen, the elements in the first group, called alkali metals, each have only one electron in the outer shell. They are soft metals that react easily with water.

Noble gases are the last group. Helium, neon, argon, krypton, xenon, and radon are all noble gases. Except for helium, they all have eight electrons in their outer shells. They are usually inert elements. This means they do not combine chemically with other elements. In the 1960s, scientists were able to force noble gases to combine with other elements. The gases would otherwise not form a bond.



Helium is the main element that allows this blimp to defy gravity and stay afloat. Light bulbs stay lit because of argon. Headlights in this new car contain xenon.



D

etting to know...

Dmitry Mendeleyev was born in 1834 in the country of Russia. His father became blind. His mother worked in a glass factory to support their fourteen children. In 1849, home to become a teacher.

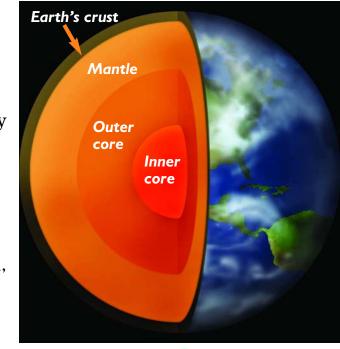
Mendeleyev left home to become a teacher. Mendeleyev noticed that some elements have similar properties. He wondered if there was a way to classify elements, or place them into different groups. Using cards, Mendeleyev wrote down the properties of each element. He also wrote down the atomic weight of each element known at the time. He arranged the cards until he saw a pattern. Organizing the elements by their atomic weight allowed Mendeleyev to discover that the properties repeated themselves. Mendeleyev created the periodic table. Later, new elements filled empty spaces left in the table.

Elements Important to Life

On Earth, there are 92 naturally occurring elements. A few are the building blocks of all life on our planet. Hydrogen and oxygen form water. The atoms of five elements form the majority of the air we breathe. They are nitrogen, oxygen, carbon, hydrogen, and argon.

Elements mixed together form the surface of the Earth. These elements are mainly oxygen (O), silicone (Si), iron (Fe), aluminum (Al), and magnesium (Mg). Many scientists believe that the center, or core, of the Earth is made mainly of two elements. They are iron (Fe) and nickel (Ni).

Dmitry Mendeleyev





Latin (LAT-uhn): the language of the ancient Romanssymbol (SIM-buhl): a design or object that represents something else

Chemistry

The same elements make up all organic or once living matter on Earth. The elements carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, and oxygen, make up life on Earth. Plants and animals are exceptions. This is because the organization of the elements is different.

Life first developed when these and other elements came together millions of years ago. These elements exist throughout the universe. We do not know if life exists anywhere else.

Isotopes and Radioactive Elements

Isotopes

Sometimes, the nucleus of an atom can have extra neutrons. The normal atom and the one with extra neutrons have the same atomic numbers. This is because they have the same number of protons. They have different masses because of the extra neutrons. Scientists call these atoms isotopes.

All elements have isotopes. Many isotopes occur naturally. Some occur by themselves, like sodium. Other elements in nature are actually mixtures of several isotopes. Oxygen that occurs naturally contains three isotopes of oxygen. It is a mixture containing mostly oxygen with an atomic mass of 16. It also has tiny amounts of oxygen with atomic masses of 17 and 18. Scientists can measure the mass of an atom by using a device called a mass spectrometer.



Mass spectrometry determines the effects of drugs in the body, identifies illegal steroids in an athlete, and determines the age and origin of once-living material in archeology.

ISOTOPES	D
Where They Are Used	
Health and Medicine	
Environment	
Industrial Safety	
industrial Safety	
Consumer Protection	
and Safety	

Radioactive Isotopes

Carbon 12 is the most common isotope of carbon. It is stable because it has six neutrons and a protons. It has an atomic mass of 12. Carbon 14 is another isotope of carbon. It has two extra neutrons and an atomic mass of 14. Carbon 14 is an unstable or radioactive isotope of carbon. Some of its neutrons will break

ISOTOPES AND THEIR USES

Reasons for Their Use

For diagnosis of heart disease, cancer, and for therapy. Every year more than 30 million medical treatments and over 100 million laboratory tests are completed using isotopes.

For the measurement of air and water pollution and to understand the effects of radioactive waste on the public and environment.

Used to detect flaws in steel sections used for bridge and jet airliner construction.

Used to study the quality of food and its effect on humans.

	down into electrons and protons.
on	Scientists call this radioactive
	decay. Measurement of radioactive
six	decay is the amount of time that it
of	takes carbon 14 to break down.
e	Half-life is when half the nucleus in
	a sample of a radioactive isotope
	breaks down.
	A radioactive isotope that is

A radioactive isotope that is decaying gives off subatomic particles and rays. Scientists call this radiation.

Chemistry



Radioactive isotopes help determine the health of patients and allow doctors to treat them more effectively.

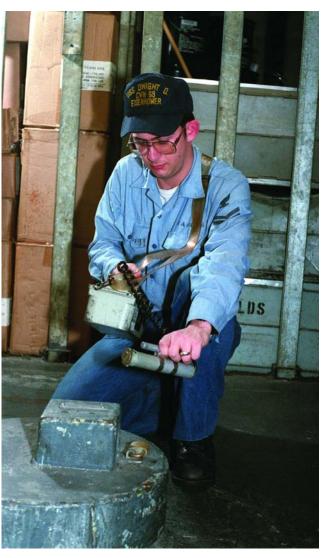
For the past century, radioactive isotopes have become a part of our daily lives. We find them in smoke detectors. in the irradiation process that makes food safer, in carbon 14 dating which tells archeologists when an organism died, and often in the field of medicine. Doctors use radioactive isotopes, or tracers to identify diseases and treat them.

Doctors use radioactive isotopes, or tracers to identify diseases and treat them.

Radioactive elements and isotopes can also be harmful. A person exposed to too much radioactivity can develop radiation sickness. Their hair can fall out and they can become very ill.

Long-term exposure to radiation can cause cancer and blood diseases.

There are several tools used to detect radioactivity. The most well known tool is the Geiger counter. It will emit loud clicks or move a needle on a screen when encountering radioactive material.



This man uses a Geiger counter to determine the presence of radioactive materials.

The Disaster at Chernobyl

On April 26, 1986, one of four nuclear reactors exploded at the Chernobyl power station in Ukraine, a country that more used to be a part of the old Soviet Union. The explosion burned for nine days, proving to be the worst nuclear accident in history. The disaster released at least 100 times more radiation than the atom bombs dropped in Nagasaki and Hiroshima. Much of the fallout fell close to Chernobyl, Belarus, Ukraine, and Russia. Many people left the area, but about 5.5 million people continue to live there today.

Every country in the Northern Hemisphere contains soil that has tested positive for traces of radioactive deposits from the Chernobyl disaster. No one knows the final number of people who will die as a result of this accident. Scientists and doctors in the area have seen a drastic increase in thyroid cancer, mainly in people who were children or teens at the time of the accident. Fortunately, survival rates are high in the case of this type of cancer. Today, work continues to keep the Chernobyl plant from crumbling. Wild horses, boar, wolves, and birds have returned to the area and are thriving.



Marie Curie was born Marya Sklodowska in Poland in 1867. She attended the famous university in Paris called the Sorbonne. She married Pierre Curie in 1895. They

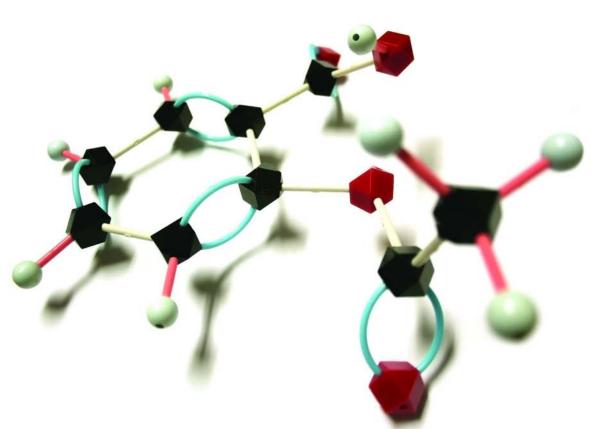
studied chemistry together.

Marie and Pierre Curie heard that the element uranium gives off radiation. Uranium comes from an ore, which is a type of rock called pitchblende. They found two other radioactive elements in the pitchblende. They were polonium and radium.

In 1903, the Curies shared the Nobel Prize in Physics for their work with radioactivity. Pierre died in an accident in 1906, and Marie continued her research. She won the 1911 Nobel Prize in Chemistry for discovering polonium and radium. Marie Curie died of a type of cancer called leukemia. Exposure to radioactivity caused her cancer.

Marie Curie

Molecules



An aspirin model helps us to visualize what the actual molecule might look like.

Naturally occurring elements are usually a combination of several elements. Some combine with elements just like themselves. Others combine with different elements. Scientists call these combinations of elements molecules. They are made of at least two atoms and are stable. This means they have the same number of protons and neutrons.

A molecule is the smallest form of a substance that can exist on its own. A molecule still has the features of that substance.

Molecules can exist without breaking apart or linking to other atoms.



There are more molecules in your body than there are stars in the entire universe.

For some elements, there is no gases. Each molecule provides two difference between a single atom atoms. For example, two oxygen atoms combined together make up and a molecule of the elements. one oxygen molecule. Covalent For example, an atom of hydrogen bonds hold them all together. is the same as a molecule of hydrogen. All the noble gases can These elements can only exist as molecules. exist as a molecule with a single atom. Noble gases include helium, neon, argon, krypton, xenon, and **Ionic bonds** Sometimes, atoms link up with radon.

Bonds

A bond is like a link that holds two or more atoms together. There are many different kinds of bonds. Sometimes, atoms share electron pairs with other atoms. Scientists call these bonds covalent bonds.

Covalent bonds in gases

The atoms that make up common gases naturally occur as molecules. Hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, fluorine, and chlorine are



Some molecules, like oxygen, are very simple in appearance.

other atoms because they have extra electrons. Sometimes atoms link up with other atoms because they are missing electrons. We call these atoms ions. Ionic bonds hold the atoms together. Salt molecules are formed when sodium (Na) ions and chloride (Cl) ions bond together to make NaCl, or salt.



Sodium and chloride bond to make common table salt.

Types of ions. Scientists call an ion that is missing an electron or that has an extra proton a cation. An anion has an extra electron or is missing a proton.

Chemistry

		Timeline of the A
	1898	Marie Curie discovers radium an
	1905	Albert Einstein develops a theory between mass and energy.
	1911	C.T.R. Wilson invents the cloud c
	1913	Radiation decay detector develop
	1925	First nuclear reaction captured b
	1935	Arthur Dempster at the Universit isotope.
	1939	Einstein and several other impor President of the United States, Fr how Germany is developing and
the	1941	Japan attacks Pearl Harbor. The
	1942	The Manhattan Project was estab research of the atom bomb. J. Re director in charge of its creation. States begin research and develo
	July 1945	The first test of the atom bomb p unbelievable release of energy. It petitions urging the United States the destruction it can cause.
e 1 ed	August 6, 1945	The first uranium bomb dropped devastating destruction. Sixty-six 69,000 people are injured.
1.	August 9, 1945	Three days later, a plutonium bo 39,000 people died, and 25,000
	August 14, 1945	Japan offers to surrender. The su September 2, 1945.
	1945- Present	Many innocent people lost their l that time, countries developed, th themselves of nuclear weapons. I nuclear weapons become part of

Metallic Bonds

The two blue balls in each model represent hydrogen. The red balls represent oxygen. Each individual model represents one water molecule.

Hydrogen Bonds

Two atoms of hydrogen and one atom of oxygen form water. A covalent bond occurs when atoms share electrons with other atoms. Hydrogen bonds hold water together when water is a liquid. These bonds pull the hydrogen atoms of one water molecule close to the oxygen atoms of another water molecule. Hydrogen bonds are what give water such a high boiling point (212°F or 100°C).



equation (i-KWAY-zhuhn): a mathematical statement that one set of numbers or values is equal to another set of values or numbers

stable (STAY-buhl): firm and steady

Metallic bonds hold toget atoms that form metal. Loos attached electrons are in the shell of a metal atom. The electrons float around betwee individual atoms in a sea of electrons. These electrons ke metal atoms in orderly rows fit together and flow easily in metallic lattice. This allows and electricity to flow through metal. Metallic bonds do not the atoms in place. When str or bent, atoms can move are This movement is what enable metalworkers to make wire.



Wires conduct electricity. They enable us to talk on the phone, or recharge our iPods.

f the Atom Bomb

dium and polonium.

a theory about the relationship y.

e cloud chamber.

developed by Hans Geiger.

ptured by a cloud chamber photo.

University of Chicago discovers uranium-235

er important scientists send a letter to the States, Franklin D. Roosevelt, detailing ing and planning to use the first atom bomb.

bor. The U.S. enters World War II.

vas established by the President to speed up nb. J. Robert Oppenheimer becomes the creation. Scientists all over the United d development.

a bomb performed in New Mexico displays its nergy. It prompted many involved to sign ed States not to use this weapon because of use.

dropped on Hiroshima, Japan causes Sixty-six thousand people die and more than ed.

nium bomb devastates Nagasaki. More than 25,000 were injured.

er. The surrender becomes official on

Many innocent people lost their lives in order for a war to end. Since that time, countries developed, threatened to use, and then disarmed themselves of nuclear weapons. It is the fervent wish of many that nuclear weapons become part of history and never used again.

Chemistry

Chemical Formulas

28

Scientists can describe a molecule or a compound with a chemical formula. A chemical formula is a written description of all the elements in a substance. Scientists sometimes write out chemical equations to figure out how different chemicals react with one another or to describe a reaction.

Common Molecules	Chemical Formula	ลา
Carbon Dioxide	CO_2	ai m
Ammonia	NH ₃	fo
Sugar	$C_{6}H_{12}O_{6}$	m
Rubbing Alcohol	C ₃ H ₇ OH	

Water that is written as 5H₂O has 5 molecules of water.



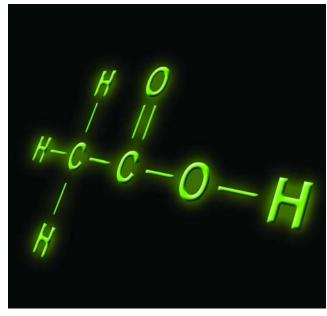
Two hydrogen atoms

Structural Formulas

Structural formulas describe the rrangement of atoms within the nolecules. A drawing of the ormula shows the shape of the nolecule.

Molecular Formulas

Molecular formulas describe the exact number of atoms in a molecule. The tiny numbers to the bottom right of an element in a chemical formula stand for the number of atoms in that element. Water is a molecule made from two hydrogen atoms and one oxygen atom. H_oO is the molecular formula for water. The little 2 next to the H means that there are two hydrogen atoms. The O means that there is one atom of oxygen. Big numbers to the left of the atom stand for the number of molecules.



A structural formula displays the shape of the molecule similar to an actual model.

Matter

Matter is anything that takes up space and has mass. Atoms or parts of atoms form all matter. It is Most metals in the periodic table everything from the tiniest electron to the planets and stars.

Phases of Matter

Nearly all matter is a solid, a liquid, or a gas. These forms are called phases of matter.

Solids

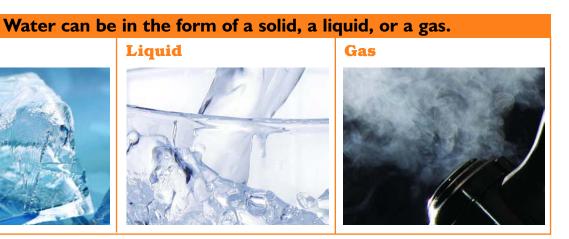
Solids have a definite, or fixed, shape and volume. Their shape stays the same and they take up a certain amount of space. They are often very hard, or rigid. The molecules are usually locked in position. Molecules are made of at least two atoms. The colder a solid is, the less the molecules move.



The molecules of a solid will start to move as they are heated. are solids at room temperature. Silver bricks are a solid.



The desks, chairs, and books are solids in this classroom. They will hold their shape unless physically changed.



Chemistry

Liquids

Liquids have a fixed volume but not a fixed shape. The molecules in a liquid vibrate and move around each other easily. This means that they are fluid. Some liquids are thin, like water. It pours quickly. Other liquids are thick, like oil or syrup. They pour more slowly.

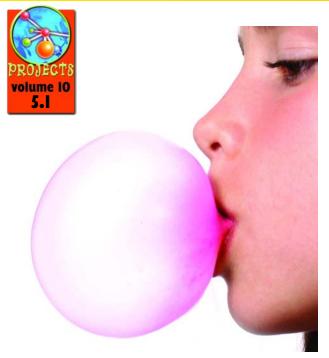


Water is not as thick as oil. The oil will sink to the bottom of the water.

Gases

Gases have no fixed shape or volume. Gas fits into a container of almost any size. Gas molecules compress, or push together easily. Solid and liquid molecules do not function in the same way.

Some gases are lighter than air, like helium. An untied balloon



The gas in a popped bubble will not keep its shape.

filled with helium will float into the sky. Other gases are heavier than air. like carbon dioxide. You breathe out carbon dioxide with the air that leaves your lungs. A balloon filled with this mixture will sink to the floor.



Tropical rain forests take in carbon dioxide, a gas that we exhale, and changes it into clean air that we can breathe.



Atoms In Gases

The atoms in a gas can lose their electrons at really high temperatures. The result

is a hot mixture of ions and electrons called plasma. This is another phase of matter. The flames of a fire are plasma. Lightning is plasma that forms when the air is electrically charged. Some scientists consider plasma to be a charged gas and not its own phase of matter.

Properties of Matter

There are many ways to describe matter. Some things are either big or small. Other things



Lava is a very hot liquid until it cools. Then, lava becomes a solid rock.



might be hard or soft. An object might be light or heavy. A rock might be hot or cold. Some materials stretch into different shapes. Other materials mix easily with water. Still others float on water. All these descriptions tell you about the properties of matter.

Mass

Mass is the amount of matter in an object or substance. All forms of matter have mass. Solids, gases, and liquids have mass. The more neutrons and protons there are in an atom, the larger its mass will be. An atom of gold has 197 protons and neutrons. An atom of aluminum has only 27 protons and neutrons. This is why gold has a greater mass than aluminum.

Chemistry

9	

Comparing sizes of objects does not help us to determine mass. This scale shows us that gold has greater mass than aluminum.

Weight

Gravity pulls down on mass creating a force called weight. Mass and weight are proportional on the surface of the Earth. This means you double the weight of something if you double the amount of mass. In outer space, an object can be weightless, but still have the same mass. This is because gravity is not pulling on the object. Mass does not change, but weight depends on surrounding forces.



mixture (MIKS-chur): something consisting of different things mixed together

properties (PROP-ur-tee): special qualities or characteristics of something



"I weigh 60 pounds."



"I weigh 10 pounds."

"My weight changed, but my mass didn't change. My body still contains all the same stuff it contained when I was on Earth."

Planet	Weight (lb)	Weight (kg)
Mercury	33	15
Venus	79	36
Mars	33	15
Jupiter	207	94
Saturn	79	36
Uranus	77	35
Neptune	97	44

The pull of gravity is different on each of the planets in our solar system. If you weighed 88 lbs (40 kg) on Earth, the table will show you how much you would weigh on the other planets. Your mass would still stay the same.

Volume

Another way to describe the amount of something is its volume. Volume is the amount of space taken up by matter. An object can have a large mass but take up only



The cotton candy's volume is greater than the golf ball. The golf ball's mass is greater than the cotton candy.

a small amount of volume. An object can also have a small mass but take up a lot of volume.

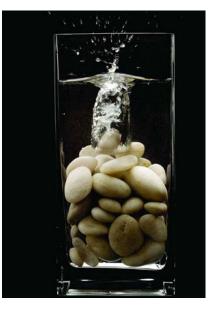
Scientists measure liquid volume in graduated cylinders that are marked with the units milliliter and liter.





Density

Density is the amount of mass for a certain volume. A block of iron is heavier than a block of wood that has the same size or volume. Iron is more dense than wood. Gases are not as dense as solids and liquids. Different gases have different densities. Hydrogen and helium are not as dense as oxygen and nitrogen. This is why a helium balloon floats up into the air.



These rocks are denser than the liquid.

A solid that is not as dense as a liquid will float on it. A denser solid will sink in it. The buoyancy of an object describes how well it floats on top of a liquid. Cork floats because it is not as dense as water. A boat can float because its shape allows it to contain a lot of

air. The air in the boat is less dense than the water beneath the boat. The boat will sink if it fills up with too much water.



Icebergs float because they are slightly less dense than water. Most of the iceberg is below the surface of the water.



Water has the density of 1.0 g/cm². Saturn's density is

.69 g/cm². If you were to go to Saturn and return with a chunk of the planet, you could throw it in a body of water and watch it float!



Conductors of Heat

Heat can be conducted, or passed, through many types of matter. Metals are very good conductors of heat. The energy in heat conducts from one end of a piece of metal to the other end. This is why a metal spoon gets hot when only one end is touching the source of the heat.



The glowing end of this metal rod shows us its intense heat. Eventually, the heat will transfer along the rod to the other end.

Conductors of Electricity

Metals are also good conductors of electricity. Electrons flow easily between the atoms of a metal. An electrical current at one end of a metal wire quickly passes through to the other end.

The prongs of this plug will conduct electricity to the wires in the cord. The wires will conduct the electricity to the appliance. The plastic covering around the wires allows us to be able to hold the cord without burning our hands.

Liquids can also be good conductors of electricity. This is why it is a bad idea to use an electric device near water. For example, never use a hair dryer near a bathtub filled with water.



Get out of a pool immediately if you hear thunder or see lightning!

Semiconductors. Other elements can also be good conductors of electricity. Semiconductors can conduct electricity when they are heated. Silicon, when mixed with other elements, is a very good semiconductor.

Most solid materials are poor conductors of electricity. Wood, plastic, and glass are electrical insulators. The plastic covering on wires acts as an insulator. The plastic prevents wires from touching each other and causing electrical problems.



Semiconductors enable us to use many everyday items, such as a cell phone.



insulator (IN-suh-late-ur): a covering which prevents heat or electricity from escaping



Some Metals Are Liquids

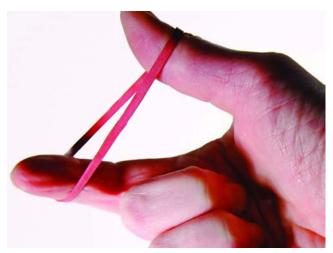
Most people think of metals as hard and strong. Some metals are actually liquids! Mercury is the only metal that is a complete liquid. This happens at room temperature. Thermometers and electrical switches use mercury. Other metals become liquids at higher temperatures.



Mercury is very poisonous. If a thermometer drops and breaks, stay away from the mercury and wait for an adult to help you.

Elasticity

Rubber bands have elasticity. They will snap back into their original shape if you stretch them and then let go. Other things made out of rubber show this same elastic property. A balloon will return to its original shape if you let the air out of it.



Rubber bands have elasticity. They will snap back to their original shape if you stretch them and let go.

Elastic Limit. Other materials are not as elastic. Metal springs bounce back into shape after being stretched or compressed. An overstretched spring will not return to its exact original shape. The point to which you can stretch a material and still have it bounce back is called the elastic limit. Almost all materials have at least a little bit of elasticity.



When you chew gum, you are really chewing plastic and rubber with a little bit of flavoring. Gum is not as elastic as a rubber band.

Solubility

Solubility is the ability to dissolve. A substance dissolves and distributes evenly into another



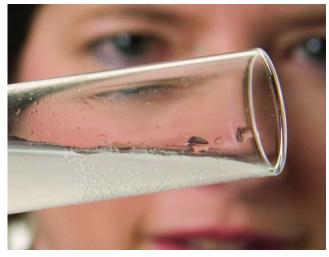
substance. The dissolved substance may be difficult to detect. Sugar dissolves in hot tea. After stirring, it is difficult to see the sugar.



Sugar dissolves easily in a hot cup of coffee.

Changes in Solubility. Solids, liquids, and gases dissolve into liquids. They form a solution. A solution is a mixture of more than one thing. The solubility of solids and liquids can change. This can happen when the temperature changes. Solubility will increase as the temperature increases. This means that more liquids or solids dissolve at higher temperatures. It will also increase as pressure is increased. The solution is saturated when no more of a substance can be dissolved into it.

Chemistry



This water is saturated. You can clearly see the crystals of salt that will not dissolve.

Changes in Matter

Boiling Point



The boiling point of water changes depending on your elevation. The boiling point of water at the highest point in the Rocky Mountains is $194^{\circ}F$ (90 °C).

Some phases of matter can change into other phases. This can happen when the conditions are right. A liquid heated enough will change into a gas. Scientists call the temperature at which this begins the boiling point. The boiling point of a liquid will increase as the pressure is increased. At sea level, water boils at 212°F (100°C). Water boils at a lower temperature at higher altitudes. This is because there is less air pressure pushing against the water.

Evaporation

Water is the most common liquid on the planet. It changes into a gas called water vapor as it is heated. Water is absorbed into the atmosphere through a process called evaporation.



The water in this puddle will not really disappear. It will evaporate back into the atmosphere.

Condensation

Water vapor that cools will turn back into a liquid. Cold metal or glass can help speed up this process. Little drops of water build up on a cold surface as the molecules in the water vapor begin to move more slowly. Condensation is the buildup of little drops of water.



The cold iced tea caused condensation to form on the outside of this glass.

Sublimation

Sublimation occurs when certain solids turn directly into gas. A gas will form if the molecules of a solid move fast enough. Dry ice is frozen carbon dioxide. Dry ice does not change into a liquid before changing into a gas.



Carbon dioxide freezes at -109° F (-78° C), turning it into dry ice. Dry ice gives the appearance of fog or smoke when exposed to warmer temperatures.

Melting Point

Heated enough, a solid will melt into a liquid. The melting point is the temperature at which a solid begins melting. Nearly all metals are solids at room temperature. Hard rocks will melt deep below the surface of the Earth. This is because of high temperatures. Ice cream is solid as long as it is kept cold. It becomes a liquid as it melts.



Ice cream does not remain a solid for long if left out in the Sun.

Freezing Point

The freezing point of a liquid is the temperature at which it becomes a solid. Water will freeze at 0° Celsius or 32° Fahrenheit.



Many children are elated when a liquid reaches the freezing point!

Robert Boyle

Getting to know...

Robert Boyle, the founder of chemistry, was born

in Ireland in 1627. His father was one of the richest men in the country of Great Britain. Boyle went to the best schools. He had the money to set up laboratories for his work in science.

Boyle thought about science in a new way. He believed in testing theories. He designed experiments for other scientists to repeat. He wrote down all of his results. He was the first to suggest that certain kinds of matter share similar chemical properties. He noted the difference between atoms and elements.

Compounds, Acids and Bases, Mixtures, and **Solutions**

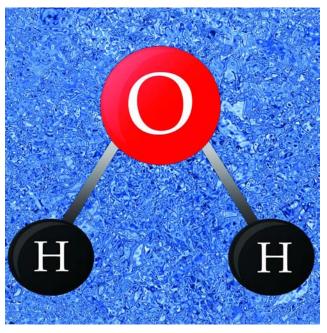
Every material is made of either a pure substance or a combination of substances. A substance is pure if it contains only one type of element. An element is a substance made up of all of the same type of atoms. Oxygen is a pure substance. It only contains oxygen atoms. Elements combine in several ways. Some of these combinations will always stay together while others separate.



This steel container is rusting. A chemical reaction occurs when the iron from the can meets the oxygen in the air.

Compounds

Simple compounds are different kinds of combined elements. They A compound is a combination of combine chemically. Water is the two or more elements. These most common compound. It is elements exist in the compound in made of 2 parts of hydrogen (H) fixed amounts. A chemical reaction and 1 part of oxygen (O). Sugar, occurs during the formation of a alcohol, baking soda, and acids are compound. The chemical reaction all different types of compounds. may produce light or heat. It might Millions of different compounds also produce some other kind of exist in nature. Scientists have the change. Compounds often look ability to form many compounds in very different from the elements laboratories. from which they came. The elements that make up the Sir Humphry Davy compound lose their identity. There is only one way to separate Humphry Davy Getting to the elements that make a was born in England know... compound. This is with another in 1778. At sixteen, chemical reaction.



Hydrogen and oxygen are gases. When they form a compound, their characteristics are very different. Combined, they become a liquid, water.

Simple Compounds



he worked for a surgeon. At first, Davy wanted to be a doctor. Then he became interested in chemistry. He began to create his own experiments.

Davy suggested that compounds break down into elements. This happens when electricity passes through them. Scientists call this electrolysis. Davy used electrolysis to separate many elements.

He also used it to study a substance called muriatic acid. We now call this hydrochloric acid. Some people thought that all acids contain oxygen. Davy found that muriatic acid has hydrogen and chlorine but no oxygen. He realized that all acids contain hydrogen.

Chemistry

Fireworks, batteries, and flashbulbs from more cameras work because of hydrochloric acid. Your stomach makes its own hydrochloric acid so you can digest your food.



Acids and Bases

Acids

An acid is a substance. It gives up hydrogen ions in solutions containing water. Some acids are weak. They contain fewer hydrogen ions. Other acids are strong. They contain more hydrogen ions.

volume 10

5.3



Battery acid is very strong. Never touch or use a leaky battery.

Inorganic Acids

Acids made from minerals are inorganic acids or mineral acids. Minerals are things found in nature. They are not plants or animals. These acids, often used to make commercial products, are liquids. Sulfuric acid is one of the most often used chemicals in the United States. We use it to make gasoline, plastics, and many other products. Some gardeners use fertilizer made from nitric acid and phosphoric acid.

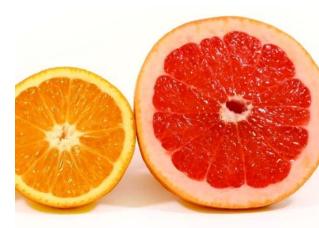


Fertilizers help gardens grow and stay beautiful.

Organic Acids

Humans make an acid in their stomachs called hydrochloric aci Hydrochloric acid helps digest, o break down, food. Mucus, a thick substance inside the stomach. Bases protects it from hydrochloric acid. Hydrochloric acid can eat through The opposite of an acid is a the lining of the stomach. This base. Bases cancel out, or happens when there is not enough neutralize, an acid. We call bases mucus to protect it. People can get dissolved in water alkalis. Bases are everywhere. a hole in their stomachs called an ulcer.

Some acids are in the foods that people eat. A food that tastes sour probably contains citric acid. Lemons, oranges, and grapefruits all contain citric acid.



Citric acid crystallized from lemon juice is used in everything from shampoo to photography.

Sometimes people get sore muscles from a buildup of lactic acid in their muscles. Milk that spoils also makes lactic acid.

	Butter that goes bad makes
r	butyric acid. Vinegar contains an
d.	acid called acetic acid. We call all
r	of these acids organic acids
k	because they occur naturally.



Soap is a common base we use everyday.

Strong Bases. Sodium hydroxide is a strong base used to make soap and other cleaning agents. Strong alkalis are often caustic. This means that they can burn skin. They can also dissolve some substances. Some alkalis are even poisonous.

Chemistry

Weak Bases. Ammonia. or ammonium hydroxide, is a weak alkali base used in many cleaning and disinfecting products. Foods that contain weak alkalis often taste bitter. So do some things that are not edible. Soap bubbles taste bitter because of the alkalis in them.



Unsweetened chocolate contains alkalis which causes it to taste bitter.

pН

People can tell how strong an acid or a base is. They find this by measuring its pH. more Acidity is how strong an acid is. Alkalinity is how strong a base is.

The symbol pH stands for "power of hydrogen." It is measured on a scale from 1 to 14. A strong acid might have a pH of 1. Sulfuric acid and hydrochloric acid have a low pH. They can burn through clothes and skin. At the other end of the scale are bases. A pH of 14 means that the solution is a strong base. Strong bases are also dangerous. A neutral solution is neither an acid nor a base. A neutral solution has a pH of 7.

There are many ways to determine the pH of something. Use litmus paper to see if a liquid is an acid or a base. The paper turns red if dipped in an acid. The paper turns blue if dipped in a base. Scientists can measure pH accurately by using a special machine called a pH meter.

It is very important to know what the pH of a substance is. A person can die if the pH of the blood changes even a little. Doctors must make sure that any solutions used to help people are neutral.



CL

3.0

1.5

1.0

0.5 5 0.3 ²

Mixtures

Many things are combinations of substances. A mixture is matter made up of different parts. The parts have different properties. The parts of a mixture can be present in any amount or proportion. No chemical reaction occurs in a mixture. There is no flash of light or heat. Heterogeneous mixtures look like they have different parts. The parts that make up a mixture keep their identities.

Heterogeneous mixtures easily separate.



A salad is an example of a heterogeneous mixture.

Making and Separating Mixtures

There are many ways to mix and separate a mixture. Simply dump two materials together to make a mixture. Cement is a mixture made by pouring water into a special

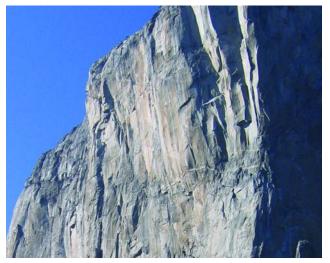
44





Cement is a mixture used for sidewalks and streets. There are four essential ingredients in cement: calcium, silicon, aluminum, and iron.

Sometimes, mixtures form over a very long period of time. Granite is a type of rock that is actually a mixture of three other kinds of rock. It is made of quartz, feldspar, and mica rock.



It can take millions of years for granite to form.

kind of sand. Mud is a mixture of dirt and water.

Chemistry

Mixtures used in preparing food, such as Italian salad dressing, are often a mixture of oil, vinegar, and spices. The dressing will separate into three layers if you let it sit long enough.



Shake a bottle of salad dressing before you use it. The greater the density of the liquid, the more it will separate and sink.

Solutions

Many types of mixtures do not seem like mixtures at all. They often look like only one substance when they are actually two or more. We call these mixtures solutions, or homogeneous mixtures.

Solids combined with liquids form some solutions. A mixture of

sugar and water can make a solution called sugar water. The sugar disappears, or dissolves into the water. Sugar water tastes sweet even though the sugar is dissolved. When the water evaporates, the sugar remains. Then the water will have changed into a gas and you will only be able to see the sugar.



Hot chocolate is a delicious solution on a cold winter day.



Air

Do you wonder what

More is in the air that you breathe? Air is actually a mixture of gases. It is mostly a solution of nitrogen and oxygen gases. There are other gases in air such as carbon dioxide and water vapor. Other gases are in the air because of natural and human activity.

Volcanos send sulfur dioxide and carbon monoxide into the air. Forest fires also add carbon monoxide. Tiny living creatures remove some of these poisonous gases from the air. Human activity adds many different gases into

Making and Separating Solutions

Two liquids combined form a solution. Alcohol dissolved into water is a solution. Evaporation separates the solution. Alcohol will evaporate first. This is because it has a lower boiling point than water.

Gold and silver become liquids if they become hot enough. Liquid gold and silver separate when heated. The gold will settle to the bottom because it is heavier than silver.

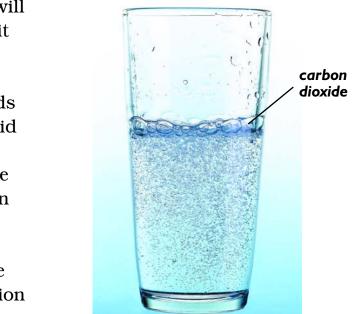
A gas and a liquid can also make a solution. Carbon dioxide mixed with water makes a solution called soda water. When soda

the air. Exhaust from cars and factories create harmful carbon monoxide. Smog forms when sunlight reacts with carbon monoxide and other gases in the air. High levels of smog can cause health problems in humans.

Humans and animals change the air around them. They do this when they breathe. They breathe in the oxygen and nitrogen. They breathe out a new mixture of air containing carbon dioxide. Plants use carbon dioxide during the process of making food called photosynthesis. One product of photosynthesis is oxygen.

46

water separates, carbon dioxide bubbles rise out of the liquid. Pressure releases from the can or bottle of soda.





We can help our environment and ourselves by reducing the number of cars on the road. We should walk, ride a bike, take a train, take a bus, or carpool whenever possible.

Reactions

Chemical Reactions

A chemical reaction occurs when chemicals combine and change. Reactions are constantly taking place. Many occur in nature. Some reactions take place inside animals and plants. The food that humans and other animals eat digests as a series of chemical reactions. Photosynthesis is a series of chemical reactions in plants. This is how plants make food.



Photosynthesis, a chemical reaction powered by the Sun, changes carbon dioxide and water into oxygen and sugar.

Other chemical reactions caused by humans take place every day in factories. Chemical reactions take

place above the surface of the Earth. Some of these reactions protect the Earth from harmful things. Chemical reactions make all life possible.

Combining Chemicals

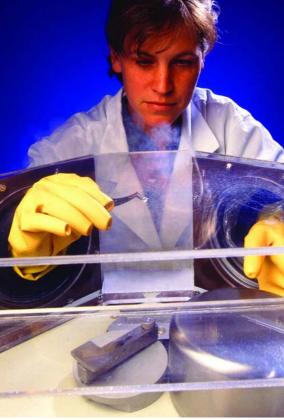
Reactants and Products. There are many different ways that chemicals combine, or react. A chemical reaction occurs when one substance is broken apart and then put together as a new substance. Reactants are the starting substances. Scientists call the new substances products. Atoms and molecules rearrange during a chemical reaction, but do not disappear or change. Reactions speed up when special chemicals are used. Reactions also release some form of energy.



The head of a match contains sulfur, glass powder, and an oxidizing agent. Friction from striking the match creates enough heat to cause a chemical reaction, and fire.

Making and Breaking Bonds

All chemical reactions involve making and breaking bonds between atoms. Every time a chemical reaction takes place, chemical bonds pull apart and come back together. Energy is required for bonds to break. This energy can take many forms. Some chemical reactions take place when there is heat or light. Other reactions need electricity to get started.



Scientists use this device to measure the heat of reactions. Scientists like you can also use a styrofoam cup and get similar results!

Mass

Catalysts

All chemical reactions conserve mass. This means that the amount of atoms at the beginning of a reaction is the same as the amount of atoms at the end of a reaction. The atoms just move places. The number of atoms is the same on both sides of a chemical equation.

A catalyst is a chemical that

changes the speed of a reaction,

reaction. Some catalysts are a

single substance. Other catalysts

but does not change in the



are a combination of many substances. Catalysts do not start reactions. Most catalysts speed up reactions. Inhibitors are catalysts that slow down reactions. Some inhibitors cause other catalysts to stop working. Catalysts help do many different things. They can allow reactions to happen at lower temperatures. Some catalysts help bring reactants close together. In manufacturing, they help to

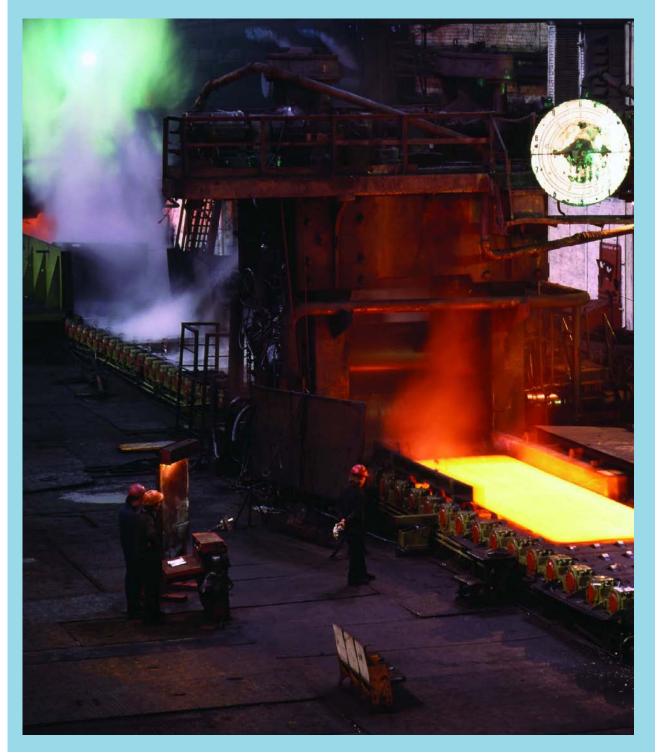
produce gasoline, rubber, and medicine. Catalysts remain at the end of a reaction, making them reusable. This helps save companies money.

Chemistry



Companies keep their catalysts a secret. If two companies are producing the same product and one has a better catalyst, that company will be more successful. The company

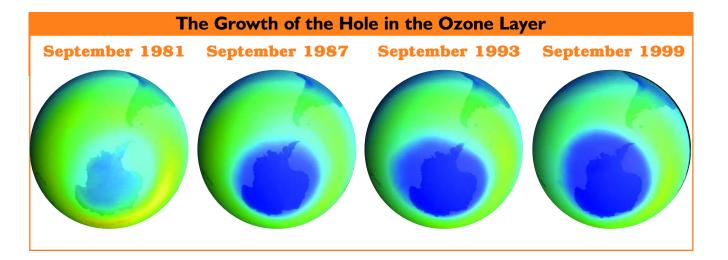
can produce more of that product faster and for a cheaper price.



Helpful Catalysts

Enzymes are catalysts made by Catalysts in the Earth's living cells. They help speed up atmosphere are causing troubles. They are causing the ozone layer to chemical reactions in the human body. Each enzyme will work in break down. Ozone protects the only one type of reaction. Enzymes Earth from harmful ultraviolet rays help digest food in the body. They from the Sun. Chlorine is a catalyst help do this in only a few hours. in the upper atmosphere. The Digestion would take several weeks chlorine comes from without enzymes. chlorofluorocarbons, or CFCs, released into the atmosphere. Chlorine allows ozone to break down into oxygen. The chlorine remains and keeps destroying ozone. This has caused a hole in the ozone layer. Governments around the world have banned the production of CFCs. This hole in the ozone now appears to be shrinking. We must continue to protect the ozone layer by reducing pollution around the world. Some scientists believe the ozone layer Thankfully, enzymes speed up the could return to normal levels by digestion process! 2075.





Harmful Catalysts

Chemistry

Oxidation and Reduction

Whenever a molecule takes up oxygen, something else has to give up oxygen. An oxidized substance combines with oxygen or loses hydrogen. We call the substance that loses oxygen or gains

hydrogen reduced. Oxidation and reduction always go together. They can also take place between the electrons of two atoms. Scientists call this an electron transfer. Photsynthesis occurs because of electron transfers. Atoms that lose electrons oxidize. Atoms that gain electrons reduce.



Some Metals Turn to Dust

Air and water can eat away iron and steel! Oxygen binds to iron molecules to make iron oxide. Layer by layer, the metal changes to a red powder called rust. When painted, rusting slows on cars,



Food

Many different kinds of chemical processes use oxidation and reduction. Food that gets old oxidizes and goes bad. Keeping food refrigerated slows down the rate of oxidation. Humans and animals also rely on this reaction. The food people and animals eat is oxidized in the cells. This helps give the body energy.



Cows graze all day to give them energy and help their bodies make milk.

Germs

A weak solution of hydrogen peroxide is a common reducing agent. The chemical formula for hydrogen peroxide is H₂O₂. When reduced, it becomes water and oxygen. A solution of hydrogen peroxide kills germs. Bleach sometimes contains stronger solutions of hydrogen peroxide. Bleaching is a process that

removes color from cotton and wool. Bleach makes clothes whiter. It also kills germs.



Bleach whitened these socks and removed germs and bacteria.

Fires

Fires are common oxidation reactions. Fire consumes a lot of oxygen. This is because the material that is burning oxidizes at a very fast rate. Flames erupt because the reaction energy is so intense. Fires need oxygen, heat, and fuel. Materials cannot burn when there is no oxygen.



Water takes heat from fire when turning into steam. It also cuts the supply of oxygen to the fire so it will go out more quickly.

Combustion

Combustion is a form of burning. Combustion helps to drive motors, propel airplanes, and launch rockets. Rockets in outer space carry oxygen in their fuel. They need the oxygen for

combustion to take place. Gasoline engines are sometimes called combustion engines. Gasoline burns inside the engine. The oxidation reaction releases energy that makes the car move.



On March 16, 1926, Dr. Robert Goddard launched the first rocket into the atmosphere. Today, rockets launched into outer space are a common occurrence.



Antoine-Laurent Lavoisier

Antoine-Laurent Lavoisier was born in France in 1743. His father and grandfather were lawyers, so he became a lawyer too. However, Lavoisier was more

interested in science.

Lavoisier wanted to make chemistry a separate science. He began to experiment with combustion. Some scientists believed that burning released a material called phlogiston. Lavoisier discovered that phlogiston does not exist. He also showed that air and water are compounds. He proved that many elements occur in different phases, as solids, liquids, or gases. Lavoisier came up with the names "oxygen" and "hydrogen."

Releasing Energy

Exothermic Reactions

The temperature of chemicals changes as they react with each other. Heat releases or is absorbed into the compound during a chemical reaction. The compound becomes warm or hot when heat releases. Scientists call this an exothermic reaction. Most of the chemical reactions that occur in nature are slow exothermic reactions. They take place so slowly that it is difficult to notice the release of heat. Exothermic reactions are often easy to see when fuels burn. Energy releases



An exothermic reaction occurs when vinegar removes the coating from a steel wool pad. When the steel meets oxygen, oxidation occurs, releasing heat.

from oxidation that occurs while fuel is burning. This is why fires are so hot.

Endothermic Reactions

Reacting chemicals become cooler when heat is absorbed. Scientists call this an endothermic reaction. Photosynthesis is one of the few natural endothermic reactions. Photosynthesis occurs when plants convert or change sunlight, carbon dioxide, and water into oxygen and food. Plants actually get a little bit cooler during photosynthesis.

Cold packs, used by doctors and athletes, lower the temperature of an injury. A cold pack contains two chemicals. The chemicals react with each other when they are mixed. The endothermic reaction absorbs heat from the injured part of the body. It helps to cool the body down.



Athletes use cold packs that do not have to be frozen. To get the pack to be cold, the athlete smashes the pack on a hard surface. The chemicals inside the pack mix together, causing them to become very cold.

Chemistry

other chemicals. Potassium nitrate (KNO₃) contains lots of oxygen. Gunpowder burns by getting its oxygen from potassium nitrate, not the air. Dynamite is an explosive made from tightly packed gunpowder. When dynamite ignites, it makes a very powerful explosion. Fireworks also use various amounts of gunpowder and other chemicals. These mixtures make the variety of colors and explosions seen in fireworks displays.

The First Fireworks More than 2,000 years ago, a Chinese

cook accidentally combined potassium nitrate, sulfur, and charcoal. The combination ignited and exploded, creating the first firecracker. The Chinese explode the "huo-yao," or fire chemicals, during celebrations such as religious holidays and weddings. Many believed that the loud noise scared away evil spirits. Today, people around the world use firecrackers as symbols of joy during holidays and events.

Explosions

Exothermic Reactions

A chemical reaction might blow up, or explode. This happens when it releases a lot of energy all at once. Explosions are very fast exothermic reactions. These reactions can happen in many different ways.

an explosive oxidation. Gases like hydrogen and propane explode if they mix with oxygen and then encounter a flame. Some liquids can explode if they become a gas, called vapor. Vapors allow molecules to bond with oxygen much more easily. Gasoline vapors can explode if a spark ignites gasoline fumes.

Huge explosions occur under unsafe conditions.

Explosive Oxidation

Explosions on the Earth often take place when there are combustible materials around. These materials bond easily with oxygen. They can catch on fire. Sometimes, we call this reaction



We create small explosions when we light a gas grill.

Other explosions do not need oxygen from the air. Explosive materials often contain chemicals that provide their own oxygen. Gunpowder is a mixture of potassium nitrate, sulfur and

Joseph Black

Joseph Black was born in 1728 in France. His father

was from the country of Ireland. He sent Black there for his education. Black then went to college in the country of Scotland. He lived there the rest of his life.

know...

Black, known for his study of heat, showed that different substances need more or less heating time to reach the same temperature. He also noticed that phase changes (solid, liquid, gas) gain or lose heat.





Fermentation

Fruit starts to smell funny as it gets too ripe. There is a change going on inside the rotting fruit. It is a chemical reaction. Small organisms or living things, called microbes change the sugars in the

fruit. They change them into carbon dioxide and either water or alcohol. Scientists call this chemical process fermentation.

Fermentation without the presence of oxygen produces alcohol and carbon dioxide. Sugar is broken down into alcohol and carbon dioxide. This happens with the help of an enzyme from the microbes. The enzyme makes a chemical reaction happen.

Humans use fermentation to make other kinds of foods and medicines. Bread would not exist without yeast. Yeast is a microbe, or living thing. Yeast converts the sugars in wheat grains into carbon dioxide and water. The gas causes the bread to rise and to look like a sponge. The yeast dies as the bread is cooked. Humans also use a fermentation process to make penicillin and other medicines.

Many types of fermented foods can make people sick. E. coli are bacteria that cause raw meat to ferment. Eating undercooked meat with E. coli in it can make a person very ill.



Archeologists discovered that people started to bake bread using yeast in 4,000 B.C. Before that, bread was usually flat.

People Who Study Chemistry

Hundreds of years ago, people called alchemists used chemical reactions. They used them to make medicines and combine metals. Some of them thought they could create gold from other metals. Some of them thought they could make people live forever. Unfortunately, they were wrong. Today, we know a lot more about how things really work.

Types of Chemists

Chemistry is the study of how chemicals react with one another and the products they make.

Chemists are people who study chemistry. There are many different kinds of chemists.

Chemistry makes life possible. Everything from the tiniest atoms, to the blood in our bodies, to the shoes on our feet is the result of chemical reactions. People will keep learning about chemistry and how it affects our lives.

Gerhard Ertl

Getting to know... In 1901, the first Nobel prizes, named for Alfred Nobel, a wealthy industrialist, recognized achievers in the fields of literature, chemistry, medicine, physics, and peace. Every year, outstanding people from all over the world, continue to receive this prestigious award.

On October 10, 2007, Gerhard Ertl of Germany received an amazing 71st birthday present, the Nobel Prize in Chemistry. His research in answering questions such as why iron rusts, how fuel cells function, and how catalysts work, helps to explain the reasons behind Earth's damaged ozone layer. Ertl's prize includes a gold medal, a diploma, and 10 million krona (Swedish) or about \$1.5 million (U.S.).



Chemistry is used to make video games!

Profession	What They Involve	Profession
Analytic chemists	using computers to study chemical reactions.	Organic chemists
Biochemists	studying the chemistry of living things like the human body.	Pharmacists
Chemical engineer	converting basic raw materials into a variety of products.	Physical chemists
Geochemist	studying the chemical composition of the Earth and other planets.	Pyrotechnicians
Nuclear chemists	studying the atom and its parts.	Toxicologist

What They Involve



studying molecules and compounds that contain carbon. These compounds include everything from fuels like gasoline to foods like candy.



using their knowledge of chemistry to sell drugs and medicines.



studying reactions and conduct many experiments.



making things explode for special effects and fireworks displays.



studying the adverse effects of chemicals on living organisms.

Types of Chemists

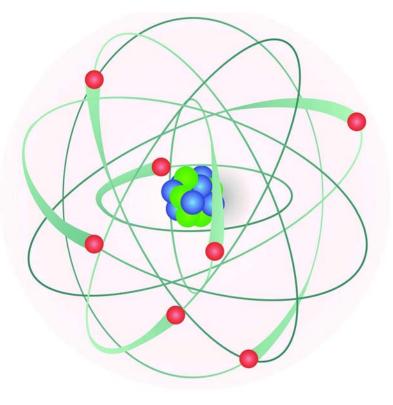
We do not hear much about women in science, but without their contributions, the world would be a very different place. This timeline highlights a few of the thousands of women who have contributed enormously to the study of chemistry.

	Women In Chemistry
1842-1911	Ellen Swallow Richards: First female to study at MIT. She pioneered the study of Home Economics.
1867-1934	Marie Curie: Discovered radium.
1896-1957	Gerty Cori: Her work in biochemistry made a great impact on research in diabetes. She was the first American woman to win the Nobel Prize in science.
1897-1956	Irene Joliot Curie: Won a Nobel Prize for chemistry for her work with radioactive elements.
1910-1994	Dorothy Crowfoot Hodgkin: Won the 1964 Nobel Prize in chemistry for her work on vitamin B12.
1920-2007	Katsuko Saruhashi conducted some of the first radioactive research showing how the effects of fallout can impact the entire Earth, not just the immediate area. She also studied acid rain and its effects.



Volume 6

Physics



By Nancy Harris

Editorial Consultant Luana Mitten Project Editor Kurt Sturm

Rourke Publishing LLC Vero Beach, Florida 32964

Table of Contents

© 2008 Rourke Publishing LLC

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced or utilized in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical including photocopying, recording, or by any information storage and retrieval system without permission in writing from the publisher.

www.rourkepublishing.com

Photo credits: Page 4 © Sourav and Joyeeta Chowdhury; Page 4b © Michael Onisiforou; Page 4c © Sebastian Kaulitzki; Page 5 © Linda Bucklin; Page 6 © Sourav and Joyeeta Chowdhury; Page 7 © wikipedia; Page 7b © Andre Nantel; Page 8 © Michael Chamberlin; Page 9 © Alan Freed; Page 9b © wikipedia; Page 10 © Orla; Page 10b © Sergey I; Page 11 © Julie Hagan; Page 12 © luri; Page 12b © courtesy of NASA; Page 13 © CHEN WEI SENG; Page 14 © courtesy of NASA; Page 14b © wikipedia; Page 15 © Amos Struck; Page 15b © Jenny Horne; Page 16 © courtesy of NASA; Page 16b © Peter Kovacs; Page 17 © Shmeliova Natalia; Page 17b © Melissa Brandes; Page 18 © Glenda M. Powers; Page 18b © Denise Kappa; Page 18c © Denise Kappa; Page 19 © wikipedia; Page 19b © wikipedia; Page 19c © wikipedia; Page 19d © Orrza; Page 19e © wikipedia; Page 20 © dlsphotos; Page 20b © courtesy of NASA; Page 21 © Edyta Pawlowska; Page 21b © Charlotte Erpenbeck; Page 21c © Stephen Aaron Rees; Page 21d © Adam Borkowski; Page 21e © No Credit; Page 23 © Nir Levy; Page 24 © demarcomedia; Page 25 © No Credit; Page 25b © Ovidiu Iordachi; Page 26 © Thomas Mounsey; Page 26b © Colin & Linda McKie; Page 27 © wikipedia; Page 28 © wikipedia; Page 28b © Foto Factory; Page 28c © courtesy of NASA; Page 29 © Alex Staroseltsev; Page 30 © Sebastian Duda; Page 30b © Mushakesa; Page 31 © CAN BALCIOGLU; Page 32 © Bob Fehringer; Page 32b © Bernhard Lelle; Page 33 © Michael C. Gray; Page 34 © Armentrout; Page 34b © Armentrout; Page 35 © Fir0002; Page 35b © Nicholas Picillo; Page 36 © Margot Petrowski; Page 36b © Armentrout; Page 36c © Brett Mulcahy; Page 37 © Roger McLassus; Page 38 © Jean Schweitzer; Page 38b © doctor bass; Page 39 © Roni Lias; Page 39b © Terry Underwood Evans: Page 40 © Joy Brown: Page 40b © Yakobchuk Vasyl: Page 41 © Marek Slusarczyk: Page 41b © iconex; pg 58a © esemelwe; pg 58b © Anatoly Vartanov; pg 58c © esemelwe; pg 58c © Royce DeGrie; pg 59 © Brad Wieland; pg62a © Alex Slobodiein; pg 62b © Stephen Morris; pg 62c © Andres Balcazar; pg 62d © Anna Sirotina; pg 62e © Tor Linelqvist; pg 62e © Matjaz Boncina; pg 62f © Niels Laan; pg 62g Miodrag Gajic.

Editor: Luana Mitten

Cover design by Nicola Stratford. Blue Door Publishing

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Rourke's world of science encyclopedia / Marcia Freeman ... [et al.]. v. cm. Includes bibliographical references and index. Contents: [1] Human life --ISBN 978-1-60044-646-7 1. Science--Encyclopedias, Juvenile. 2. Technology--Encyclopedias, Juvenile. I. Freeman, Marcia S. (Marcia Sheehan), 1937-Q121.R78 2008 503--dc22

2007042493

Volume 6 of 10 ISBN 978-1-60044-652-8

Printed in the USA

CG/CG



	Energy
	Mass, Length, and Time
Motic	on and Force
	Motion
	Force
	The Four Fundamental Forces
	Velocity and Acceleration
	Newton's Three Laws of Motion .
	Friction
	Circular Motion
	Gravity

What is Physics?

Energy

Work	•	•	•	•	•
Simple Machines		•	•	•	•
Forms of Energy	•	•	•	•	•
Conservation of Energy	•	•	•	•	•
Potential and Kinetic Energy	Y	•	•	•	•
Momentum and Collisions .	•			•	•

Electricity and Magnetism

Electric Charges	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Current	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Magnetism	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•

Heat

TemperatureExpansion and ContractionHow Heat WorksThe Uses of Heat

Waves, Sound, and Light

Waves and SoundThe Nature of LightWhere Light Comes FromReflection and Refraction

Nuclear Energy

Uses of Nuclear Energy Fission and Fusion

People Who Study Physics

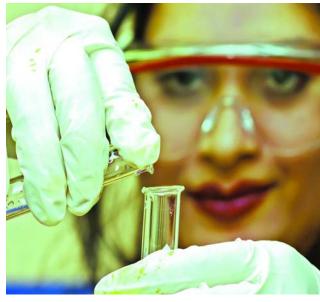
																									÷.,		.4 .5
																											.5 .5
																											.6
																											.6 .6
																											.0 .7
																											.8
																											.10
																											.12
																											.13
·	•••	·	·	•••	•	•	·	•••	•	•	•••	•	·	•••	•	·	•	• •	•	·	·	•	•••		•••	•	.15
•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	.17
•	•••	•	•		•	•	•		•	•	•••	•	•		•	•	•		•	•	•	•				•	.17
																											.17
																											.23
																											.23 .24
																											.24
·	•••	·	•	•••	•	•	·	•••	•	·	•••	•	•	•••	•	·	•	• •	•	•	•	•	•••	• •	•••	•	.20
																											.27
•	•••	•	•	•••	•	•	•			•			•		•		•	• •	•	•	•	•				•	.27
•	•••	•		•••	•••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••	•	•	 			 		•	 	•••	•	•	•••	•••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••	•	•	•	•••		•••	•	.27 .30
•	•••	•		•••	•••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••	•	•	 			 		•	 	•••	•	•	•••	•••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••	•	•	•	•••		•••	•	.27
• • •	••	•	• •	••	•	• •	• •	•••	•	• •	•••	•	• •	•••	•	•	•	•	•	• •	•	•	•••	• •	• •	•	.27 .30 .32
• • •	•	• •	• • •	•	•	• •	• • •	•	• •	• • •	•	• •	• • •	•	•	• • •	• • •	•	•	• • •	• • •	•	· · ·	• •	••	•	.27 .30 .32 .36
• • •	•	• •	• • •	•	•	• •	• • •	•	• •	• • •	•	• •	• • •	•	•	• • •	• • •	•	•	• • •	• • •	• • •	· · ·	• •	• • • •	•	.27 .30 .32 .36 .36 .37
• • •	••• ••	• • •		•••	•	• • •	• • •	•	• • •	• • •	• • • • • •	• • •	• • •	• • • •	•	• • •		•	•		• • •	•	· · ·	· ·	• •	•	.27 .30 .32 .36 .36 .37 .40
• • •	••• ••• •••	• • •		•••	•	• • •	• • •	•	• • •	• • •	• • • • • •	• • •	• • •	• • • •	•	• • •		•	•		• • •	•	· · ·	· ·	• •	•	.27 .30 .32 .36 .36 .37
• • •	• • • • • • • •	• • •	• • •	• • • • • • • •	•	• • •	• • •	• • • • • • • •	• • •	• • •	• • • • • • • •	• • •	• • •	• • • • • •	•	• • •	• • •	•	•	• • •	• • •	• • • •	· · ·	· ·	· · · · · ·	•	.27 .30 .32 .36 .36 .37 .40
• • • •	· · · · · · · · ·	• • • •		• • • • • • • • • •	•	• • • •	• • • •	• • • • • • • • • •	• • • •	• • • •	· · · · · · · · ·	• • • •	• • • •	· · ·	•	• • • •	• • • •	•	•	• • • •	• • • •	• • • •	· · ·	· · ·	· · ·	•	.27 .30 .32 .36 .36 .37 .40 .41 .43
• • • •	· · · · · · · · · · ·	• • • •	· · · ·	· · · · · · · · ·	•	• • • • •	· · · ·	• • • • • • • • • • • •	• • • •	· · · ·	· · · · · · · · ·	• • • •	• • • •	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	•	• • • •	• • • •	•	•	• • • •	• • • •	• • • •	· · ·	· · ·	· · ·		.27 .30 .32 .36 .36 .37 .40 .41 .43 .43 .45
· · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · ·	· · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	•	· · · ·	· · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · ·	· · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · ·	•	• • • • •	· · · ·	•		· · · · ·	· · · · ·	• • • • •	· · · · · · · · ·	• • •	· · ·		.27 .30 .32 .36 .36 .37 .40 .41 .43 .43 .45 .48
· · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · ·	· · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	•	· · · ·	· · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · ·	· · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · ·	•	• • • • •	· · · ·	•		· · · · ·	· · · · ·	• • • • •	· · · · · · · · ·	• • •	· · ·		.27 .30 .32 .36 .36 .37 .40 .41 .43 .43 .45
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · ·		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · ·	· · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · ·		· · · ·	· · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		· · · ·	· · · · ·	•	· · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · ·		.27 .30 .32 .36 .36 .37 .40 .41 .43 .43 .45 .48
· · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · ·		· · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · ·		· · · ·	· · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		· · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · ·	•		• • •	· · ·		.27 .30 .32 .36 .37 .40 .41 .43 .43 .45 .48 .48
· · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · ·		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	•		· · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · ·	· · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· · ·		.27 .30 .32 .36 .36 .37 .40 .41 .43 .45 .48 .48 .48

Physics

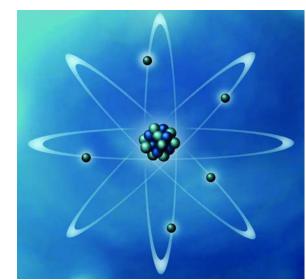
What Is Physics?

Physics is the science of how the universe works. It is a science based on experiments, observation, and measurement. Experiments involve making things change. Observation is when scientists watch what they are studying very carefully. Measurement is describing things by their weight, size, or temperature.

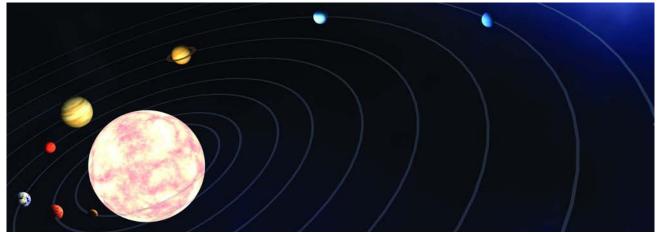
Physics looks at how tiny atoms are put together. Atoms are tiny particles that make up everything in the universe. Physics looks at how huge planets and stars move. It helps scientists understand the way matter acts. Matter includes the solids, liquids, and gases in the universe. Physics also helps scientists understand how energy acts.



A physicist uses precise measurements.



The protons and neutrons in the nucleus of an atom are surrounded by a cloud of electrons.

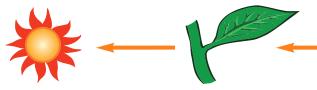


Astrophysicists are physicists who study the stars and planets.

Energy

Energy is everywhere. Energy the ability to do work. It takes on many different forms. Energy is stored inside atoms. Light and sound are forms of energy. One way or another, everything is energy. People who study physics study how energy is used. They study how energy changes.

Scientists are constantly improving the understanding of the basic, or fundamental, laws of nature. New discoveries are bein made every day. These discoverie have a big effect on how people l and what they do.



Plants get their energy from the Sun. Animals get their energy from plants or from eating other animals.

Mass, Length, and Time

The laws of physics can be described in simple terms. These terms explain the way the universe works. Scientists use units of measurement to describe what they do. This is done so that all scientists can understand each

Mass	measures the amount material in an object
Length	measures how long something is
Time	measures how long changes take

atom (AT-uhm): very small part of an element
energy (EN-ur-jee): the ability to do work
experiment (ek-SPER-uh-ment): trying to make substances change and recording what happens
matter (MAT-ur): anything that takes up space and has mass (size)
measurement (MEZH-ur-ment): saying how big something is, how much it weighs, or how hot it is
observation (ob-zur-VAY-shuhn): when scientists watch what they are studying very carefully and write down what they see
physics (FIZ-iks): the study of matter and energy

In physics, the International System of Units is used to measure things. This system is based on the metric system. The metric system uses specific units of measurement. The International System Unit of mass is the kilogram. The basic unit of length is the meter. The basic unit of time is the second. Scientists can describe almost everything by using these units in different combinations.

International	System of Units
Kilogram (kg)	used to measure mass
Meter (m)	used to measure length
Second (s)	used to measure time



International System of Units (in-tur-NASHuh-nuhl, SISS-tuhm, YOO-nitz): a standard way of measuring something

force (forss): what causes something to change its speed or it's direction of movement

mass (mass): the amount of material in an object

metric system (MET-rik, SISS-tuhm): a system of measurement based on tens that uses basic units such as the meter, liter, and gram

motion: (MOH-shuhn): when something is moving

Motion and Force

Motion

Everything is in motion. Both small things and big things move. People and animals move about on the surface of the Earth. The Earth itself rotates (turns) and moves in an orbit (circles) around the Sun. The largest view that we can have is to look at the entire universe.

Scientists often choose a certain point of view, or frame of reference, when studying physics. This allows them to study specific actions in the universe.



This river is in motion.

Force

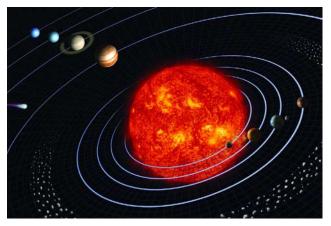
Forces are at work everywhere. A force is anything that affects the movement or shape of an object. Objects can be so small that you cannot see them with the naked eye. They can be bigger than planets and stars. Some forces pull objects together. Other forces push objects apart. Forces also affect people.

The Four Fundamental Forces

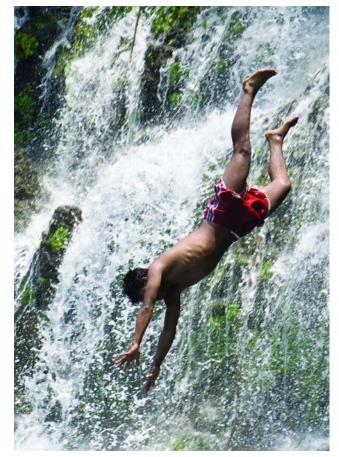
There are four basic, or fundamental, forces in nature. They are the gravitational force, the electromagnetic force, the strong nuclear force, and the weak nuclear force. These forces pass through us and exist within us. They hold everything together. All forces in nature are related to one of the four fundamental forces. Each of these forces serves a different purpose.

Gravitational Force

The gravitational force is the force of attraction, or pulling together. It is powerful enough to hold the Earth in its orbit around the Sun. Still, it is the weakest of the four fundamental forces. The gravitational force of the Earth is often called gravity. Gravity keeps things on the surface of the Earth from flying off into space. It keeps the ground on the Earth and your feet on the ground. Everything that has mass has gravity. In deep space, the force of gravity is very weak. This is because objects with mass are so far apart.



ak Gravitational force keeps the planets in orbit around the Sun.



Gravity pulls this diver into the water.

Physics

Electromagnetic Force

The electromagnetic force is either an attraction, pulling toward, or a repulsion, pushing away. The electromagnetic force occurs in many forms. Except for gravity, most of the forces in nature are caused by electromagnetic forces.



Small pieces of iron are attracted to the magnet.



electromagnetic force (i-lek-tro-mag-NET-ik, forss): a combination of electrical and magnetic forces that attract (push towards) or repel (push away)

escape velocity (ess-KAPE, vuh-LOSS-uh-tee): how fast something needs to travel to leave the Earth's gravity

gravity (GRAV-uh-tee): a force that pulls things toward Earth

nucleus (NOO-klee-uhss): center section of an atom made of protons and neutrons

radioactive decay (ray-dee-oh-AK-tiv, di-KAY): when the center of an atom breaks apart

subatomic particles (suhb-a-TOM-ik, PART-tuhkuhls): the smaller parts of an atom including the protons, neutrons, and electrons

Strong Nuclear Force

The strong nuclear force is the strongest of the fundamental forces. It only works within atoms. The strong nuclear force keeps the nucleus (center) of an atom from coming apart. It is like a glue holding the subatomic particles (or smaller parts of the atom) together. The strong nuclear force gets weaker the further the particles are from the center of the atom.

Weak Nuclear Force

The weak nuclear force causes the nuclei (centers) of some atoms to break apart. These atoms are radioactive, or unstable. They give off tiny particles over time. These are called beta particles. The weak nuclear force causes the subatomic structure, or smaller parts of some atoms, to change. This process is called radioactive decay. The weak nuclear force does not happen in all nuclei.

Velocity and Acceleration

The speed of an object is called velocity. The velocity of an object is how fast it is moving at a point in time. Velocity is measured in distance traveled per unit of time. For example, cars may drive 62

miles per hour (100 kilometers per escape velocity from the surface of hour). Most people can walk at a the Earth is about 6.6 miles (11 speed of 2 miles per hour (3 kilometers) per second. This is kilometers per hour) and run at a almost 25,000 miles per hour speed of 17 miles per hour (27 (about 40,000 kilometers per kilometers per hour). They can hour). only run this fast for a short time. Scientists often measure velocity in Acceleration Acceleration is a change in kilometers per second (km/s).

Escape Velocity

In outer space, velocity is measured in a specific way. It is measured by how fast something is moving away from or toward the Earth. An object must travel a certain speed to escape the or a moon. This is called the



The Space Shuttle launches into the night sky.

escape velocity. This speed depends on the mass of the planet or moon. It also depends on the distance of the object from the center of the planet or moon. The

9

velocity (speed) over a certain time. In physics, anything that is speeding up is accelerating. The speed of a car changes when it starts to move. The car is accelerating. When it slows down, it is decelerating (also called negative acceleration). A dropped gravitational force (pull) of a planet object accelerates as it falls. This acceleration is caused by gravity. Gravity keeps things on the surface of the Earth from flying off into space. The acceleration caused by the gravity of the Earth is sometimes called g. At the surface of the Earth, the acceleration caused by gravity is equal to 1g.



SheiKra, a roller coaster in Florida, pulls 4g.

Physics

Newton's Three Laws of Motion

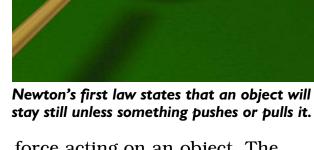
All objects follow certain rules. These rules are called laws because they apply to everything everywhere. Isaac Newton discovered the three laws of motion. These laws help scientists understand how objects move.

First Law of Motion

Newton's first law of motion is sometimes called the law of inertia. It says that an object that is not moving will stay still. It will stay still unless something pushes or pulls it. It also says that an object that is in motion will keep moving. The object will travel in a straight line at a constant speed. Its movement will only change if it is affected by a force. On the Earth, gravity is a big force that affects objects. Without gravity, all objects would stay still or keep traveling in a straight line. The Moon would fly off its orbit if the Earth's gravity did not pull on it. It is easier to see the law of inertia in outer space. A tool released by an astronaut floats away until it bumps into something.

Second Law of Motion

The second law of motion says that acceleration is caused by a



olume IO

6.

force acting on an object. The acceleration (increased speed) of an object depends on the amount of the force acting on it. It also depends on the mass of the object. Light objects, like pens and pencils, are easy to pick up. They require very little effort, or force, to lift. Heavy objects, like a refrigerator, require a lot of force to move.



The second law of motion says that acceleration is caused by a force acting on an object.



know...

etting to Isaac Newton was born in the country of England in 1642. At first, he was not a great student and ran the family farm. He began to show genius when he returned to school. Newton went to Cambridge University. In 1665, Cambridge was closed because of a deadly disease called the plague. Newton went home for a year to think about science. During this time, he discovered the law of gravity and the three laws of motion. He also discovered a type of mathematics called calculus. He invented the reflecting telescope. He learned about optics, the science of light.

Newton was elected to the famous Royal Society of London. He entered politics and was elected to Parliament. Newton was made a knight in 1705.

One way of writing the second law of motion is to say that force (F) is equal to mass (m) times acceleration (a).

ma Newton's second law is usually written F = ma.

Third Law of Motion

Newton's third law of motion says that every action causes a reaction that is equal and opposite. A cup on a table pushes down on the table with the force of gravity. The table pushes up with an equal force to keep the cup from moving. A person pulling on a rope is using force on the rope. This is called the action force. The rope uses the opposite force on the person. This is called the reaction force.

Sir Isaac Newton



You experience Newton's third law when you play tug of war.



action force (AKT-shuhn, forss): the force that is acting on something, for example someone pulling on a rope

inertia (in-UR-shuh): an object at rest will stay at rest and an object in motion will stay in motion, unless acted on by an outside force

reaction force (ree-AK-shuhn, forss): a force that reacts against a force being put on it

Physics

Friction often causes heat. It the satellite as it moves forward causes your hands to get warm keeps it from falling back to Earth. when you rub them together. A ball on a string can be swung Friction from air resistance makes around in a circle. The pull of the string on the ball is the centripetal meteorites (rock or metal from space) get very hot. They burn up force. The force on the string becomes stronger as the ball in a bright streak across the sky. moves faster and faster. **Circular Motion** Centripetal **Acceleration Spins** Anything that spins or goes more Ice Skaters

around in a circle is experiencing circular motion. Wheels and tops spin. Windmills and merry-gorounds go around in circles. Many forces influence objects in circular motion. Every part of the spinning object experiences inertia and wants to fly off in a straight line.

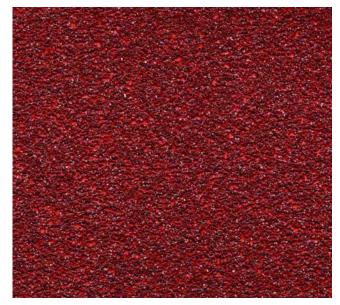
One force pulls the object toward the center of the circle. This is called centripetal force. It causes the object to change direction constantly and travel in a circle. Another force is directed out from the circle. This is called centrifugal force.

Centripetal Force

Satellites in space experience circular motion. Gravity is the centripetal force that keeps the satellite in a circular orbit. Momentum keeps it moving forward in the orbit. The inertia of

Friction

Friction is the force that slows objects down when they rub against each other. Friction holds objects in place until the forces acting on them become bigger than the force of friction. Friction depends on the mass and the types of surfaces being rubbed. Different materials cause different amounts of friction. Rubbing sandpaper on wood causes a lot of friction.



Rough surfaces create more friction.

Wind Resistance

Friction keeps people from sliding around when they walk. The gases in air cause friction on moving objects. Air molecules, or the small parts of air, cause wind resistance when they bump against objects. Airplanes and cars have

smooth surfaces to decrease (slow down) wind resistance. The brakes on cars and bicycles use friction to slow the cars and bicycles down. Spaceships returning to Earth are slowed down by the friction between the atmosphere and the moving spaceship. This type of friction is called drag. It causes the outside of the spaceship to get verv hot.



Heat-resistant tiles protect the space shuttle during re-entry.



Friction Slows Down Spaceships Spaceships must

travel very fast to reach other planets like Mars and Jupiter. They need to slow down when they get there. One way they slow down is by flying through the upper atmosphere of the planet. Using friction to slow down a spaceship is called aerobraking.

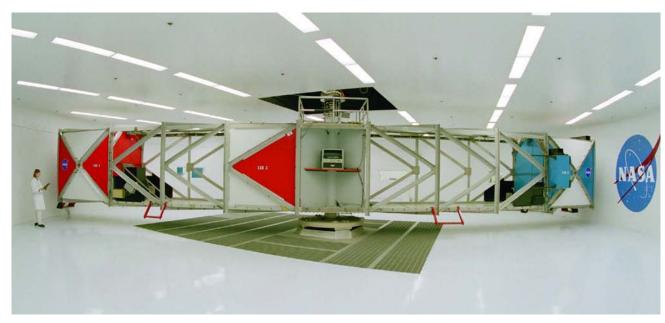
Ice skaters experience circular motion when they spin! They can spin very fast by pulling their arms in tight. This increases their centripetal acceleration. They slow down if they stretch their arms out. This causes their centripetal acceleration to decrease.

Physics

Centrifugal Force

Centrifugal forces on the ball as it travels in a circle keep the string tight. The string will break if the

centrifugal force becomes too strong. Then, inertia will cause the ball to fly off in a straight line from the circle.



NASA uses a 20g centrifuge to test the reactions of pilots and astronauts to acceleration above those experienced in the Earth's gravity.



atmosphere (AT-muhss-fihr): the gases around a planet

centrifugal force (sen-TRIF-yuh-guhl, forss): a force that pushes you away from the center

centripetal force (sen-TRIP-uh-tuhl, forss): a force that pulls you toward the center

drag (drag): slowing something down

friction (FRIK-shuhn): when things rub against each other, it causes them to slow down

wind resistance (wind ri-ZISS-tuhnss): a force that pushes against another object



Chemists use a centrifuge to separate parts of a liquid.

Gravity

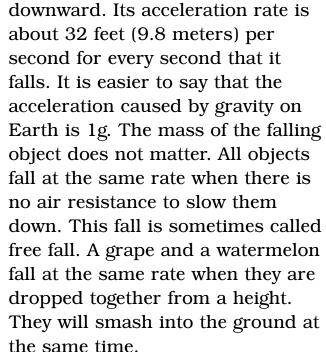
Gravity is a force that pulls objects or masses together. Everything that has mass also has gravity. Gravity keeps the Earth in orbit around the Sun. It also holds the Moon in orbit around the Earth. The Earth is a strong gravitational source because it has a very high mass. A falling object is pulled toward the ground by the Earth's gravity.



The Sun's gravity keeps the planets in their orbits.

Free Fall

An object dropped near the Earth's surface accelerates





Despite their size and weight, a melon and a grape will fall at the same speed.

Weight

Gravity gives a person weight. Mass and weight are different. Mass is the amount of material in an object. Weight is the force of gravity on an object's mass. People weigh a lot less on the Moon than

they weigh on the Earth. The gravity on the Moon is about one-sixth as strong as the gravity on Earth. The force of gravity is stronger when the mass of the object is greater.



Gravity Is Still Felt in Space

A space station orbiting the Earth has some microgravity, or a very tiny amount of gravity. It is traveling fast enough, and is far enough away from the Earth, to orbit (circle) and be in a constant free fall. The Earth's gravity is pulling on the space station, but the space station's forward speed is keeping it from falling back to Earth.



Newton's Universal Law of Gravity

The gravitational attraction between two objects depends on two things. They are the mass of the objects and the distance between them. Isaac Newton suggested that every particle (tiny piece) in the universe attracts every other particle. The force of this attraction decreases as the distance between objects increases.

The Moon has a gravitational effect on the Earth even though it is far away. The ocean on the side nearest the Moon is pulled toward it. This creates tides. The Earth is also pulled toward the Moon. The ocean tides change as the Moon orbits (circles) the Earth. The gravitational force of the Sun also affects the tides. Twice each month. the Sun and Moon are in line with each other. The gravitational effects of the Sun and Moon together cause very high tides.



The Moon's gravitational pull causes two high tides and two low tides every day.

Energy

Work

Physics is the study of force and energy. Energy is changed from one form to another when a force acts on an object. This change is sometimes called work. Energy is the ability to do work.

Simple Machines

Simple machines are simple tools that make work easier. We have some simple machines built in our bodies. Do you remember when you were missing your two front teeth? Without your built in simple machines (teeth), it's more work to bite and chew. Teeth are simple machines called a wedge. Other simple machines are inclined planes, wheels, pulleys, levers, and screws.





We enjoy many delicious foods with the help of our teeth.

Throughout history people have used different types of simple machines to make their work easier. Think about how early hunters put sharp wedge shapes at the end of a stick to create a weapon.

hunter.

Physics

A simple machine has very few The amount of work needed for parts. Some simple machines, any job is the same. An example of such as pulleys, have moving a delivery driver is an easy way to parts. Other simple machines, for understand how this formula example inclined planes, have no works. If the driver uses a short moving parts. All compound, or ramp, the distance he moves is complex, machines are made by also short. But a short ramp is steep so the driver would need to putting simple machines together. use a lot of force to push a big box Lever up a short ramp.



The bicycle is a complex machine that contains many simple machines.

In physics, scientists define work as how a force acts on an object to move it. Another way to write this definition is with a formula.

Force x Distance = Work

Common Simple Machines					
Simple Machine	<u>Example</u>				
inclined plane					
lever					
pulley					
wheel					
wedge					
screw					

18

If the driver uses a long ramp, the distance he pushes the big box is farther. But the long ramp is not as steep as the short ramp so the driver would use less force to push the big box up a long ramp.





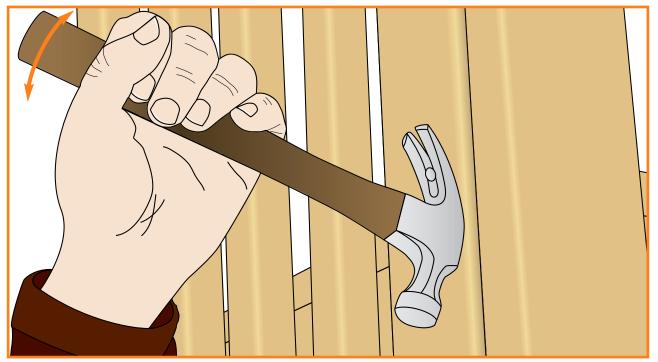
The first ramp is longer, but its slope is gentler. The second ramp is shorter, but its slope is steep. Both jobs take the same amount of work to complete.

20	Physics	Physics
Inclined Plane		Pulley

Inclined Plane

It would be very difficult to lift the wheelbarrow into the truck.

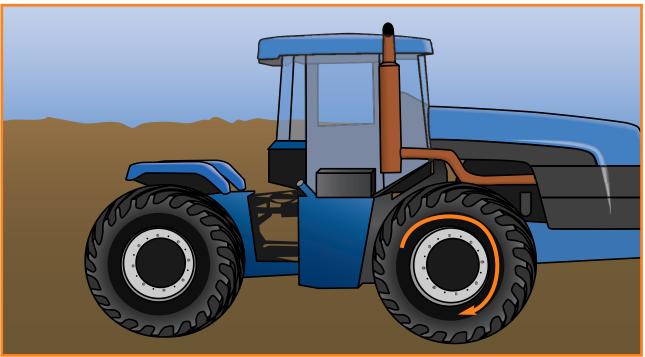
Lever



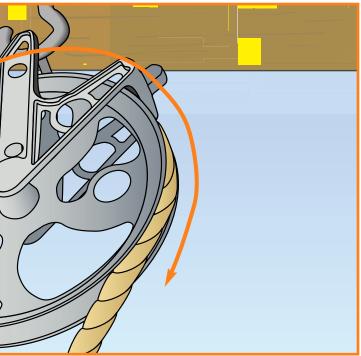
Have you ever used your fingers to pull a nail from a piece of wood? The lever makes the job much easier.

A pulley makes it easier to lift heavy objects. Adding more pulleys makes the heavy object seem even lighter.

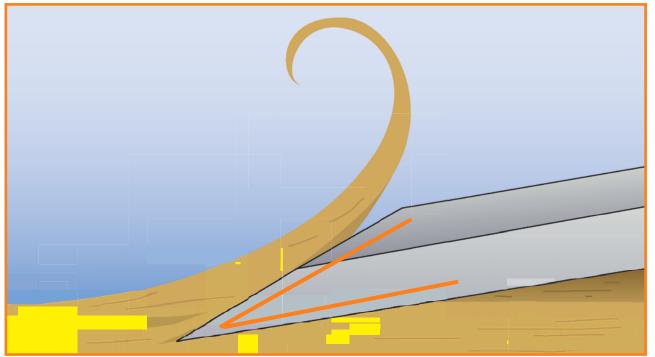
Wheel



It's hard to imagine life without the wheel.

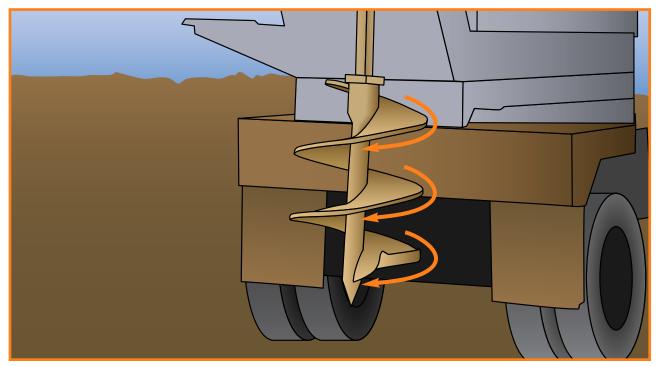


Wedge



Wedges such as axes, knives, and scissors make it easier to separate or split objects.

Screw



A screw can drill a hole in something, or it can be used to hold two things tightly together.

Forms of Energy

Energy comes in many different forms. You may see and hear energy in the form of light and sound every day.

Every moving object has energy. Even objects that are standing still have energy. Wood put in a fireplace has energy. Some of that energy is released as flames when the wood burns. In fact, everything is a form of energy—even you.



Every noise is a form of sound energy.

Conservation of Energy

Energy can never be created or destroyed. It can only be



Every color and shade is a form of light energy.

converted, or changed, into another form. This principle is known as the conservation of energy. The various forms of energy include mechanical energy, electromagnetic energy, chemical energy, heat energy, and nuclear energy.



distance (DISS-tuhnss): the amount of space from one place to another

machine (muh-SHEEN): a device or tool that uses energy to make work easier

work (wurk): a force acting on an object to move it across a distance

All forms of energy are related to one another. Energy can be transformed from one form into another. The total amount of energy stays the same. The electric energy in a battery can be converted into mechanical energy in a motor.



The potential energy in the battery becomes kinetic energy when the toy is turned on.

Potential and Kinetic Energy

Potential Energy

There are many ways to describe energy. Physicists often describe energy in two ways. Energy can be stored up, waiting to be released. This is called potential energy. A ball sitting on the top of a hill has potential energy. A rocket waiting to be launched has potential energy stored up in its fuel.

Kinetic Energy

The ball releases energy when it rolls down the hill. This energy in action is called kinetic energy. The rocket has kinetic energy when its engines ignite and lift it into space. An object has more kinetic energy the faster it moves.



Example of Kinetic and Potential Energy A bouncing ball has

both kinetic and potential energy.

The ball has only potential energy before it is dropped. It has both kinetic and potential energy as it falls. The ball has only kinetic energy when it hits the floor. It gains potential energy again as it bounces back up. Each bounce converts energy to heat, sound, and

fast movements

called vibrations.

Eventually, the ball

will lose its energy

and stop

bouncing.

Before it is dropped, the ball has potential energy.

When it falls, it has kinetic AND potential energy.

Energy comes from many different sources. Solar energy is energy from the Sun. The Sun provides the Earth with a lot of energy every day. Wind is a form of energy caused by changes in air temperature. Tides in the ocean contain energy as they rise and fall. Water in rivers and lakes also contains energy.

Geothermal Energy

Other forms of energy include geothermal energy from the Earth itself. Heat rises from deep inside the Earth. It escapes through cracks in the crust. Geysers and hot springs are sources of geothermal energy. Volcanos and earthquakes are also forms of energy.

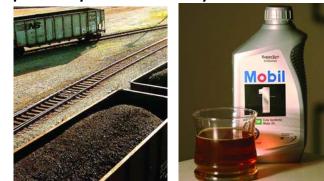
Renewable and nonrenewable energy sources

Humans use oil and coal from the Earth's crust. Coal and oil supplies will eventually run out. They are nonrenewable energy sources. Other energy sources are renewable. They will never run out. Solar energy is a renewable energy source. Water can be used as a renewable energy source too. Dams are built on rivers to capture hydroelectric power, or power from running water.

There Are Many Sources of Energy



Geothermal energy is now being used in some places to produce electricity.



Coal and oil are nonrenewable energy sources.



Solar power and water power are renewable energy sources.

Physics

Momentum and Collisions

Momentum is another word for inertia. All moving objects have momentum. They keep moving until some force stops them or changes their direction. Momentum is a form of energy. The momentum of an object depends on its mass (size) and velocity (speed).

Conservation of Momentum

A collision happens when two objects hit each other. A moving object that collides with another object passes on its momentum. The momentum of the two objects stays the same, or constant. When no other forces are affecting the objects, this is called conservation of momentum.



conservation of energy (kon-sur-VAY-shuhn, EN-ur-jee): energy can be changed into another form, but cannot be created or destroyed

kinetic energy (ki-NET-ik, EN-ur-jee): energy caused by movement

momentum (moh-MEN-tuhm): the force of something when it is moving

potential energy (puh-TEN-shuhl, EN-ur-jee): stored energy



Faster speeds produce a greater impact when two cars collide.

Conservation of momentum is used in the game of pool. The white ball, or cue ball, transfers its momentum when it hits another ball. This ball moves away at a similar speed as the cue ball. Rockets that travel into outer space use conservation of momentum. The rocket gains momentum from the force. or thrust, pushed out of its engine. The thrust goes one way, and the rocket goes the other way.



The larger and heavier a rocket is, the more thrust it will need to lift off.

Electricity and Magnetism

Electricity and magnetism are phases of matter. For example, everywhere. Electricity is a form of electric forces let solids be solids energy. Magnetism is also a form of and liquids be liquids. energy. They make it possible for televisions, computers, and many **Electric Charges** other electronic devices to exist. Medicine uses them to help treat The electromagnetic force illnesses in humans and animals.

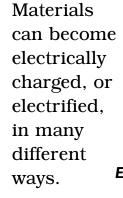


Magnetism stores the data in a computer even when it is turned off.

Electric motors use magnetism to convert electricity into motion. Generators use magnetism to create electricity. Electric forces exist in nature too. They determine



between particles is one of the basic forces of nature. An electric charge occurs when an atom has too many or not enough electrons. An electron is a particle that moves around the center of an atom.



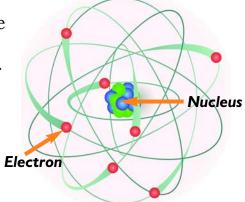


Illustration of a Atom

Physics

know

Benjamin Franklin

Benjamin Franklin was born in the city of Boston in 1706.

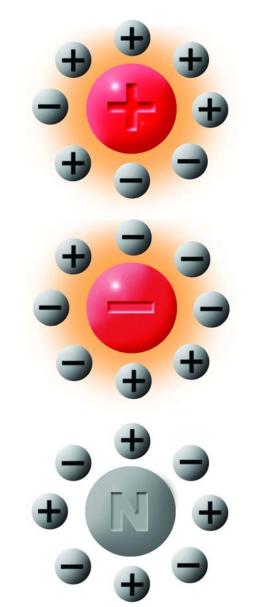
He went to school for only two years. Franklin made candles for his father and worked in a printing shop with his brother. He made money in business in the city of Philadelphia. Franklin invented a wood-burning stove, bifocal glasses, the postal system, and the first public library in America.

Franklin performed many experiments. He was interested in electricity. He thought that objects are positive, negative, or neutral. Franklin flew a kite during a thunderstorm to test his theory. (This is a very dangerous experiment!) He tied a metal key to the string. The key touched a Leiden jar, which stores electric charges. Franklin also invented the lightning rod. This metal pole attracts lightning and keeps it from hitting buildings.

Positive and Negative Charges

There are two different kinds of charged particles, negative and positive. A negative charge comes from electrons. A material that has extra electrons is negatively

charged. A positive charge comes from protons. A proton is a particle found in the center section of an atom. A material that loses electrons is positively charged. There are more protons in the material than there are electrons. A neutral atom has the same number of protons and electrons.



You can find out if an atom is positive, negative, or neutral by comparing the number of protons and electrons it contains.

Rubbing a balloon on hair will make the hair stand up. The balloon has picked up a negative electric charge from the hair. The hair will have a positive electric charge. Hair is attracted to the balloon because charges that are opposite attract each other. Two negatively charged balloons will move away from each other. Charges that are the same push away, or repel, one another.

Static Electricity

Electricity that does not flow is called static electricity. Friction between different materials can build up static electricity. Running a comb through hair will charge the comb with static electricity. Then the comb can pick up little pieces of paper. An inflated balloon rubbed on wool will stick to the wall or ceiling of a room.

You can electrify your body with static electricity by rubbing your shoes on a wool rug. The static electron (i-LEK-tron): a particle that moves charge is removed, or discharged, around the nucleus (center part) of an atom when you sneak up on your **negative charge** (NEG-uh-tive, charj): one of the friends and zap them. Under the two kinds of charges, positive and negative, that go in opposite directions in an electrical current right conditions, you can even see **positive charge** (POZ-uh-tive, charj): one of the a spark! two kinds of charges, positive and negative, that go in opposite directions in an electrical current

out more

It is easier to build up static electricity in the wintertime because

there is less humidity in the air. When you come in from the cold and take off your hat, your hair becomes electrically charged and stands up. This is because electrons moved from your hair to your hat when you pulled off your hat.

The hairs on your head are all now positively charged. We know that charges that are the same push away from each other, and that's just what the hairs on your head are doing, giving you a hair raising new look!





static electricity (STAT-ik, i-lek-TRISS-uh-tee): electricity that builds up on an object and does not flow

Physics

Conservation of Electric Charges

Electric charge is conserved. This means that an electric charge cannot be created or destroyed. An object can become electrified. This is because the electric charge is transferred from one object to another. One object gains some negative charge. The other object gains the same amount of positive charge.

Current

Circuits

Electricity that flows, or moves, is called electric current. An electric current is usually made of a stream of electrons. The electrons are moving from one place to another. A circuit is the complete path of an electric



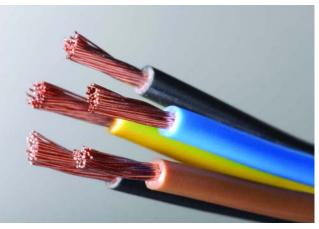
circuit (SUR-kit): a group of electronic parts that are connected and make a circle

conductor (kuhn-DUK-tur): matter that allows heat to pass through it

fuse (fyooz): a device that stops electricity flowing when there is too much current

volt (vohlt): a unit used to measure the electrical force in a battery

current. A simple circuit looks like a loop. Metal wires are often used to conduct, or pass on, electric current. Electrons flow easily through metals. Copper is a metal that can be stretched into wires. It is a good conductor of electricity. This is because electrons flow easily through it. Copper wires are used to conduct electricity in houses and other buildings.



Copper wire is used in many electronics and telecommunications products.

Amps

The amount of electric current flowing through a material is measured in units called amps. Wires can handle only a certain amount of electricity.

Fuse

The thicker the wire, the more electricity can flow through it. A wire will heat up if too much electricity flows through it. Sometimes, wires get so hot that

they melt the insulation protecting sunlight into electricity. Even the them. This can start a fire. A fuse forces inside of an atom can be is used to limit the amount of used to produce energy. current flowing through wires. The fuse stops the flow of electricity. It **Batteries** does this if the number of amps, Batteries are used to or amount of current, gets too more store energy in the high. The fuse breaks in order to form of chemical energy. The chemical protect wires that cannot handle energy is stored in a battery cell. Each higher currents.



It is much easier to replace a blown fuse than to repair fire damage or replace damaged electronics.



damage.

What Provides Current

Many different things provide current. Batteries store chemical energy. Solar panels convert





battery cell has two ends, the positive and the negative end. The chemicals inside a battery are called electrolytes.

A chemical reaction happens inside the battery. A chemical reaction is when chemicals combine and change. The chemical reaction makes electrons flow from the positive end to the negative end. Different chemicals can provide different amounts of electricity.

Electrical force is often measured in volts (V). A volt is the force that makes electrons flow around a circuit. Flashlights and radios often use 1.5 volt batteries. Some batteries can be recharged, or charged again, when they run out of power.

Batteries are used as power for many different electronic devices. Tiny Circuit breakers protect electrical circuits from batteries are used in watches. Portable computers often use rechargeable batteries. Cars have big rechargeable batteries to start their engines. Some cars even run completely on batteries. They are called electric cars.

Physics

Magnetism

Magnetism is an invisible force that brings some materials together or pushes them away from each other. It can also attract or repel other materials. It is usually found in materials containing iron. A magnet is usually made out of iron. Magnets can attract or repel other magnets. They can also attract pieces of iron that are not magnetic. These pieces of iron will become temporarily magnetized, or made into magnets.



Iron filings become temporarily magnetized when they touch other iron filings that are in contact with the magnet.

Poles

Every magnet has two ends called poles. These poles are called north and south. Poles behave like electrical charges in many ways. Different poles attract each other. North poles are attracted to south poles. South poles are attracted to north poles. Poles that have the same charge repel each other. South repels south, and north repels north.



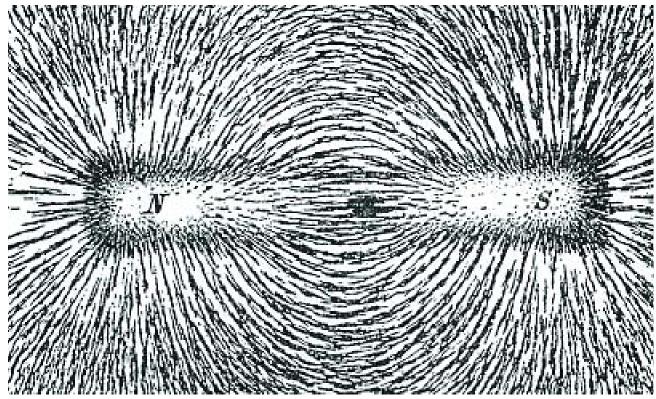
Like poles repel each other, but in this position they can lie side by side.

Magnetic poles are also different than electrical charges. Magnetic poles cannot be separated from each other. It does not matter how many pieces you cut a magnet into. Each piece will always have a north pole and a south pole.

Magnetic Field

All magnets produce a magnetic field. This is the area around the

magnet where the magnetic force from the magnet's north pole to its can be felt. Magnetic fields travel south pole.



Placing iron filings on a piece of paper covering Electromagnet a bar magnet shows the magnetic field.



Make Your Own Magnet

Hold a pair of scissors in one hand. Hold a magnet in your other hand. Rub one end of the magnet along the metal scissors. Lift the magnet and repeat the same movement as before. Continue for 10-12 strokes. Remember to always lift the magnet between strokes, and always use the same end of the magnet. Now your scissors should act like a magnet. Experiment to see how many household items you can pick up.

Magnets can be created with electricity. Every electric current can make a magnetic field. Current flowing through a wire creates a magnetic field around the wire. This can be seen with a compass. Put a compass needle close to an electric wire. The needle will change the direction it is pointing.

Wire that carries a current can be wrapped around a piece of iron to make a powerful magnet. It is called an electromagnet. Magnets can also be used to produce electricity. A magnet that is moved close to a wire can create an electric current in the wire.

Physics



Maglev trains use magnetic levitation.

Using Magnets

Magnets are used everywhere. Electromagnets can pick up heavy objects. They are also used in speakers to make sound. Magnets and electromagnets help electric motors spin. Magnetic disks are used to store information for computers.

Videotapes and audiotapes record pictures and sound with electromagnets. Scientists use magnetic fields to study and control subatomic particles, or the smaller particles in atoms.

electromagnet (i-lek-tro-MAG-nit): a magnet made by an electric current

magnet (MAG-nit): a metal object that pulls iron or steel toward it

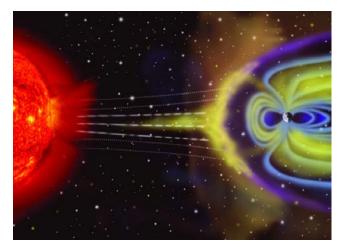
pole (pohl): the north or south end of a magnet



Magnetic discs are used inside computers.

Earth

Earth itself is a giant magnet. Like any magnet, the Earth has a magnetic field. The direction of Earth's magnetic field can be seen with a compass. The compass needle always points toward the north magnetic pole. Earth's magnetic field protects the planet. It protects it from charged particles thrown out by the Sun. These charged particles are called solar wind. Some other planets have magnetic fields too.



The magnetosphere shields the surface of the Earth from the charged particles of the solar wind.



more

Compasses

Have you ever gone for a hike in the

woods and lost your sense of direction? You might think you came one way, but as you backtrack, you find yourself in unfamiliar territory and wondering which way to go. Maps are helpful for showing a route, but if we don't know east from west, our map isn't going to be very useful. Knowing that the Sun rises in the east isn't much help at noon, when it is directly overhead.

There is a tool that can help us find our way. It is the compass. A compass uses a magnetic needle that spins freely on a post, or pivot point. The needle spins so that one end is always pointing to the Earth's magnetic north pole. We can use the markings on our compass to find our way in any direction.

A compass has four main points: north, south, east, and west. These are the cardinal points. Between these points lie northwest, northeast, southwest, and southeast. Even more detailed are points such as north-

northeast, halfway between north and northeast.



James Clerk Maxwell

James Clerk Maxwell was born in the country of

Scotland in 1831. His mother taught him at home, but she died when Maxwell was eight years old. He was sent to school and did well in mathematics. Maxwell decided to study physics. He went to Cambridge University.

Maxwell began to perform experiments with electricity and magnetism. Physicists wondered how electric charges traveled across space. They wondered how they influenced other charges. They found that charges create electric fields. They found that magnets create magnetic fields.

Maxwell joined these fields into a single electromagnetic field. He used mathematical equations now called Maxwell's equations. He showed that electromagnetic energy moves as waves. A wave is energy that moves through air or water. The speed of these waves is the speed of light. Maxwell found that light is made of electromagnetic waves.

Getting to

know...

Heat

Heat is a form of energy. It is created when molecules (small pieces) in an object move around. The study of heat and how it is used is called thermodynamics. Heat is very important to life on Earth. The Sun warms our planet and helps create weather. Heat from our bodies helps them work properly.

Temperature

Temperature is how hot or cold something is. The temperature of an object tells us how fast the molecules in the object are moving. Different materials behave in different ways depending on their temperature.

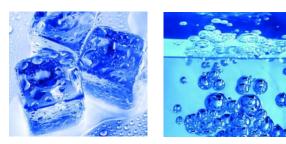
A temperature scale is a system for measuring how hot or cold something is. There are three common temperature scales: Kelvin, Celsius, and Fahrenheit. In the United States, the Fahrenheit scale is used to describe how hot or cold the weather is.



Temperature Scales

Fahrenheit Scale

In the United States, temperature is measured in degrees fahrenheit. Water freezes into ice at 32 degrees Fahrenheit ($32^{\circ}F$). Water boils at 212 °F.



Celsius Scale

Temperature is often measured using the Celsius scale. Celsius (°C) is based on the freezing point and boiling point of water. Water freezes at 0°C, or 0 degrees Celsius. Water boils at 100°C. An average room temperature is about 20°C.

Kelvin Scale

Another way of measuring temperature is to use the Kelvin scale. The Kelvin (K) scale begins at the lowest possible temperature. This is 0 K, or -273°C. Temperatures measured with the Kelvin scale are called absolute temperatures.

	Ne
Absolute zero (precisely, by definition)	0 H
Melting point of ice	27
Water's boiling point	373

Expansion and Contraction

Most things expand, or get bigger, as they get hotter. Most materials contract, or get smaller, as they get colder. The molecules (small pieces) that make up material move faster as they get hotter. They take up more space as they move more quickly. A solid that is heated enough will become



When water boils and becomes steam, it escapes from the kettle.

elvin	Celsius	Fahrenheit
K	<i>-</i> 273.15°C	-459.67°F
′3.15 K	0°C	32°F
73.1339 K	100°C	212°F

a liquid. A liquid that is heated enough will boil. It then turns into a gas, or vapor.

Rates of Expansion and Contraction

Different materials expand and contract at different rates. Solids and liquids expand only a little bit when they are heated. The expansion and contraction of some rocks makes them crack. This happens when the temperature gets really cold. Many paved streets and sidewalks crack. This happens as they are exposed to temperature changes over time.

Heat

Gases expand a lot when they are heated. Heated air is used to fill hot-air balloons. Hot air rises

Physics

because it is less dense (lighter) than cooler air. It takes up more space because there is more space between the molecules. This allows the balloon to rise into the sky.



Hot air balloonists control their height by adding hot air to the balloon, or by releasing it.



Galileo Galilei

Galileo Galilei was born in Italy in 1564. He was an Italian physicist, mathematician, astronomer, and philosopher.

One of Galileo's inventions was the thermoscope. With a thermoscope the temperature is read using the engraved metal disc on each bulb. If there are some bulbs at the top and some at the bottom, but one floating in the gap, then the one floating in the gap tells the temperature. If there is no bulb in the gap then you take the temperature of the bulb at the bottom of the gap, add it to the temperature of the bulb at the top of the gap, and divide the result by two.



changes. Warmer temperatures cause the mercury to expand and rise in the tube. Colder temperatures cause it to contract and fall in the tube. People can use mercury thermometers to measure body temperature. Digital thermometers use electronic parts to measure temperature. People can also use a digital thermometer to measure body temperature. Different types of digital thermometers can be placed in the ear or under the tongue.



Measuring Temperature 1597 Galileo Galilei invents the thermoscope.

1612 Santorio Santorio applies a scale to an air thermoscope and thus is thought to be the inventor of the thermometer as a temperature measuring device.

1654 Grand Duke of Tuscany, Ferdinand II (1610-1670) makes the sealer liquid-in-glass thermometer.

38

more

Thermometers There are many ways to tell how warm or cold it is outside. Humans get

goose bumps on their skin when it is really cold. A more accurate way to measure temperature is to use a thermometer. Thermometers are used to measure the temperature of many different things.

Some thermometers are used to control, or regulate, temperature. They are called thermostats. Thermostats in car engines turn on a cooling fan when the engine gets too hot. Other thermostats regulate the temperature of refrigerators and air conditioners. Heaters have thermostats that tell them when to turn on.

The metal mercury is used in many thermostats. The mercury is kept inside a sealed glass tube. The metal will expand or contract as the temperature

His thermometer has an alcohol filling. Although this is a significant development, his thermometer is inaccurate and there is no standardized scale in use.

1714 Gabriel Fahrenheit (1686-1736) makes the first thermometer using mercury. The more predictable expansion of mercury, combined with improved glassworking techniques, leads to a much more accurate thermometer. The Fahrenheit scale is still in use today.

1742

The Swedish scientist Anders Celsius (1701-1744) devises a thermometer scale dividing the freezing and boiling points of water into 100 degrees. The Celsius Scale is still in use

today.

1848 Lord Kelvin of Scotland (1824 - 1907) proposes the absolute temperature scale, or Kelvin scale. The kelvin (K) is the current standard unit of temperature measurement.

Physics

How Heat Works

Heat is the energy that an object has because the molecules (small pieces) inside it are moving. Heat flows from materials that are hot to materials that are cool. The heat will flow until both materials are the same temperature. The three ways that heat can travel are convection, conduction, and radiation.

Convection

Convection is how heat moves through liquids and gases. Water will slowly start to boil as it is heated. The convection currents of vibrating water molecules cause the violent movement we see in the boiling water.



We see convection in the boiling water, and know to keep our hands away from the hot metal pot.

Conduction

Conduction is how heat moves through solids. Molecules start to vibrate as they are heated. As they vibrate faster, the molecules next to them start vibrating. This vibration conducts the heat energy through the material. A metal spoon dipped in hot water will get hot at the other end because heat energy was conducted through the spoon.



The handle of this ceramic mug will not conduct as much heat as the metal spoon.

Radiation

Radiation is how heat moves through empty space. It travels by electromagnetic waves. Energy from the Sun reaches the Earth in this way. All objects emit, or give off, radiation in the form of heat.

An object will emit more radiation the hotter it becomes. A fire feels warmer as you get close to it.



A red-hot iron rod will transfer heat to the surrounding environment through radiation.

The Uses of Heat

Humans use heat in a lot of ways. Car engines use heat from the burning of fuel. The heat energy is converted to a force. The force pushes pistons in the engine up and down. The pistons provide power so that the car can move.

Refrigerators use the laws of thermodynamics when they cool your food. The first law of thermodynamics says that when something is made cold, something else becomes hot. This is why the back of a refrigerator feels warm



Insulation and thermodynamics work together to keep your food cool.

Insulation

Insulation helps prevent heat from shifting. People wear thick clothes in the winter to keep their bodies warm. The clothes act as insulation that prevents heat from leaving the body.

	conduction (kuhn-DUHKT-shuhn): how heat moves through solids
ing e	convection (kuhn-VEK-shuhn): how heat moves through liquids and gases
•	insulation (in-suh-LA-shuhn): material that keeps heat in or out
	radiation (ray-dee-AY-shuhn): how heat moves through empty space



The jacket's insulation helps this girl retain body heat.

Ice chests use insulation to prevent heat on the outside from getting inside. This allows cold food and ice to stay cold.



A well-insulated cooler will keep drinks cold on the hottest of days.

Homebuilders use insulation in the attics and walls of homes so that the homes will stay warm in winter and cool in summer.



You can test how well different materials act as insulators or

conductors. Gather some cooking utensils, like wooden and metal spoons, from the kitchen. Place the utensils in a bowl or pan. Add enough ice to fill the bowl or pan about halfway. After a few moments, touch the handles of the utensils.

What do you notice about the temperature of each? Did some materials conduct cold better than others? Compare the temperature of the metal spoon to the wooden. Which is a better insulator? Why do

cooks use wooden spoons when they stir boiling liquids?



Superconductivity Moves Energy Fast

Some materials take on special characteristics when they get really cold. They become superconductors. This is because they have very little resistance to electric current. Superconductors can be used to move energy inside computers very fast. They are also used to make some materials float!

Waves, Sound, and Light

Light and sound are two of the The high points of a wave are most important forms of energy to called crests. The low points of a humans. People see light and hear wave are called depressions. The sound. Light from the Sun makes distance between the crests is the life on Earth possible. Sound is wavelength. How fast the waves one of the most important ways move is their speed. How many that animals and humans waves pass a certain point in a communicate. Both sound and second is called frequency. The light travel as waves. Light also frequency is higher when the behaves like a particle. One of the waves are closer together. The amplitude is how tall the things physicists study is the way light and sound work.

Waves and Sound

Waves

It is easy to make waves. Drop a stone in a pool of water. Waves of water will form as circles around where the stone fell in.



Waves of water travel in all directions from the source.

waves are. Sound waves can have different frequencies and amplitudes. High-pitched noises and sounds have high frequencies. Whistles have high-pitched sounds. The deep noises and sounds that come from drums have low frequencies.

Sounds

Sounds travel by moving molecules of air like a wave. Sound waves behave like water waves. But they move in all directions. Have you ever felt a really loud sound? The force that you are feeling is sound waves moving through air. More air is moved when the sound is louder. A louder sound or noise has a higher amplitude.

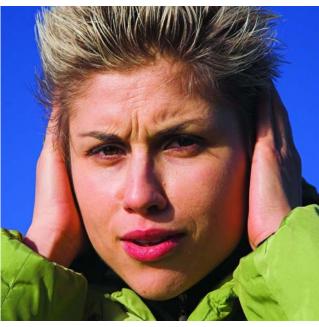
Physics

grandparents do not hear like they used to. The same intensity sound would not seem to have the same loudness to them as it would to you.

Intensities Of Comm Measured In De	
Source	Intensit
	Level
Rustling leaves	10 dB
Whisper	20 dB
Normal conversation	60 dB
Busy street traffic	70 dB
Vacuum cleaner	80 dB
Large orchestra	98 dB
Front rows of a	
rock concert	110 dB
Threshold of pain	130 dB
Military jet takeoff	140 dB
Instant perforation	
of eardrum	160 dB

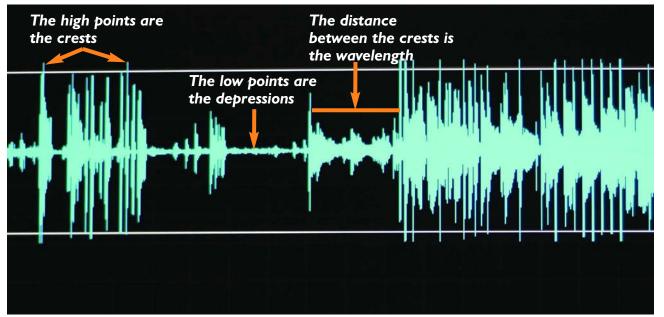


A lawnmower's intensity level is abut 90dB.



Very loud sounds can damage your eardrums.

Sound waves can travel in many different materials. The speed of sound depends on the material it is traveling through. Sound can move faster through denser materials, but it may not travel very far. The energy from the sound wave can be absorbed into the material. This is why it is difficult to talk through a brick wall. The speed of sound through air depends on the air's temperature. At a temperature of 68°F (20°C), sound travels 1,130 feet (343 meters) per second.



Sound Waves



amplitude (AM-pluh-tood): how tall waves are

frequency (FREE-kwuhn-see): the number of times something moves in a second

We measure the intensity of sounds in decibels. The same sound will not seem to have the same loudness to all people, though. Age affects the human ear's response to a sound. Your

The Nature of Light

Speed of Light

ıds

sity

Light is a form of electromagnetic energy. The light from a flashlight seems to shine instantly. However, it takes time for light to travel from the flashlight to where it is shining. Light moves very fast. The speed of light is about 186,000 miles (300,000 kilometers) per second. This is called the universal speed limit, because nothing yet discovered can go faster than the speed of light.



Photons shine in a beam of light from the flashlight.

Particles and Waves

Scientists have studied light for many years. A long time ago, they thought that light was made up of tiny particles. Other scientists thought that light behaved like a wave of energy.

Today, scientists believe that light behaves both like a particle and like a wave.

Particles

Particles of light energy are called photons. Photons come from anything that produces light. Stars, like the Sun, make a lot of photons. When objects block photons coming from the Sun, they make shadows.



It's smart to take a break from the strong rays of the summer Sun.



electromagnetic spectrum (i-lek-tro-mag-NETik, SPEK-truhm): all the forms of energy that travel as a wave

light (lite): a form of energy

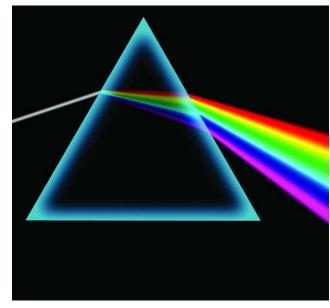
microwaves (MYE-kroh-waves): waves that can go through a solid object

photons (FOH-tons): particles or small pieces of light energy

visible spectrum (VIZ-uh-buhl, SPEK-truhm): the colors you can see; the colors of the rainbow (red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, and violet)

Other physical processes on the Earth can produce light. Chemical reactions from fires release energy as light. Light bulbs of all kinds also produce light.

Waves also play a part. Light acts like a wave. Some forms of light are easy to see. The light that humans can see is called visible light. All visible light makes up the visible spectrum. This spectrum includes all the colors of the rainbow. The order of the colors in the visible spectrum is red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo (red-blue), and violet (purple). Other forms of electromagnetic energy are invisible. Light energy above the violet end of the spectrum is called ultraviolet light. Light energy below the red end of the spectrum is called infrared light.



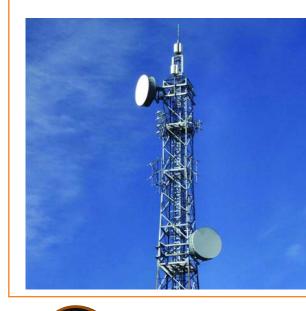
All the colors of the rainbow appear in the visible spectrum.

Other Energy That Can Travel As A Wave

Visible light is just one part of the electromagnetic spectrum. The electromagnetic spectrum includes all forms of energy that can travel as a wave.

Radio Waves

Radio waves are part of the electromagnetic spectrum. These are the waves received by radios, televisions, and cellular phones.



know...

Christiaan Huygens was born in the Netherlands in 1629.

Getting to Huygens and his brother built a powerful telescope. He used it to study the planet Saturn. He discovered Titan, one of Saturn's moons. He discovered the rings around Saturn. Christiaan studied the motion of a pendulum and created a pendulum clock.

Huygens suggested the wave theory of light. He thought that light moves in waves that make more waves. They were like ripples of water. He assumed that space was filled with something for light waves to move through. This substance was called ether. Two hundred years passed before scientists realized that ether does not exist.

Microwaves

Microwave ovens use waves called microwaves to heat food. The wavelength of microwaves is just right to cause water molecules to vibrate. Vibrating makes the water molecules give off heat. Any food containing water gets hotter in a microwave oven.

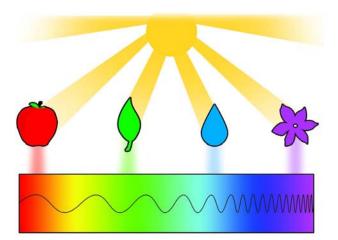


Christiaan Huygens

Physics

Where Light Comes From

Electrons orbiting an atom in an electron shell have potential energy. An electron that drops down to a lower orbit changes potential energy into a photon of light. The frequency of light depends on the energy level. The frequency is high when the energy level of the orbit from which the electron came is high.



VISIBLE LIGHT SPECTRUM

Red light has a longer wavelength than green, blue, or violet.

Types of Light

Many kinds of chemical reactions release energy. A chemical reaction happens when chemicals combine and change. **Reactions of different materials** produce different kinds of energy. Scientists can tell what something is made of from the wavelengths of light that come from the material

when it is burned. Gases give off specific wavelengths of light when they are electrified. Materials that are heated also give off light. When the wire in a light bulb gets very hot, it begins to glow.



An electric current passes through the filament in this light bulb and causes it to glow.

Reflection and Refraction

Reflection

Light normally travels in a straight line. Light that meets an object will change direction. It will bounce or bend depending on what it hits. Light that bounces off a surface is reflected. Light is reflected like a ball bouncing off a hard floor.

Smooth surfaces, such as mirrors, reflect a lot of light and





eccing to know...

Max Planck was born in the country of Germany in 1858. He attended the University of Berlin and was inspired by his physics professors. Planck became a professor

himself after college.

Planck began to work on the problem of blackbody radiation. A blackbody is any object that takes in, or absorbs, all light that hits it. A blackbody then gives off, or radiates, light at all frequencies or wavelengths. Planck found a formula that explained all his experiments. For his formula, energy had to be given off in chunks that he called guanta. Quanta depend on frequency and a number called Planck's constant. His idea of guanta of energy helped create the field of quantum mechanics. Planck was awarded the Nobel Prize in1918.

give sharp, clear reflections. Bumpy or rough surfaces give fuzzy, or diffuse, reflections. A dull object that is polished becomes smoother and better able to reflect light.



The smooth surface of the water reflects the city's buildings.

Max Planck



THE NOBEL PRIZE The Nobel Prize is an award that honors

men and women "... who, during the preceding year, shall have conferred the greatest benefit on mankind."

The Nobel Prize started in 1895 when Alfred Nobel, a Swedish chemist, engineer, innovator, and inventor of dynamite, wrote his last will, leaving much of his wealth to set up the prizes.

Since 1901, the prize has honored men and women for outstanding achievements in physics, chemistry, medicine, literature, economics, and for work in peace. Many of the scientists and doctors who contributed to the advancement of scientific and medical knowledge won the coveted Nobel Prize for their work.

Refraction

Light travels at different speeds through different materials. Light moves slower in water than in air. Its path is bent, or refracted, when light passes from one substance into another one. Refracted light makes a straight stick look bent when part of it is in water.



You might think this pencil has been broken into two pieces!



lens (lenz): a curved piece of glass or plastic

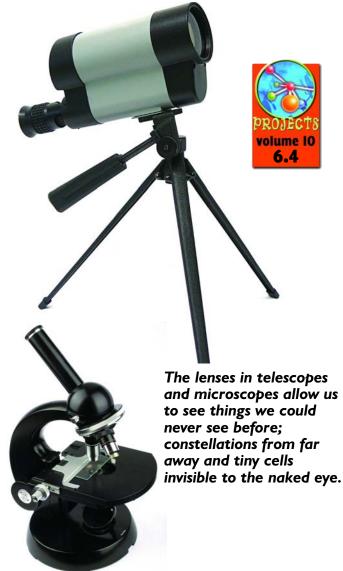
prism (PRIZ-uhm): a plastic or glass shape that separates light into the colors of the spectrum

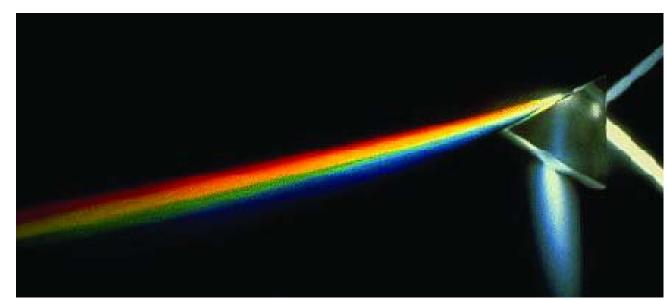
reflect (ri –FLEKT): when light bounces or bends off a surface

refract (ri-FRAKT): when light is bent as it passes through different materials

Lens

A piece of glass shaped to bend light into an image is called a lens. Some lenses magnify things, or make them look closer. Some lenses reduce things, or make them look farther away. Lenses are used in eyeglasses to help people see. Other lenses are used to magnify tiny images in microscopes. Refracting telescopes use lenses to magnify things that are far away.





A prism can separate all the visible colors of light found in sunlight.

Prism

Sometimes, light waves separate into different colors. A prism can separate sunlight into the colors of the spectrum. A prism is a specially shaped piece of glass or plastic. It can separate colors because different wavelengths of light travel at different speeds. Because they travel at different speeds they are bent by different amounts as they pass through the prism.



Even the tiny ridges in a CD can act as a prism.



Rainbows Show the Spectrum

Rainbows form

when sunlight is refracted through drops of water in the air. The light splits into the seven colors of the visible spectrum: red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, and violet. Rainbows can only be seen when the Sun is shining from behind you!



Physics

Nuclear Energy

The protons and neutrons of an atom release nuclear energy when they break apart. Every atom contains a lot of energy. The forces that hold the atom together are the strongest forces that scientists know of.

In 1905, Albert Einstein showed that mass can be converted, or changed, into energy. He used mathematics to do this. The reaction can be written as $E = mc^2$. The E means energy. The m means mass. The c^2 means the speed of light squared, or multiplied by itself.

$\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{mc}^2$

$E=mc^2$ is a very big number.

A little bit of mass has a lot of energy. Some of the mass of the starting material is converted into energy in a nuclear reaction. Atoms that are split, or fused together, may weigh less than when they started. The mass that disappeared has been converted into energy.



Albert Einstein

Albert Einstein was born in the country of Germany

in 1879. Einstein worked as a clerk in a patent office. He thought about physics and how the universe works. In 1905, he published a paper on the special theory of relativity. This theory changed how scientists looked at space and time.

Einstein continued to study space and time. In 1916, he published papers on the general theory of relativity. This theory showed that space, time, and gravity are all related. His theory was proved correct during an eclipse of the Sun in 1919. He was awarded the Nobel Prize in Physics in 1921.

In 1933, Einstein moved to the United States to escape the Nazi persecution of Jewish people. He became a professor at Princeton University. Einstein continued to study physics and to work for world peace.

Uses of Nuclear Energy

vehicles) that travel far away from the Sun sometimes use nuclear energy as their power source. Nuclear energy is what powers Nuclear energy can also be used to the Sun and all the stars in the create gigantic explosions. These sky. Nuclear reactions are used to explosions can destroy entire cities produce energy in nuclear power and kill millions of people. plants. Space probes (unmanned







The Galileo spacecraft was launched in 1989 to explore Jupiter and its moons.

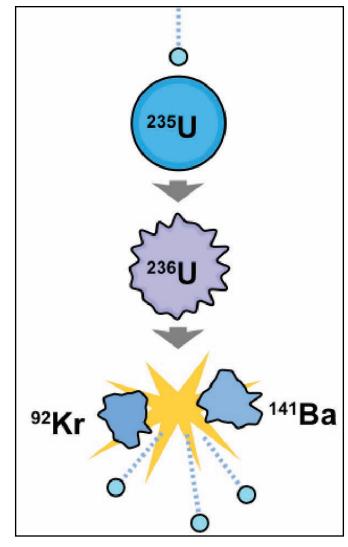


Saturn and its moons.

Physics

Fission and Fusion

Nuclear energy can come from two basic types of reactions. Fission happens when the nucleus



Simple diagram of nuclear fission in three steps:

- I. A neutron is about to collide with the nucleus of a U-235 atom.
- 2. The neutron has been absorbed and briefly turned the nucleus into an unstable U-236 atom.
- 3. The U-236 atom has fissioned, resulting in two fission fragments (Ba-141 and Kr-92), three neutrons, and the release of a relatively large amount of binding energy.

of an atom is split to form two smaller atoms. Fusion happens when the protons and neutrons of two atoms combine to form a new atom.

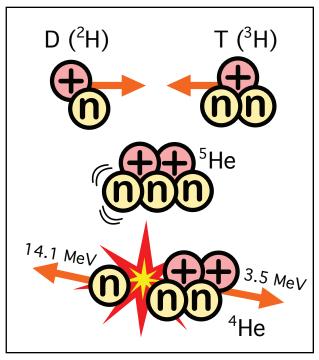


Diagram illustrating deuterium-tritium fusion in three steps:

- 1. The D and T accelerate towards each other at thermonuclear speeds.
- 2. This creates an unstable He-5 nucleus.
- 3. The end result is the ejection of a neutron and repulsion of the He-4 nucleus.

Chain Reaction

Fission reactions begin when a neutron moving very fast collides into the nucleus (center) of an unstable atom. An unstable atom can be broken apart. This reaction requires a lot of energy at the beginning. The collision with the neutron causes the atom to break apart. Neutrons from the split atom cause other atoms to split if the reaction is not controlled. This is called a chain reaction.

Fission Reactions

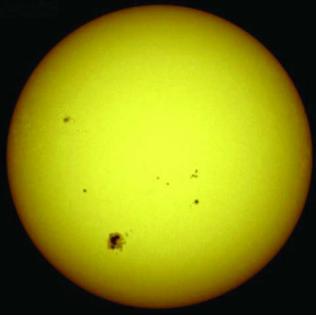
Humans use fission reactions inside nuclear power plants. They use it to make nuclear energy.



Water cools in giant towers at the nuclear power plant so it can be used again and again.

Fusion Reactions

Fusion reactions also require a lot of energy at the beginning. Even more energy is released when fusion takes place. The Sun's energy is released when fusion takes place. The Sun produces most of its light and energy from nuclear reactions.



Nuclear fusion reactions in the Sun produce solar energy.



Solar panels convert the Sun's energy into electricity.



chain reaction (chayn, ree-AK-shuhn): when a change keeps happening over and over again until it is controlled

fission (FISH-uhn): when an atom is split into two smaller atoms

fusion (FYOO-zhuhn): when parts of two atoms join together to make a new atom

nuclear energy (NOO-klee-ur, EN-ur-jee): energy made when an atom breaks apart



Lise Meitner

know...

Lise Meitner was born in the

country of Austria in 1878. She earned a Ph.D. in experimental physics. Meitner moved to Berlin, Germany, and met many famous physicists. She studied radioactivity with Otto Hahn.

In the 1930s, Adolf Hitler and the Nazi Party came into power in Germany and then Austria. They wanted to get rid of the Jewish people. Meitner was Jewish, and she had to escape to Sweden in 1938.

Back in Germany, Hahn and Fritz Strassman were hitting uranium with neutrons. They did not understand why they got barium, a lighter element. Meitner realized that the uranium atoms were being split. She also knew that energy was being released. This process is now called fission. Hahn was given the Nobel Prize in 1944 for their work, but Meitner was not.



The Atomic Bomb

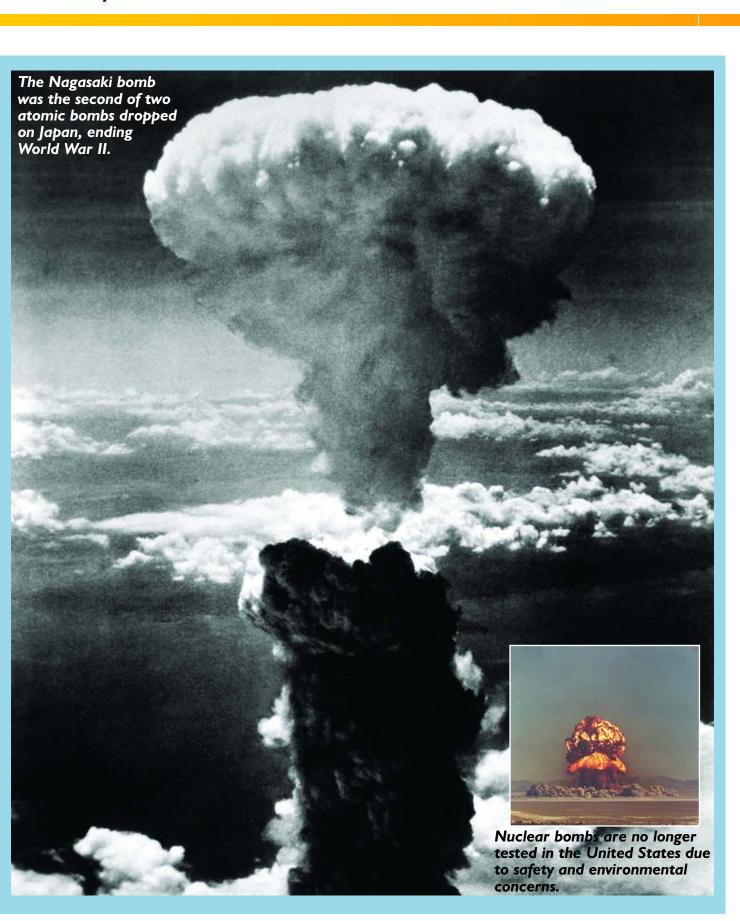
One of the scariest and most powerful weapons in

the world is the atomic bomb. In 1945, the United States dropped two atomic bombs on Japan to end World War II. The weapons completely destroyed the cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. Thousands of people were killed or seriously hurt by the explosions. Many other people became very sick from the radioactive particles called fallout.

Atomic bombs are also called nuclear weapons. They are made from specially produced uranium and plutonium. When enough uranium or plutonium is brought together it can reach a critical mass. A critical mass means it has enough mass (material) to produce a chain reaction. A chain reaction will take place if the critical mass is hit with neutrons. The chain reaction will lead to a nuclear explosion. Nuclear explosions are very powerful.

Nuclear weapons are tested deep underground. This is so the radiation does not make people sick. Computers are also used to test, or model, nuclear explosions.

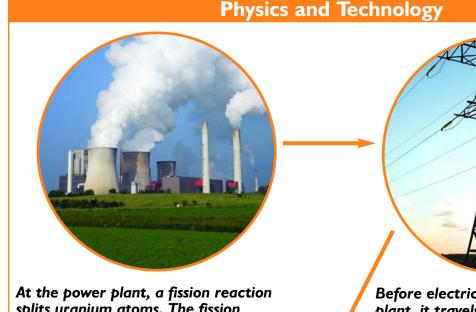
Most nuclear weapons are used in missiles. These weapons are meant to deter other countries, or keep them from attacking. Many people think that nuclear weapons should not exist. Governments around the world are working together to get rid of nuclear weapons.



Electricity Through Nuclear Power

our electricity. About one-fifth of the electricity we use comes from nuclear power.

In the United States, more than 100 nuclear reactors work to make



splits uranium atoms. The fission reaction releases energy to heat water. The boiling water produces steam. The steam turns huge turbines. The turbines send power to generators that make our electricity.

Before electricity leaves the power plant, it travels to the transmission substation. The substation uses transformers to change the voltage of the power. Then it sends the power out along high-voltage transmission lines.





When the power reaches a substation, transformers are used to lower its voltage. Then the power is sent off in many different directions. After passing through more transformers, the electricity makes it to our homes. Finally, it travels through wires to our outlets, where we can plug in our favorite toys, radios, and video game systems.



Nuclear Medicine

Many doctors use nuclear medicine to diagnose and more treat patients. Nuclear medicine is used in many areas of medicine including oncology (cancer), cardiology (heart), neurology (brain), and pediatrics (children).

One form of nuclear medicine is positron emission tomography, or PET scans. PET scans are unique because they give doctors information about the structure and function of the patient's body. Many other scans, such as MRIs (magnetic resonance imaging), only give doctors information on structure.

When a person has a PET scan, he is injected with a drug that contains very small amounts of radioactive materials (radiopharmaceuticals). The PET scanner measures the signals given off by the radioactive materials. The doctor uses the result to diagnose diseases, such as cancer, in patients. Doctors use other types of radiopharmaceuticals to treat diseases. One common use for radiopharmaceuticals is in the treatment of enlarged

thyroid glands, or goiters.

One big benefit of nuclear medicine to the patient is that diagnosis and treatment are painless.



A PET scan gives the doctor information that will help diagnose and treat this patient.

People Who Study Physics

Physics is about how things work. People who study physics are called physicists. They learn about light and sound. They learn about electricity and magnetism. They learn about force and energy. They learn about how everything works, from the tiniest atom to the together to make a solid object. vastness of space.

Physicists study many different areas of physics.

There is atomic physics. This is the study of atoms. There is

nuclear physics. This is the study of the nucleus or the center of atoms. There is particle physics. This is the study of the individual particles or parts of atoms. There is solid state physics. This is the study of how atoms are combined

All physicists use mathematics to help figure out how things work. Maybe you can be a physicist too.

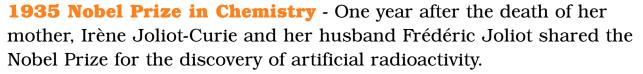
Women in Physics

Marie Curie (1867 - 1934) and Irène Joliot-Curie (1897 - 1956)

Marie Curie and her daughter, Irène Joliot-Curie, are both Nobel Prize winning scientists. Marie was the first woman to win a Nobel Prize. During World War I, Marie and her daughter worked together to treat wounded soldiers with radium emanation (radon).

1903 Nobel Prize in Physics – Marie Curie and her husband Pierre Curie were awarded the Nobel Prize for research on the radiation phenomena.

1911 Nobel Prize in Chemistry – Marie Curie received a second Nobel Prize for her work in radioactivity.



Rosalind Franklin (1920 - 1958) Rosalind Franklin is known for her

contributions to the double helix model of the DNA molecule.

Lisa Meitner (1878 - 1968)

Lisa Meitner was the first scientist to discover nuclear fission. Although her work led to the eventual development of nuclear weapons, Meitner did not want to have any part in creating such a destructive weapon.

Chien-Shiung Wu (1912 – 1997)

Chien-Shiung Wu was a nuclear physicist. She was the first woman to teach Physics at Princeton University, where she earned an honorary doctorate. She later taught at Columbia University. She was the first woman president of the American Physical Society.

Renata Kallosh (1943 -)

Renata Kallosh is a physics professor at Stanford University in California. Among other things, she is working on the quantum theory of black holes.

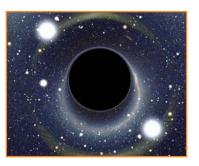
Euphemia Lofton Haynes (1890 - 1980) Euphemia Lofton Haynes was the first African-American woman to earn a Ph.D. (doctorates degree) in Mathematics. She was a prominent educator in the Washington D.C. area throughout her life.

Women in Physics













Volume 7

Astronomy and Space



By Tim Clifford

Editorial Consultant Luana Mitten Project Editor Kurt Strum

Rourke Publishing LLC Vero Beach, Florida 32964

Table of Contents

© 2008 Rourke Publishing LLC

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced or utilized in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical including photocopying, recording, or by any information storage and retrieval system without permission in writing from the publisher.

www.rourkepublishing.com

Photo credits: Page 4 © Sebastian Kaulitzki; Page 5 © NASA and The Hubble Heritage Team; Page 5b © wikipedia; Page 8 © wikipedia; Page 9 © Mahesh Patil; Page 9b © Kevin Norris; Page 10 © Paul LeFevre; Page 11 © NASA; Page 11b © NASA; Page 11c @ Astronomy; Page 12 @ Amos Struck; Page 14 @ PhotoDisc; Page 14b @ PhotoDisc; Page 14c @ PhotoDisc; Page 14d © PhotoDisc; Page 14e © PhotoDisc; Page 14f © PhotoDisc; Page 14g © PhotoDisc; Page 14h © PhotoDisc; Page 14i © NASA; Page 15 © NASA; Page 15b © NASA; Page 15c © NASA; Page 16 © PhotoDisc; Page 16b © Filip Fuxa; Page 17 © NASA; Page 17b © Sakurambo; Page 18 © PhotoDisc; Page 18b © NASA; Page 19 © NASA; Page 20 © NASA; Page 20b © Sakurambo; Page 21 © NASA; Page 22 © Vera Bogaerts; Page 22b © Hugo de Wolf; Page 23 © PhotoDisc; Page 23b © James Nemec; Page 23c © NASA; Page 24 © NASA; Page 24b © NASA; Page 25c © PhotoDisc; Page 25d © PhotoDisc; Page 26 © NASA; Page 26b © NASA; Page 26c © NASA; Page 27 © NASA; Page 28 © NASA; Page 28b © NASA; Page 29 © NASA; Page 29b © NASA; Page 30 © NASA; Page 30b © NASA; Page 30c © NASA; Page 30d © NASA; Page 30e © NASA; Page 31 © NASA; Page 32 © NASA; Page 32b © NASA; Page 33 © Library of Congress; Page 33b © NASA; Page 34 © NASA; Page 34b © NASA; Page 35 © NASA; Page 36 © NASA; Page 36b © NASA; Page 37 © NASA; Page 38 © NASA; Page 39 © NASA; Page 39b © NASA; Page 40 © NASA; Page 40b © NASA; Page 41 © William Attard McCarthy; Page 41b © NASA; Page 42 © NASA; Page 42b © NASA; Page 43 © Dan Mitchell; Page 43b © Dan Mitchell; Page 43c © Dan Mitchell; Page 43d © Dan Mitchell; Page 45 © NASA; Page 45b © NASA; Page 45c © NASA; Page 45d © NASA; Page 46 © NASA; Page 46b © NASA; Page 46c © NASA; Page 47 © NASA; Page 47b © NASA; Page 48 © NASA; Page 48b © NASA; Page 48c © NASA; Page 48d © NASA: Page 49 © NASA: Page 50 © Courtesy of the NPS: Page 50b © Giovanni Benintende: Page 50c © NASA: Page 51 © NASA; Page 51b © Paul LeFevre; Page 52 © NASA; Page 53 © NASA; Page 53b © NASA; Page 54 © NASA; Page 56 © NASA; Page 57 © NASA; Page 57b © Wellford Tiller; Page 58b © Jonathan Larsen; Page 58c © NASA; Page 58d © Neo Edmund; Page 59 © NASA; Page 60 © NASA.

Editor: Luana Mitten

Cover design by: Nicola Stratford. Blue Door Publishing

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Rourke's world of science encyclopedia / Marcia Freeman ... [et al.].

v. cm. Includes bibliographical references and index. Contents: [1] Human life --ISBN 978-1-60044-646-7 1. Science--Encyclopedias, Juvenile. 2. Technology--Encyclopedias, Juvenile. I. Freeman, Marcia S. (Marcia Sheehan), 1937-Q121.R78 2008 503--dc22 2007042493

Volume 7 of 10 ISBN-978-1-60044-653-5 Printed in the USA

CG/CG



What

What	is Astronomy?	۲
	Key Events in the Early History of Astronomy6	
	Views of the Universe	
	How People Used the Skies	
	olar System	
	The Origins of Our Solar System1	
	The Sun	
	Mercury	
	Venus	
	Earth	
	Earth's Moon	
	Mars	
	Jupiter	
	Saturn	
	Uranus	
	Neptune	
	Pluto and the Dwarf Planets	
	Asteroids, Meteoroids, and Comets4	0
Stars		17
Stars	-	
	What is a Star?	
	Types of Stars	
	The Life Cycle of a Star4	0
Galaxi	es	8
	Types of Galaxies	
	The Milky Way	
	Other Galaxies	
The U	Iniverse	2
	Origins of the Universe	3
	Possible Ends of the Universe	5
C		
-	Exploration	
	Telescopes	
	Space Probes	
	Humans in Space $\dots \dots \dots$	
	A History of Manned Spaceflight	
	A History of the United States Space Shuttle Program	1
People	Who Study Space	
		_

The

t is Astronomy?	.4
Key Events in the Early History of Astronomy	.6
Views of the Universe	.8
How People Used the Skies	.9
Solar System	
The Origins of Our Solar System	.15
The Sun	
Mercury	18
Venus	
Earth	.22
Earth's Moon	.24
Mars	25
Jupiter	28
Saturn	31
Uranus	.34
Neptune	.36
Pluto and the Dwarf Planets	.38
Asteroids, Meteoroids, and Comets	.40
•••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••	42
What is a Star?	42
Types of Stars	.44
The Life Cycle of a Star	.46
xies	48
Types of Galaxies	.48
The Milky Way	.49
Other Galaxies	.50
Universe	52
Origins of the Universe	53
Possible Ends of the Universe	55
e Exploration	57
Telescopes	57
Space Probes	58
Humans in Space	.60
A History of Manned Spaceflight	.61
A History of the United States Space Shuttle Program	.61
le Who Study Space	62

Stars

Gala

Types of Galaxies	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
The Milky Way	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Other Galaxies	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•

The

Space

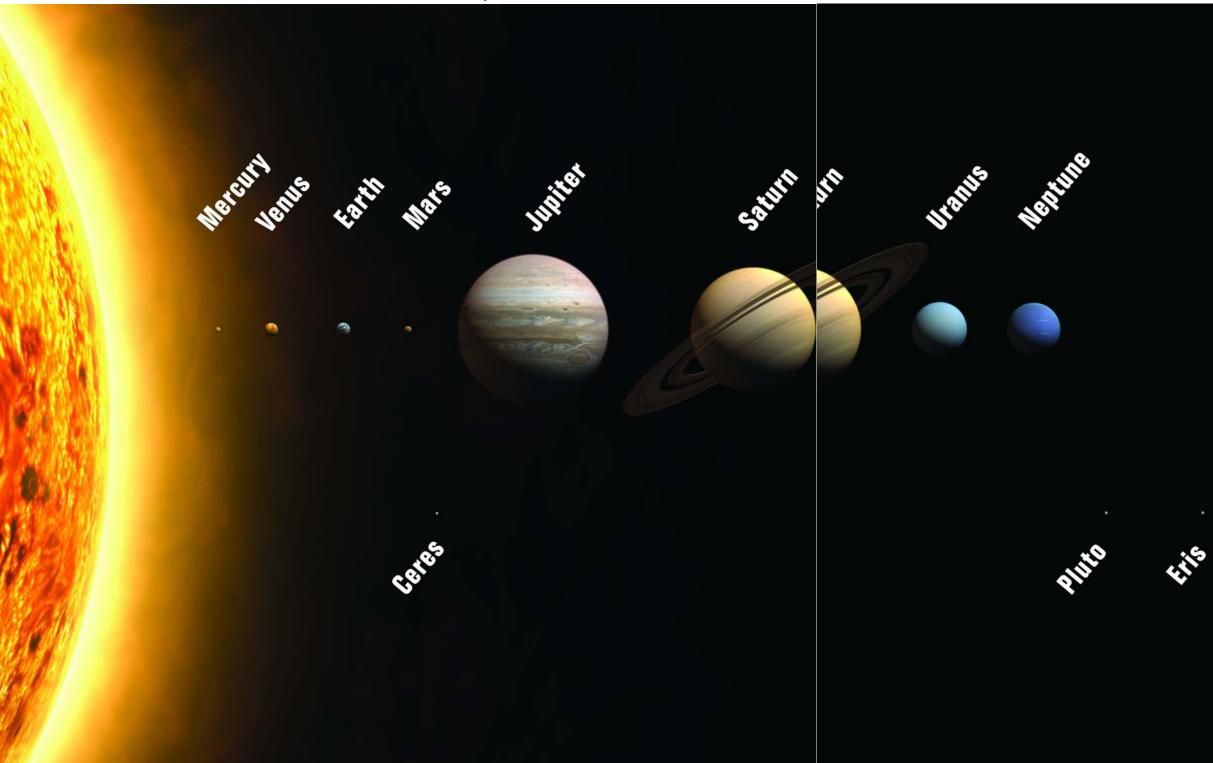
What Is Astronomy?

Have you ever looked up in the sky and wondered what life would be like if you lived on Mars? Astronomy is the study of the

universe, or outer space, and can help you find the answer to your question.

The Solar System

Astronomers study all of the objects in the sky outside Earth's atmosphere. Some of the things they study are the Sun, moons, stars, planets, galaxies, asteroids, and comets. New technologies such as the Hubble Space

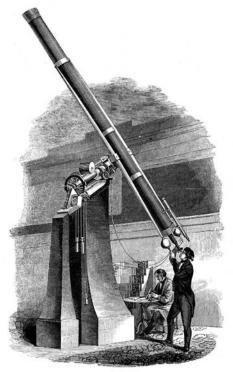


Telescope help astronomers make new discoveries about outer space.



A star photographed by the Hubble Space Telescope. Dust particles can be seen swirling around the star.

The science of astronomy is very old. Throughout Earth's history, people have been curious about what they saw in the sky. Different ideas developed about how the universe worked.



This drawing shows an 1848 telescope.

	Key Events in the Early History of Astronomy		ubble shows that
			lyde Tombaugh di
280 B.C.	Aristarchus thinks the Earth revolves around the Sun. He provides the		arl Jansky discov
	first estimation of Earth-Sun distance.		he first radio tele
30 B.C.	Hipparchus develops the first accurate star map and star catalogue with	1957 A.D. S _I	putnik, the first n
	over 850 of the brightest stars.	Rt	ussians.
5 B.C.	The Julian calendar, a purely solar calendar, is introduced to the	1958 A.D. Ex	xplorer 1 is laund
	Roman Empire.	1960 A.D. Th	he field of archeo
40 A.D.	Ptolemy suggests the geocentric theory of the universe in his famous	1961 A.D. Yu	ıri Gagarin becor
	work, Mathematike Syntaxis.	1962 A.D. Jo	ohn Glenn becom
054 A.D.	Chinese astronomers observe a supernova in Taurus.	1966 A.D. Th	he first non crasł
259 A.D.	An observatory was built for the famous Persian astronomer,	Sı	urveyor I (U.S.A.)
	Nasir al-Din al-Tusi.	1969 A.D. At	rmstrong and Alc
543 A.D.	Copernicus publishes his heliocentric theory of the universe.	1970 A.D. Th	he Russian Venera
582 A.D.	Pope Gregory XIII introduces the Gregorian calendar.	su	urface of Venus.
603 A.D.	Johann Bayer introduces his Bayer designation of stars, assigning Greek	1972 A.D. TI	he U.S. launches
	letters to stars, still in use today.	1974 A.D. Th	he U.S. Mariner 1
608 A.D.	Hans Lippershey, a Dutch spectacles maker invents the telescope.	1976 A.D. Th	he U.S. Viking pr
609 A.D.	Galileo uses a telescope for astronomical purposes.	1977 A.D. Th	he rings of Uranu
656 A.D.	Christian Huygens discovers Saturn's rings and Titan, the fourth satellite	1978 A.D. Cl	haron, the moon
	of Saturn.	R	obert Harrington.
659 A.D.	Huygens notes markings on Mars.	1980 A.D. Vo	oyager 1 sends ba
666 A.D.	Martian polar ice caps are noted by Cassini.	1986 A.D. Vo	byager 2 closes in
668 A.D.	The first reflecting telescope was built by Newton.	1986 A.D. Th	he Space Shuttle
675 A.D.	While in Paris, Danish astronomer Ole Romer measures the speed	1990 A.D. Th	he Hubble Space
	of light.	1992 A.D. Th	he Vatican, under
675 A.D.	Cassini discovers that Saturn's rings are split into two parts, the gap is	er	red in condemni
	called the "Cassini Division".	Co	opernicus was va
687 A.D.	Newton publishes his theory of gravity. This is viewed as the start of		e Earth.
	Modern Astronomy.	1994 A.D. Th	he Comet Shoema
705 A.D.	England Halley correctly predicts the return of a comet (Halley's comet)		he Galileo space
	in 1758.		he Comet Hyakut
758 A.D.	Johann Palitzsch observes Halley's comet as predicted by Halley in 1705.		he Mars Pathfind
781 A.D.	Herschel discovers the planet Uranus.	1997 A.D. Ca	assini begins its j
781 A.D.	Messier discovers galaxies, nebula and star clusters while looking		he Lunar Prospec
	for comets.		onstruction begin
801 A.D.	Piazzi discovers the first asteroid, Ceres.		he Galileo space
840 A.D.	J. W. Draper takes first pictures of the Moon.		ohn Glenn return
846 A.D.	Johann Galle observes and discovers Neptune.		cientists discover
877 A.D.	Asaph Hall discovers Phobos and Deimos, the moons of Mars.		handra X-ray Obs
877 A.D.	Schiaparelli observes the canals on Mars.		e first woman sh
878 A.D.	The Great Red Spot on Jupiter becomes prominent.		ASA loses the Ma
905 A.D.	Albert Einstein introduces his special Theory of Relativity.		he space shuttle l
914 A.D.	Robert Goddard begins practical rocketry.		he NEAR spacecr
916 A.D.	Albert Einstein introduces his general Theory of Relativity.		ew evidence is for

- es exist outside the Milky Way galaxy.
- s Pluto.
- smic radio waves.
- is built by Grote Reber.
- de object to orbit the Earth, is launched by the
- This was the first U.S. satellite to orbit the Earth. omy expands in England.
- e first man in space.
- first American man to orbit Earth.
- ngs on the Moon are by Luna 9 (Russian) and
- alk on the Moon as part of the Apollo 11 mission. Somes the first spacecraft to land softly on the
- er 10, the first satellite destined for Jupiter. The transmits the first image of Mercury.
- and on Mars.
- discovered.
- to, is discovered by James Christy and
- Earth the first images of Saturn and its rings. anus.
- nger breaks apart after launch.
- ope is put into orbit from space shuttle Discovery. John Paul II, announces that the Catholic Church ileo's work that proved that the work of ainly that the planets circle the Sun and not
- evy crashes into Jupiter.
- reaches Jupiter.
- discovered by Yuji Hyakutake.
- ls on the Red Planet.
- to Saturn.
- aches the Moon.
- ne International Space Station.
- discovers the origin of Jupiter's Rings.
- ace after 36 years.
- al Hubble Constant.
- ory is put into orbit. Col. Eileen Collins becomes ommander.
- nate Orbiter and the Mars Polar Lander.
- vor makes a detailed, global map of Earth.
- ches asteroid Eros.
- r water on Mars.

Views of the Universe

Long ago, before the invention of the telescope, people had a much different idea of what the universe was like. The two major views of the universe through the course of history are the geocentric view and the heliocentric view.

The Geocentric View

In 140 A.D. a Greek astronomer named Ptolemy wrote that the Earth was the center of the universe. He thought all the stars, the Sun, and the Moon revolved around it. This made sense because that is how things looked in the sky from Earth. We call Ptolemy's theory the geocentric view. It is derived from *geo* (Earth) and centric (center). Astronomers believed the geocentric view for 1,500 years until 1543.



Claudius Ptolemaeus, is known in English as Ptolemy.

The Heliocentric View

About 500 years ago, Copernicus found that the Earth and other planets revolve around the Sun. His theory was published in1543. We call Copernicus's theory the heliocentric view because helios means sun. Astronomers still base their understanding of the Solar System on Copernicus's heliocentric view.



Nicolaus Copernicus

Nicolaus Copernicus was born in 1473 in what is now Poland.

His father died when Copernicus was only ten. His uncle, a Catholic bishop, raised him. In 1491, he became interested in studying the skies. He collected many books on astronomy and studied with famous astronomers.

In 1513, Copernicus built an observatory. He realized that Earth and the other planets revolve around the Sun. This is the heliocentric view. Many people did not believe him. The Catholic Church banned his ideas for the next three hundred years.

We call Copernicus the father of modern astronomy even though Greek, Indian, and Muslim astronomers before him believed that the Sun was the center of the solar system as well.

We now know that our solar system is part of a bigger universe, or cosmos. The size of the universe is unimaginable. It includes all the matter, energy, and space in all the galaxies.

How People Used the Skies

People have always found the skies fascinating. They found the skies helpful, too. They developed calendars based on the Moon and Sun. They used the stars and midday Sun to navigate.

The Lunar Calendar

Early on people noticed that there were 29 1/2 days between two full Moons. They created a 354 day calendar. Based on the phases of the Moon, they divided the calendar into12 lunar months.



The lunar calendar is based on the phases of the Moon.

Today, the Islamic calendar is still a purely lunar calendar. It has twelve months based on the Moon's movements.

The Solar Calendar

Later calendars used the movements of the Sun rather than the Moon. The ancient Egyptians created the first 365 day solar calendar. The ancient Romans made adjustments and added one extra day every four years. Do you know what we call these longer years? Yes, they are leap years.



Based on the heliocentric view, the Earth revolves around the Sun.



observatory (uhb-ZUR-vuh-tor-ee): a building that has telescopes and other instruments astronomers use to study the sky

revolve (ri-VOLV): to orbit around an object

theory (THIHR-ee): an idea that explains how or why something happens

universe (YOO-nuh-vurss): everything that is in space including the Earth, stars, and planets

The Gregorian Calendar

Even with the improvements, the calendars being used were still not quite right. In 1582, Pope Gregory XIII (the 13th) corrected the problems. He ordered that three leap years should be skipped every 400 years. We use the Gregorian calendar today, named for Pope Gregory. It is the most widely used calendar in the world.

The Days of the Week

You may wonder why there are seven days in a week. No one seems to agree on any single reason for a seven day week. But they do agree on the origins of each day's name.

In English, three days (Saturday, Sunday, and Monday) are named for objects in the solar system. The other four days (Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday) are named for Norse gods. See the chart below.

Navigation

Ancient people learned to navigate by using the Sun and stars. Using the stars and Sun people could find their north-south position when crossing deserts and seas where there were no landmarks to guide them.

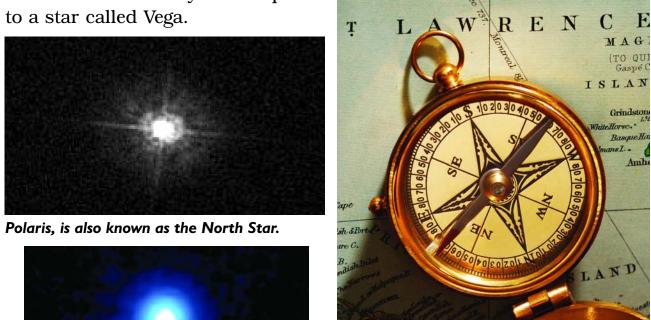
During the day, the Sun's movement in the sky guided them. At night, they used a star called Polaris, or the North Star.



All stars are fixed in a set position in the sky relative to each other. It is the movement of the Earth that makes the stars and the Sun appear to move across the sky.

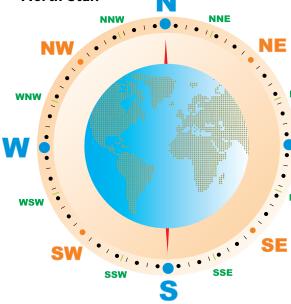
Named After	Originally	Now
The Sun	Sun's Day	Sunday
The Moon	Moon's Day	Monday
Tiw, Norse God of war	Tiw's Day	Tuesday
Woden, German for Odin, chief Norse god	Woden's Day	Wednesday
Thor, Norse god of thunder	Thor's Day	Thursday
Frigg, the Norse goddess of love	Frigg's Day	Friday
Saturn	Saturn's Day	Saturday

Polaris is always due north. Over time, people developed different tools to make navigation Earth's North Pole points to Polaris. Over the next 13,000 years, Earth's using the Sun and stars easier. North Pole will slowly shift to point W N





Vega could someday be known as the North Star.



Earth's North Pole points to Polaris, but is slowly moving and will eventually point to Vega.

The compass is one of the most important navigational tools ever invented.

Many of the tools were difficult to use and caused blindness. People had to look directly into the Sun to





use the tools properly. In 1595, John Davis invented the back-staff. It prevented blindness because the user stood with his back to the Sun.



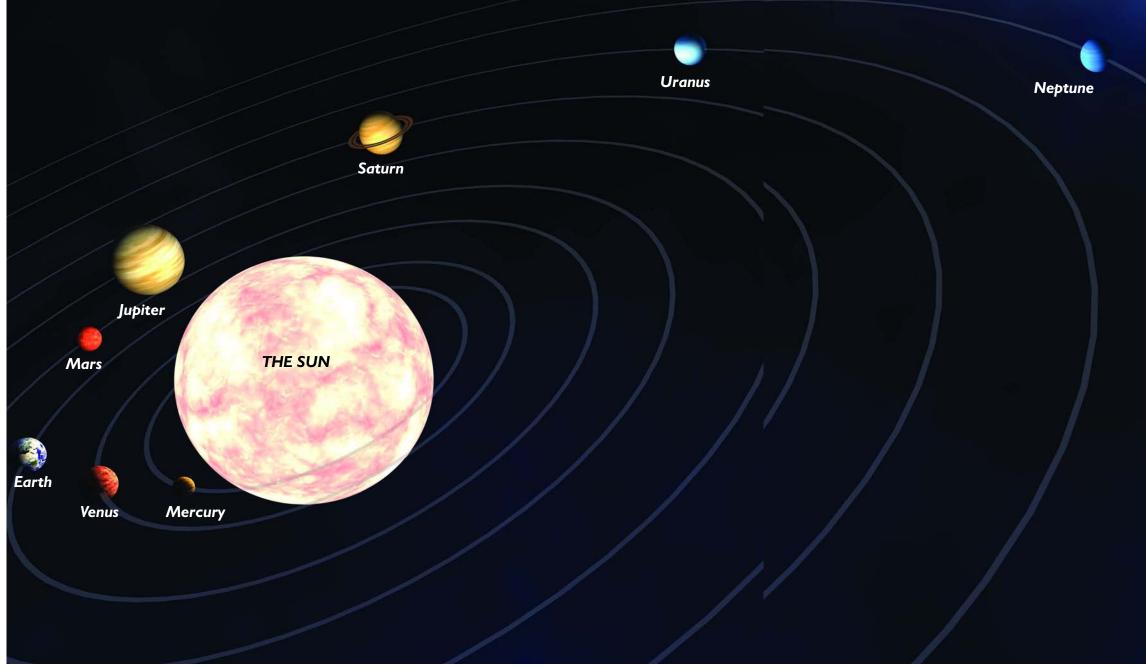
lunar (LOO-nur): to do with the moon navigate (NAV-uh-gate): to travel using maps, compasses, or the stars to guide you

solar (SOH-lur): to do with the Sun

The Solar System

A solar system is a group of planets and one or more stars. Our solar system has just one gigantic star, the Sun. It also has eight planets and three dwarf planets. Many planets have their own moons. There are also thousands of asteroids, meteoroids, and comets. Gravity from our huge Sun holds the solar system together. Planets, asteroids, and comets revolve around (orbit), the Sun. moons orbit some of the planets.

A year for a planet is the amount of time it takes the planet to make one complete revolution



around the Sun. The planets also rotate on an axis. One day on a planet is the time it takes for the planet to make one complete rotation (360 degrees) on its axis. It takes Earth about 24 hours to complete one rotation.

Pluto (dwarf planet) olume l 7.2

Inner Planets

There are inner and outer planets. Mercury, Venus, Earth, and Mars are the inner planets. They orbit close to the Sun. The inner planets are very rocky. They





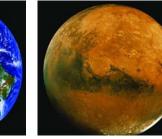


are smaller than the outer

separates the inner planets

planets. An asteroid belt

from the outer planets.



Mercury

Mars

than the inner planets. We call the

outer planets the gas giants

because they are made mostly

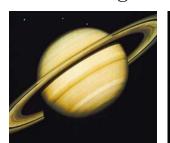
Outer Planets

Earth

Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, and Neptune are the outer planets. They orbit far from the Sun. The outer planets are all much larger

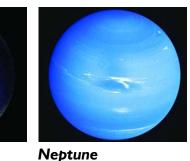
Venus





Jupiter

Uranus



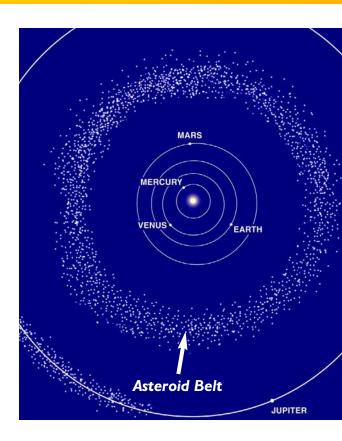
Are you wondering about Pluto? In the past, we thought Pluto was a planet but astronomers now classify it as one of the dwarf planets. The other dwarf planets are Ceres and Eris. Ceres and Eris are both large asteroids. Astronomers discovered Eris in

Saturn



Pluto and its moons.

2005. Eris is larger than Pluto and is even farther away from the Sun.



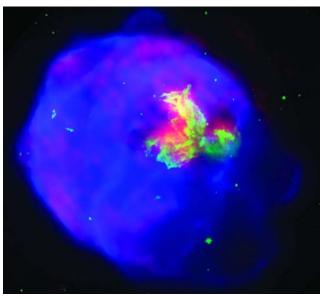
The Origins of Our **Solar System**

Where did the solar system come from? Many astronomers believe it began as a cloud of dust and gas. Nearly 5 billion years ago, a nearby star may have exploded. The explosion caused the cloud to collapse and spin into a disk. Gravity made the dust and gas pull together into the center of the disk. The force of gravity caused great heat and pressure. Nuclear reactions occurred. These reactions caused the Sun to shine for the first time.

from gasses.



The solar system may have been created from a cloud of gas and dust.



A supernova is a particular type of exploding star. The core of the star collapses and releases a tremendous amount of energy into space.

The rest of the solar system also came from that cloud. The dust and gas formed into hot clumps. The clumps began orbiting the Sun. As they grew bigger, they became planets and moons.

Many planets and moons still have scars from the formation of the early solar system. Impact craters are holes in the ground that form when material from space slams into a planet, or sometimes even a moon.



The Barringer Crater is a gigantic hole in the middle of the Arizona desert that formed when a meteor crashed to Earth.

All elements that make up the Sun and planets came from the ancient dust and gas. This includes all the plants and animals on the Earth. Scientists believe that even the atoms that make up your body are as old as the stars.



atom (AT-uhm): the smallest part of an element

axis (AK-siss): the imaginary line going through the middle of a planet or other object that it rotates around

nuclear (NOO-klee-ur): to do with the energy created by splitting atoms

revolve (ri-VOLV): one object moves around or orbits another object

rotate (ROH-tate): an object turning around and around its center point or axis

The Sun

Even though it is 93 million miles away, the Sun is the nearest star to Earth. In comparison to other stars, the Sun is a medium sized star. All stars, including the Sun, are balls of exploding gas. You might think of stars as having points like the ones we draw but stars are shaped more like a ball (sphere).



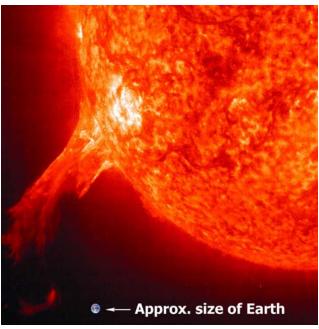
The Sun heats the land, ocean, and air.

The Sun is the center of our solar system. Another name for the Sun is Sol.

Most of the light and heat on Earth comes from the Sun. Without that heat source, life on Earth could not exist. Scientists believe that eventually changes in the Sun will make life on Earth, as we now know it, impossible.

Size

Compared to the Earth, the Sun is huge. It is the largest object in our solar system. The Sun's diameter is over 864,432 miles (1.392.000 kilometers). That is nearly 109 Earths across. It would take 1,300,000 Earths to fill up the Sun.



If the Sun was the size of a basketball, the Earth would be about $\frac{1}{16}$ of an inch (2.2 millimeters).

Because it is so huge, the Sun exerts a lot of gravity. This force holds the planets in orbit.

The Sun's Core

The center (core), of the Sun creates solar energy. In the core, temperatures and pressures are very high. This makes nuclear reactions occur. It takes a million years for energy made in the core to

reach the surface. The Sun releases its energy as heat and light.

The Sun's Outer Layers

The photosphere is the top layer of the Sun's surface. This is where we find sunspots. Sunspots appear as dark green areas in the photosphere. Solar flares come from the sunspots. These bright arcs of hot gas can interfere with radio communications on Earth.

The chromosphere is above the photosphere. Light and solar flares pass through the chromosphere on their way out into space.

The corona is the outermost part of the Sun's atmosphere.

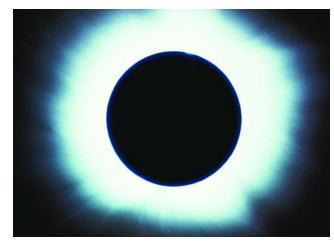
Radiation zone Core Convectio zone Chromosphere

The core temperature of the Sun is over 27 million degrees Fahrenheit (15 million degrees Celsius).

Astronomy and Space

During a solar eclipse, the corona is the part of the Sun that is seen shining around the Moon. A solar eclipse occurs when the Earth's Moon blocks out most of the light from the Sun.

Many people are tempted to look directly at the Sun during an eclipse. This is very dangerous. Even if you don't feel pain in your eyes, looking directly at the Sun can cause permanent eye damage or blindness.



Welding goggles are the best eye protection for looking at an eclipse of the Sun.



atmosphere (AT-muhss-fihr): the mixture of gasses that surround a planet

diameter (dye-AM-uh-tur): a line going straight through the center of a circle, from one side to the other

elliptical (i-LIP-tik-uhl): having an oval shape

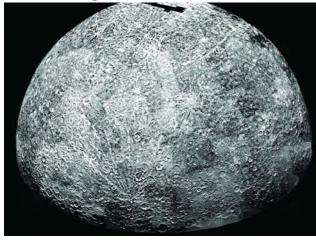
gravity (GRAV-uh-tee): the force of attraction of an object

sphere (sfihr): a symmetrical geometric shape like a ball, all points on the shape are the same distance from the center

Mercury

Mercury is the closest planet to the Sun. It is a small planet, just a little bigger than Earth's Moon. Mercury has a diameter of about 3,029 miles (4,878 kilometers). It revolves, or orbits, around the Sun once every 88 Earth days. It has an elliptical orbit. An elliptical orbit is like a stretched out circle (oval shape). Its average distance from the Sun is about 36 million miles (58 kilometers).

Days are very long on Mercury. This is because the planet has a very slow spin. Mercury rotates once every 59 Earth days. One day on Mercury would be 1,416 hours long!



The first telescopic observations of Mercury were made by Galileo in the late 17th century.

Temperature

Temperatures get very hot during the daytime. Surface



temperatures can reach over 752 degrees Fahrenheit (400 degrees Celsius). At night it gets very cold. It can reach below -279.4 degrees Fahrenheit (-173 degrees Celsius). Mercury has some of the highest and lowest temperatures in the solar system.

Atmosphere

There is almost no atmosphere on Mercury. Because of the heat, any gasses on Mercury would burn up.

Moons

Mercury has no moons.

Special Features

The surface of Mercury is hard The first spacecraft to visit and rocky. Impact craters cover Mercury was Mariner 10, in 1974. the surface. Mercury's craters It took photographs of the planet. formed a long time ago during the It found that Mercury has a weak early history of the solar system. magnetic field.

Planet	Rotation on axis	Orbit around the Sun	Distance from the Sun	Number of moons
Earth	24 hours	365 Earth days	93 million miles (149.6 million km)	1
Mercury	1,416 hours	88 Earth days	36 million miles (58 million km)	0



The craters on Mercury were formed when asteroids and comets struck the surface of the planet.

Some craters are small. Others are very large.

Mercury has cliffs up to 1.8 miles (3 kilometers) high and hundreds of miles long.

Exploration

Venus

Venus is the second planet from the Sun. Because it is so close to Earth, you can often see Venus in the sky at dusk or dawn, without the use of a telescope.

Sometimes we call Venus our sister planet because it is a lot like Earth. It is about the same size as Earth. Both planets have a near circular orbit around the Sun. A lack of craters shows that both planets formed about the same time.



Venus and Earth are sometimes called sister planets.

Although they are alike in many ways, Venus and Earth are different in some very important ways. Venus rotates in the opposite direction as Earth. Its spin is



inactive (in-AK-tiv): a volcano that is not currently active or erupting

probe (PROHB): a tool or robotic spacecraft used to explore something

retrograde. That means it spins backward from the rotation of Earth and the other planets. On Venus, the Sun rises in the west and sets in the east. Venus rotates much slower than Earth. It takes about 243 Earth days for Venus to rotate one time. Another difference is that Venus has a very weak magnetic field.



Venus has the slowest rotation period of all the major planets.

The diameter of Venus is 7.516 miles (12,103 kilometers). Its average distance from the Sun is about 67 million miles (108 million kilometers). It takes Venus 225 Earth days to orbit the Sun. It might be a little confusing to live on Venus because one planetary year is shorter than one planetary day!

Temperature

The surface of Venus is very hot. Temperatures on the surface can reach 880 degrees Fahrenheit

(470 degrees Celsius) making it the hottest planet. Venus is far too hot to support life.

Atmosphere

The atmosphere of Venus is mostly carbon dioxide. Because the carbon dioxide is so thick, the pressure on Venus is 90 times that of Earth. The clouds in the upper atmosphere are made of tiny drops has many inactive volcanos. There



The clouds on Venus reflect the light from the Sun making the planet seem to shine like a star.

Planet	Planetary Day (rotation on axis)	Planetary Year (revolution around Sun)	Distance from the Sun	Number of moons
Earth	24 hours	365 Earth days	93 million miles (149.6 million km)	1
Venus	5,832 hours	225 Earth days	67.2 million miles (108.2 million km)	0

of sulfuric acid. The sulfuric acid forms thick clouds that reflect the Sun's rays making Venus shine brightly like a star.

Moons

Venus has no moons.



The surface of Venus is rocky. It are also many mountains, some of which are higher than the mountains on Earth.

Exploration

The first spacecraft to successfully orbit Venus was Mariner 2, in 1962. Since then, many other spacecraft have flown by, orbited, or landed on its surface. The Magellan probe has provided maps of Venus.

Earth

Earth, our home, is the third planet from the Sun. It is the only planet we know of that contains life. The diameter of the Earth is about 7,920 miles (12,754 kilometers). The Earth rotates one time every 24 hours. A planetary day on Earth is 24 hours. Earth's planetary year is about 365 days. It takes the Earth 1 year to revolve, or orbit, the Sun.

Earth's average distance from the Sun is about 93 million miles (150 million kilometers). We call this distance 1 astronomical unit, or AU. We sometimes measure distances to other planets in astronomical units.

Temperature

The coldest parts of Earth can reach -129 degrees Fahrenheit (-90 degrees Celsius). The hottest parts can reach 136 degrees Fahrenheit (58 degrees Celsius). Most life on Earth will survive in places with temperatures somewhere in between.



environment (en-VYE-ruhn-muhnt): the natural world of the land, sea, and air

mission (MISH-uhn): a group of people sent on a special assignment or job

radiation (ray-dee-AY-shuhn): the sending out of heat or light



The lowest recorded temperature in Antarctica was -129 degrees Fahrenheit (-89 degrees Celsius) recorded in 1983.



The hottest temperature ever recorded in the United States was in Death Valley, California. (shown above) The 134 degrees Fahrenheit (57 Degrees Celsius) temperature was just 2 degrees Fahrenheit (1 degree Celsius) cooler than the hottest in the world. It was recorded in El Azizia, Libya.

Atmosphere

The Earth's atmosphere is made mainly of nitrogen and oxygen. Our atmosphere has more oxygen than any other planet's atmosphere. When people talk about the air, they are really talking about the atmosphere. It is the perfect mix of gasses to support life.

The atmosphere keeps temperatures from getting too high or too low to support life. It also helps keep out harmful radiation from the Sun.



A view from space shows the Earth's land and water.

Special Features

The Earth is the only planet with lots of water. Water covers two thirds (2/3) of the Earth. The amount of water on Earth stays about the same. Other planets may have only tiny amounts of ice or steam. Without water, there would be no life on Earth.



The oceans of the Earth are all connected and take up about 70% of the Earth's surface.

The Earth orbits the Sun in a near perfect circle. This helps keep temperatures from getting too high or too low. About 1.5 million types of animals and plants live in this perfect environment.

Exploration

Even though we live on Earth and explore it every day, there are things about Earth that we can learn from space. Space exploration began by looking at our own planet.

In 1957, Sputnik was the first spacecraft to orbit the Earth. Since then, thousands of spacecraft have studied the Earth from space. Today satellites send information back to Earth that can help us in our daily lives. Meteorologists, more often called weather forecasters, use information from satellites to study and predict the weather.

In 1969, the Apollo 11 spacecraft was the first manned mission to the Moon. It carried astronauts Michael Collins, Edwin "Buzz" Aldrin, and Neil Armstrong. Collins orbited the Moon during Armstrong and Aldrin's historic Moon walk.





Astronaut Buzz Aldrin photographed by Neil Armstrong during the first Moon landing.

Earth's Moon

The Earth has one Moon. It is about 240.000 miles (384.000 kilometers) from Earth. Its diameter is about 2,159 miles (3,476 kilometers). The Moon is about one fourth (1/4) as big as the Earth.

The force of gravity ties the Moon to the Earth. The Moon



The Moon is smaller than Earth which means the Moon's gravity is one-sixth of the Earth's gravity.



There's Water on the Moon Millions of tons of

ice are inside some of the craters on the Moon's poles. In the future, space missions might use the water for fuel, or to support life. Would you like to live in a space station on the Moon?

revolves around (orbits), the Earth once every 27.3 days. It also takes the Moon 27.3 days to rotate one time. This means that the same side of the Moon always faces the Earth. Astronauts orbiting the Moon are the only humans to see the other side of the Moon in person. We only know what it looks like from photographs. High tides are caused by the gravitational pull of the Moon and the Sun. The pull stretches the



In 1968, the Apollo 8 mission took three astronauts to the far side of the Moon. They described its appearance as the color of dirty beach sand.

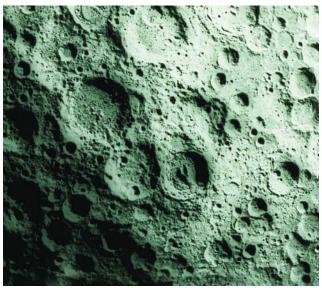
Earth's oceans into an ellipse with Earth in the center. The oceans of the Earth seem to bulge out to make the oval shape. Areas on the

Earth near the bulge will Mars experience a high tide. The high tide moves from west to east as the Mars is the fourth planet from Earth rotates. High tides occur the Sun. Sometimes we call it the twice a day. This is because the Red Planet because of its red water on the opposite side of the coloring. Mars looks red because Earth from the Moon also bulges. of the pinkish color of its rocks, soil, and sky.



The Earth rotates much faster than the Moon moves in its orbit which creates two high tides per day.

Craters (holes), cover the Moon. Meteorites striking the surface of the Moon created these bowlshaped holes.



Craters are formed by an asteroid, meteor, or comet crashing into the surface of the Moon. Most of the craters on the Moon are circular.

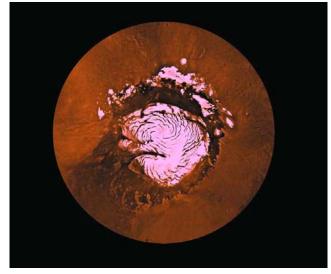
Mars is about half the size of Earth. It has a diameter of 4.219 miles (6,794 kilometers). Its average distance from the Sun is about 142 million miles (228 million kilometers). Mars orbits the Sun once every 687 Earth days. You can see Mars without a telescope. It appears as a bright red object in the night sky.



Mars is called the Red Planet.

Mars is more like Earth than any other planet. The length of a day on Mars is almost 24 Earth hours. Like Earth, Mars has polar ice caps.

During the winter on Mars, one of the poles is covered in snow and ice. At the same time, it is summer in the other hemisphere of the planet. When one ice cap gets bigger, the other ice cap gets smaller.



The polar ice caps on Mars are made of frozen carbon dioxide and water.

Temperature

It is always cold on Mars. The highest temperature is about 32 degrees Fahrenheit (0 degrees Celsius). But Mars can get much colder than freezing. It can get as cold as -200 degrees Fahrenheit (-144 degrees Celsius).

Mars has an elliptical orbit. As it orbits, the planet gets colder as it travels farther away from the Sun.

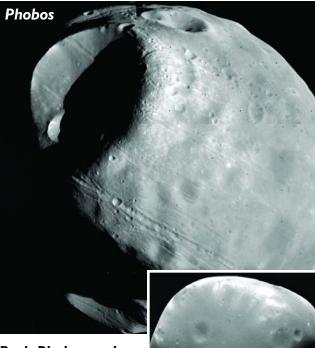
Atmosphere

The atmosphere of Mars is 95% carbon dioxide. The atmosphere is very thin. Humans would not be able to breathe the air on Mars. The surface of Mars is also very dry. Sometimes, giant dust storms cover the entire planet.

If you lived on Mars, the sky would not look blue like the sky on Earth does. It would be reddish orange in color.

Moons

Mars has two moons named Phobos and Deimos. They are both odd shaped and were probably asteroids at one time. Phobos is about twice as large as Deimos, but both are tiny compared to Earth's Moon. Phobos is only 17 miles (27 kilometers across).



Both Phobos and Deimos have a circular orbit around Mars.



Planet	Planetary Day (rotation on axis)	Planetary Year (revolution around Sun)	Distance from the Sun	Number of moons
Earth	24 hours	365 Earth days	93 million miles (149.6 million km)	1
Mars	24.6 hours	687 Earth days	141.6 million miles (227.9 million km)	2

Special Features

Mars. A huge canyon called the There are many volcanos on the Valles Marinares is evidence of water in Mar's past. It is over 5 surface of Mars. Most of them are miles (8 kilometers) long. Dried up in the northern regions of the planet. The biggest volcano is flood plains and riverbeds also Olympus Mons. It is the largest cover parts of the surface. volcano in the solar system. It is **Exploration** 342 miles (550 kilometers) wide The first probe to go to Mars was and 17 miles (27 kilometers) high.



Olympus Mons is the tallest known volcano and mountain in our solar system.

Scientists believe that water once existed on the surface of

Mariner 4, in 1965. Since then, many other spacecraft have visited the planet. Viking 1 and 2 were the first to land on the surface.



canyon (KAN-yuhn): a narrow, deep river valley

flood plain (fluhd plane): an area of low land near a stream or river that easily floods

hemisphere (HEM-uhss-fihr): one half of a sphere such as the Earth or a planet

ice cap (eyess kap): a mound of ice that covers an area of land

Jupiter

Jupiter is the fifth planet from the Sun. It is the largest of all the planets in the solar system. It is also the first of the gas giants, or outer planets. All the outer planets are huge balls of gas. The other gas giants are Saturn, Uranus, and Neptune.



Jupiter is the largest planet in the solar system.

Jupiter is a huge planet. It has a diameter of over 88,679 miles (142,000 kilometers). Jupiter is 11 times larger than Earth. This giant planet also has a great mass. Jupiter has much more mass



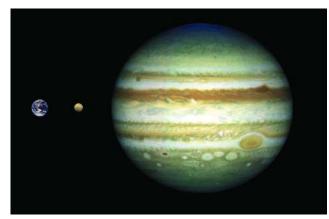
mass (mass): the amount of physical matter that an object contains

pressure (PRESH-ur): the force of one object pushing on another

satellite (SAT-uh-lite): a moon or other heavenly body that revolves around, or orbits, a larger heavenly body

(matter) than all the other planets put together. If Jupiter were 13 times bigger, it would be classified as a star called a brown dwarf instead of a planet. That would make it another star in the solar system.

Jupiter takes more than 11 Earth years to orbit once around the Sun. The distance from the Sun to Jupiter is over 5 astronomical units or five times the distance of the Sun to the Earth. Jupiter spins very fast. It takes a little less than 10 Earth hours for Jupiter to rotate once.



Many space probes have explored Jupiter. The piano-sized space probe New Horizons came within 1.4 million miles (2.3 million meters) of Jupiter on February 28, 2007.

Temperature

You might think Jupiter would be a frozen planet because it is so far away from the Sun but it's not. Jupiter's core is very hot. It can reach temperatures of 43,000 degrees Fahrenheit (24,000 degrees Celsius). In contrast,

Jupiter's atmosphere is cold. The Jupiter creates a huge and clouds average -193 degrees powerful magnetic field that Fahrenheit (-125 degrees Celsius). surrounds the planet and its moons. It is unlikely that there will **Atmosphere** ever be a manned space mission to The atmosphere of Jupiter is Jupiter. The pressure on Jupiter is so great that it turns gas into liquid. That is enough pressure to crush a spaceship!

very deep. It is made mostly of hydrogen and helium. Layers of clouds cover the planet. These layers are thin bands made of hydrogen sulfide, ammonia, and water vapor. Clouds near the top of the atmosphere move very quickly. As bands pass each other, they sometimes create a storm. Giant lightning bolts come from the clouds during a storm.



Jupiter is covered with thick clouds that move quickly and may cause storms when they meet.

A thin ring of dust orbits the planet far above the clouds. We cannot see the ring from Earth because it is so faint.

Moons

Jupiter has sixty-three known moons. That is the highest number of moons identified for any planet. Four of these moons are very large. Galileo discovered them in 1610. We know them as the Galilean satellites. They are named Ganymede, Callisto, Io, and Europa.

One of Jupiter's moons, Ganymede, has a diameter greater than the planet Mercury.





Ganymede is the largest moon in the solar system. Its diameter is 3,280 miles (5,262 km). Callisto is covered in ancient craters. It is about the same size as Mercury. Io is about the size of Earth's Moon. It has a violent surface with active volcanos. Europa is the smallest of the four large moons. It has a smooth and icy surface. It is possible that below the ice there is a layer of liquid water.

The other moons of Jupiter are much smaller. Many of them are recent discoveries. Astronomers discovered more than half of Jupiter's moons after 1999.

Special Features

There is a "Great Red Spot" on Jupiter. This spot is actually a giant storm. It is red from the gases that swirl within it. The spot has existed for hundreds of years. The storm is wider than three Earths!



The Great Red Spot on Jupiter can be seen with an Earth based telescope.

Exploration

The first spacecraft to visit Jupiter was Pioneer 10 in 1972. Since then, Voyager 1 and 2 have flown past the planet. The Galileo

Planet	Planetary Day (rotation on axis)	Planetary Year (revolution around Sun)	Distance from the Sun	Number of moons
Earth	24 hours	365 Earth days	93 million miles (149.6 million km)	1
Jupiter	9.8 hours	about 12 Earth years	483.6 million miles (778.3 million km)	63 (to date)

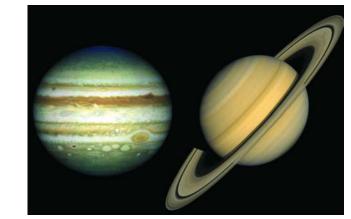
probe began to orbit Jupiter in 1996. It studied Jupiter and its moons. We learned from data sent back to Earth from the Galileo probe that the winds are stronger on Jupiter than the winds on Earth.

Saturn

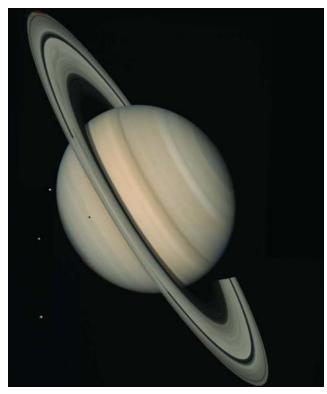
Saturn is the sixth planet from the Sun. It is the second largest planet in the solar system. Satur is one of the four gas giant planets. It is the farthest planet that we can see without the help a telescope. Saturn is a lot like it neighbor planet, Jupiter. Both planets are made mostly of gases and neither one has a solid surface.

Saturn has a diameter of about

Jupiter's Four Largest Moons



n	Saturn's atmosphere exhibits a banded pattern similar to Jupiter. Saturn's bands are much less visible than Jupiter's.
rn	74,085 miles (119,300 kilometers).
	It is nine times wider than the
	Earth. Saturn takes over 29 Earth
of	years to revolve around (orbit), the
its	Sun. Saturn's shape is like a ball
	squeezed flat on the top and
s	bottom. Saturn spins very fast
	causing the flattened shape. It
	takes just over 10 Earth hours for
ıt	the planet to rotate once.



Saturn spins very fast causing it to appear flat on the top and bottom.

Temperature

The average temperature on the surface of Saturn is very cold. It is about -290 degrees Fahrenheit (-179 degrees Celsius).

Atmosphere

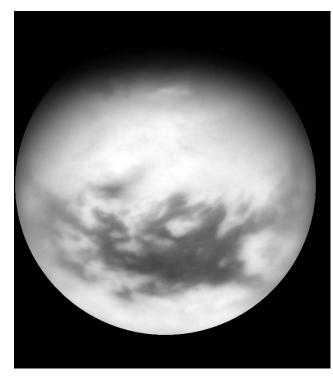
The atmosphere on Saturn is mostly hydrogen. There are also small amounts of helium and methane.

Strong winds blow across the surface of Saturn. These winds move very fast. Its clouds can move at about 1,100 miles per hour (1,800 kilometers per hour). There are wide bands of clouds. These clouds contain storms like

those on Jupiter. A layer of haze covers the upper atmosphere. This haze makes Saturn look yellow.

Moons

At least 56 moons orbit Saturn. Some are a few kilometers across. Others are the size of small planets. Titan is the largest moon of Saturn. It has a thick atmosphere covered in a brownish orange haze. Probes have detected nitrogen and methane on Titan. Many of Saturn's other moons have icy surfaces covered with craters. Some scientists believe that the moons of Saturn and Jupiter are where we might find evidence of simple life forms.



Titan is the largest moon of Saturn.

Planet	Planetary Day (rotation on axis)	Planetary Year (revolution around Sun)	Distance from the Sun	Number of moons
Earth	24 hours	365 Earth days	93 million miles (149.6 million km)	1
Saturn	10.2 hours	about 29 Earth years	886.7 million miles (1,427 million km)	56 (to date)

Special Features

Many people call Saturn the jewel of the solar system or the ringed planet because of its giant beautiful rings. Galileo discovere the rings in the 17th century.

From Earth, we can see only three big rings. Saturn actually h thousands of small rings called ringlets. The rings are made mostly of ice particles, but also



contain dust and rocks. Some particles are as small as dust. Others are the size of a house.

Saturn's rings are about .6 miles (one kilometer) thick. The gravitational pull of

Galileo Galilei

Saturn's moons gives the rings their shape.

Exploration

	The first spacecraft to visit		
	Saturn was Pioneer 11, in 1979.		
nt,	Since then, Voyager 1 and 2 have		
ed	flown past and studied the planet.		
	In 2004, the Cassini space probe		
	landed on the surface of Saturn's		
has	moon, Titan.		



The Cassini space probe landed on Titan.



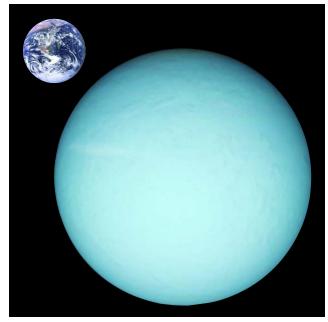
band (band): a narrow ring of material that goes around something

haze (hayz): smoke, dust, or moisture in the air that prevents you from seeing very far

Uranus

Uranus is the seventh planet from the Sun. It is the third largest planet in the solar system. Like Jupiter and Saturn, it is one of the gas giants.

The diameter of Uranus is 32,168 miles (51,800 kilometers). It takes Uranus 84 Earth years to orbit the Sun. The planet rotates once every 17 Earth hours.



The size of Uranus is roughly 14.5 times that of the Earth.

Uranus does not spin around the Sun like the other planets. It is tipped on its side and rolls around the Sun like a barrel. We can't be sure, but scientists think Uranus is tipped because it was hit by a small planet or comet.

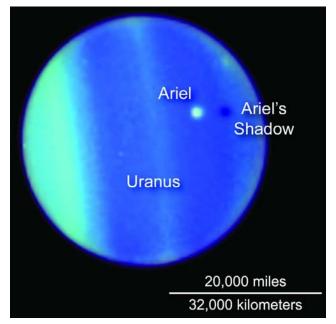
Temperature

Because it is so far from the Sun, Uranus is very cold. The average temperature is about -355 degrees Fahrenheit (-215 degrees Celsius). Scientists do think that there is a layer of very hot water, ammonia, and methane on Uranus.

Like Earth, Uranus experiences changing seasons. Because Uranus is titled on its side, a season lasts a very long time. One season on Uranus can last more than 20 years!

Atmosphere

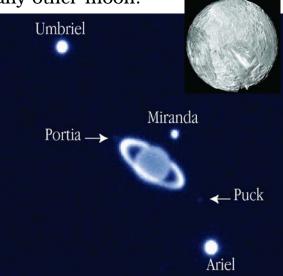
The atmosphere on Uranus is made mostly of hydrogen, helium, and methane. Methane gives Uranus its blue-green color. Wind speeds on Uranus are much slower than on Saturn and Jupiter.



The methane in the atmosphere gives Uranus its blue-green color.

Moons

Uranus has at least 27 moons. In 1977, scientists discovered Most of them are very small. The Uranus' 11 rings. Scientists five large moons are mostly made observed a star blinking on and off as it passed behind the planet. The of rock and ice. Miranda is the blinking was caused by the rings most unusual moon orbiting Uranus. It looks like a combination blocking the starlight. Pictures of many different pieces. Scientists taken in 1986 from the Voyager 2 think it may have been shattered as space probe showed that Uranus' many as five times. The surface has rings are made mostly of dark dust. craters and deep grooves unlike any other moon. **Exploration**



Planet	Planetary Day (rotation on axis)	Planetary Year (revolution around Sun)	Distance from the Sun	Number of moons
Earth	24 hours	365 Earth days	93 million miles (149.6 million km)	1
Uranus	17.9 hours	84 Earth years	1,784 million miles (2,871 million km)	27 (to date)

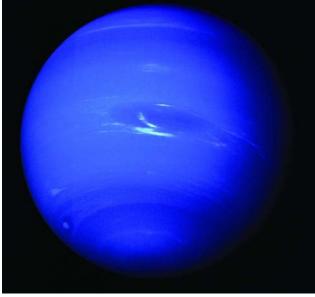
Special Features

Even though the Voyager 2 space probe launched in 1977, it did not reach Uranus until 1986. This was the first space probe to reach this distant planet. Since that time, we have learned more about Uranus from the Hubble Space Telescope.

The moons of Uranus are the least massive of all the gas giants.

Neptune

Neptune is the eighth planet from the Sun. It is the smallest gas giant in the solar system. Neptune has a diameter of 30.740 miles (49,500 kilometers).



Neptune is the smallest of all the gas giants.

Neptune is very far away from the Sun. Its average distance from the Sun is 2.8 billion miles (4.5billion kilometers). It orbits the Sun once every 165 Earth years. In 2011, Neptune will complete its first orbit around the Sun since scientists discovered it in 1846. A day on Neptune is just over 16 Earth hours.

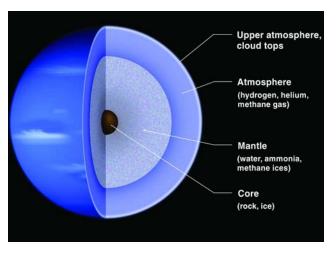
If you want to see Neptune from Earth, you must use a telescope. Even with a telescope, Neptune can be hard to see. It looks like a very small bluish ball.

Temperature

Neptune has recorded some of the coldest temperatures in the solar system. It has an average temperature of -355 degrees Fahrenheit (-214 degrees Celsius).

Atmosphere

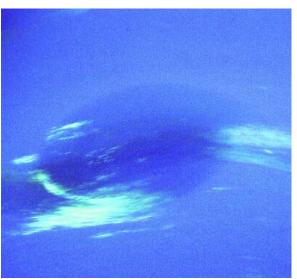
The atmosphere on Neptune is made of hydrogen, helium, and methane. The methane in the upper layers gives the planet its blue color.



The layers of Neptune are very similar to those of Uranus.

A good nickname for Neptune would be the windy planet. The strong wind rips through the atmosphere at 1,200 miles per hour (2,000 kilometers per hour). These winds are the strongest of any planet in the solar system. Thin white clouds move around the upper atmosphere. A giant storm, the Great Dark Spot continues to

move across the surface. The storm coldest of any known moon or is about the size of the Earth.



The Great Dark Spot of Neptune is a storm similar to the Great Red Spot of Jupiter.

Moons

actually seen until 1846, by At least thirteen moons orbit Neptune. Triton is the largest astronomers J.G. Galle and moon. It orbits in the opposite Heinrich Louis d'Arrest. direction of Neptune's other In 1989, Voyager 2 became the moons. This is a retrograde orbit. first space probe to visit Neptune Triton has a thin atmosphere. The giving us our first chance to learn surface temperature of Triton is the more about this distant planet.

Planet	Planetary Day (rotation on axis)	Planetary Year (revolution around Sun)	Distance from the Sun	Number of moons
Earth	24 hours	365 Earth days	93 million miles (149.6 million km)	1
Neptune	19.1 hours	165 Earth years	2,794.4 million miles (4,497.1 million km)	13 (to date)

planet in the solar system. The other moons of Neptune are much smaller than Triton.

Special Features

Neptune has rings like the other gas giants, Jupiter, Saturn, and Uranus. There are four rings in all. They are very faint and difficult to see.

Exploration

Neptune was the first planet identified by using mathematical predictions rather than by observation. Neptune was not

Pluto and the Dwarf **Planets**

Pluto

In 1930, when astronomer Clyde Tombaugh discovered Pluto, he identified it as a very small planet. Astronomers classified Pluto as a planet for 76 years. Then on August 24, 2006, the International Astronomical Union (IAU) changed Pluto's label from a planet to a dwarf planet.



Scientists reclassified Pluto as a dwarf planet because there are other objects in its orbital path. Two other dwarf planets are Ceres and Eris.

Pluto's diameter is smaller than the Earth's Moon. It has an elliptical orbit. Pluto's distance from the Sun ranges between 2.7 and 4.6 billion miles (4.4 and 7.4 billion kilometers). From 1979 to 1999, Pluto was closer to the Sun than Neptune. It takes Pluto 249 Earth years to orbit the Sun once. Pluto orbits in what we call the Kuiper Belt.

Pluto's Moons

Pluto has three moons. They are Charon, Nix, and Hydra.

A Planet	A Dwarf Planet	Small Solar-System Bodies
 is in an orbit around the Sun is big enough for gravity to squash it into a round ball has cleared other things out of its orbital path 	 is in an orbit around the Sun is big enough for gravity to squash it into a round ball has not cleared other things such as ice out of its orbital path is not a satellite 	 are all other objects except for satellites orbiting the Sun

Ceres

Ceres is the smallest dwarf planet. It is about the same size Texas. It is the only dwarf planet the main asteroid belt. Unlike most objects in the belt, Ceres is a sphere.

Scientists discovered Ceres in 1801. They first thought it was a planet, but then changed the classification to an asteroid. For another 150 years, scientists considered Ceres to be the largest identified asteroid. In 2006, scientists upgraded Ceres to be a dwarf planet.



Ceres is the smallest dwarf planet in the solar system.

Dwarf Planet	Diameter	Location	Number of moons
Pluto	1,143 miles (2,274 kilometers)	Kuiper Belt	3 (to date)
Ceres	590 miles (950 kilometers)	Asteriod Belt	0
Eris	1,489 miles (2,397 kilometers)	Kuiper Belt	1

Eris

	Although Eris is called a dwarf
as	planet, it is the ninth largest object
t in	orbiting the Sun. It is just slightly
	larger than Pluto. It has its own
5	moon, Dysnomia. Scientists
	discovered Eris in 2005. Some
L	astronomers initially called it the
ı	tenth planet. However, based on the
	definition developed by the IAU, it
	is recognized as a dwarf planet
	along with Pluto and Ceres.
,	

Eris is located in the outer regions of the Kuiper Belt, which is a band of small bodies orbiting the Sun beyond Neptune.

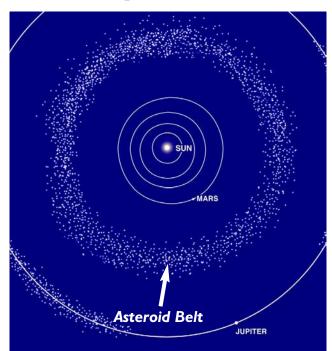


Eris was first identified as the tenth planet. It was later recognized as one of the three dwarf planets.

Asteroids, Meteoroids, and Comets

Asteroids

Asteroids are objects that orbit the Sun. They might also be called planetoids, minor planets or small solar system bodies. They are usually made of rock or iron, similar to the makeup of the four inner planets. Asteroids come in many different sizes and shapes. Some are large, but others are as small as pebbles. Most are in the asteroid belt between the orbits of Mars and Jupiter.



Most scientists think asteroids are pieces of material left over from the formation of the solar system. Asteroids could be material that never formed into a planet.

Ada's Moon



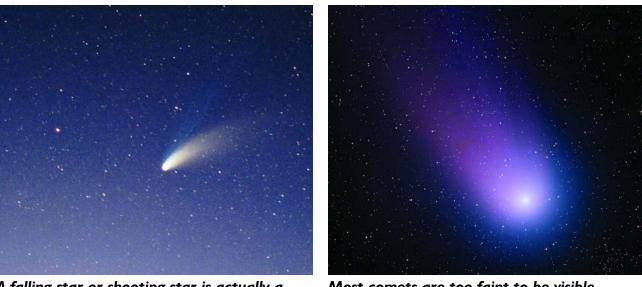
Some asteroids even have moons. In 1993, the space probe Galileo found a moon orbiting the asteroid Ida.

Meteoroids

Meteoroids are large sand to boulder size pieces of debris in the solar system. Many meteoroids form when asteroids break apart. A meteoroid that hits the Earth's atmosphere usually burns up in a streak of light. This visible streak of light is a meteor. People sometimes call a meteor a shooting star. A meteorite is a meteor that strikes the Earth.

Comets

A ball of ice and dust particles that orbits the Sun is a comet. A comet is like a giant, dirty



A falling star or shooting star is actually a meteor.

snowball. The orbit of a comet is constantly changing. Sometimes, a comet orbits close to the Sun and then will be thrown far out into space. Most comets are too faint to be seen without a telescope. We can see comets only when they are heated and illuminated as they near the Sun. As the comet gets closer to the Sun, the nucleus (center) of the comet begins to melt. The melting particles following behind the comet are its of miles or kilometers away from the Sun.

Halley's Comet is visible every 75-76 tail. The tail can extend for millions years. The last time it was visible from Earth was 1986. Scientists predict Halley's Comet will be visible again in the year Between 1995 and 1997 the 2061. How old will you be the next time Comet Hale-Bopp was the clearest Halley's Comet passes near the Earth? comet people on Earth had seen Because it looks like a huge fireball in for over 100 years. It was so bright the sky, many people used to think that it could be seen without using a Halley's Comet was a sign of bad luck. telescope. Unless you plan to live a Some people even thought it was the end very long time, you will not see of the world!

Most comets are too faint to be visible without the aid of a telescope.

Hale-Bopp again. Hale-Bopp won't be visible again from Earth for about 2,380 years!



Halley's Comet

Perhaps the most more famous comet of all is Halley's Comet. It was named after Edmond Halley, an astronomer and mathematician. Halley correctly predicted in 1705 that a certain comet would return in 1758.



On a clear night, you can see thousands of stars shining in the sky. From Earth, they seem to be small points of light. Yet many of them are larger than our Sun. There are far more stars in space than you can see with the naked eye. There are so many that you could never count them all. Our Sun is a medium sized star. It is one of the billions of stars in space.



Stars have been important for celestial navigation, orientation, and even for religious practices.

What Is a Star?

Stars are huge balls of spinning hot gas. Hydrogen and helium make up most stars including our Sun. There are many different types of stars. Stars can differ in size, color, and brightness.

Constellations

Thousands of years ago, people saw shapes of animals and people

in the stars. We call these groups of stars constellations because they form a pattern when viewed from Earth. Today, constellations describe the positions of stars. People have divided the stars into 88 constellations as a way to identify and locate stars.

Magnitude

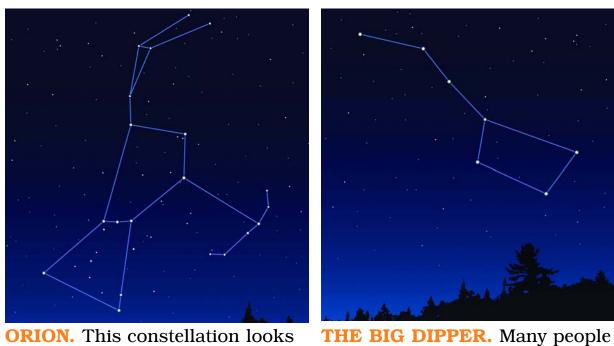
As you look into the night sky, you will see that some stars seem brighter than others. We call the brightness of a star its magnitude. Scientists give stars numbers to show how bright they are. Dim stars get high numbers. Bright stars get low numbers. Some stars are so bright their magnitudes are negative numbers.

If a star has a magnitude of six or less, we can see it from Earth without a telescope.



The apparent brightness of a star is measured by its magnitude.





ORION. This constellation looks like a hunter with his bow drawn.



URSA MAJOR. Also known as the Great Bear. If you look closely, vou can see that the tail of the **GEMINI.** These stars look like bear is made from the same star twins holding hands. pattern as the Big Dipper.

Stars

Well Known Constellations

think the Big Dipper is a

constellation. but it is not. It is a





Distance between Stars

The stars look very close together as we view them from Earth. In fact, stars are very far apart. We measure a star's distance from Earth in light years. One light year stands for how far light can travel in a year. One light year is equal to about 5.9 trillion miles (9.5 trillion kilometers).

The closest star to Earth is the Sun. It is 93 million miles away. The next closest star is Proxima Centauri. It is about 4.2 light years away from Earth. That is about 25 trillion miles (40 trillion kilometers) away!

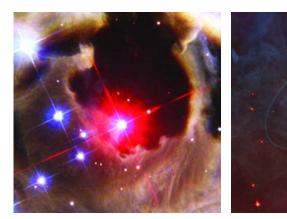
Types Of Stars

Stars come in many different sizes and colors. We call big stars giants and small stars dwarfs. Astronomers give each star a letter that describes the size, color, and temperature of the star. The types of stars are O, B, A, F, G, K, and M. Type O stars are big and hot. Type M stars are much smaller and cooler.

Blue giants are Type O stars. They are very bright and blue in color. Red dwarf stars are Type M and live long lives. Our own Sun is a Type G, or yellow, star. All these types of stars are identified as main sequence stars. All main sequence stars are in a stable time of their lives.

Stars in green are visible without the use of a telescope.

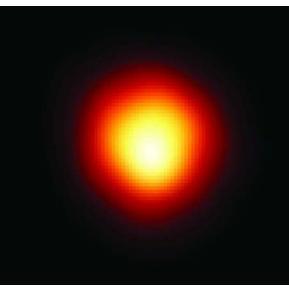
The Ten Closest Stars Outside Our Solar System			
Star Name	Distance from Earth (in light years)		
Proxima Centauri	4.2	11	
Alpha Centauri A	4.3	-0.01	
Alpha Centauri B	4.3	1.3	
Barnard's Star	5.9	9.5	
Wolf 359	7.7	13.5	
Lalande 21185	8.2	7.5	
Sirius A	8.6	-1.5	
Sirius B	8.6	8.4	
Luyten A	8.7	12.5	
Luyten B	8.7	13	



A red giant

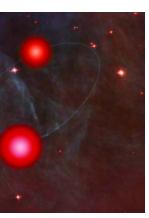
A brown dwarf

Supergiants are the largest stars in the sky. The largest supergiants are the red supergiants. They appear very bright because they are so big. The star Betelgeuse is a red supergiant over 800 times bigger than the Sun.



Betelgeuse is the second brightest star in the constellation Orion.

It might surprise you to know that the supergiants have a shorter life span than smaller stars. There size makes them hotter than other stars making them burn out faster.





know...

A white dwarf

Cecilia Payne-Gaposchkin was born in England in

Cecilia Payne-Gaposchkin

1900. Because girls were not taught science in school, she taught herself. Payne attended Cambridge University. She moved to the United States to work at the Harvard Observatory and to teach at the university. She was called an assistant because women could not join the faculty.

Payne-Gaposchkin studied the spectra of stars. She realized that all stars are made mostly of hydrogen and helium. She discovered that the variation among stars comes from different temperatures, not different elements. The light from each element creates a unique set of colored lines called spectra.

The Life Cycle of a Star

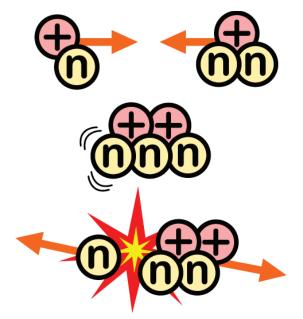
Stars do not live forever. They are born, shine for a period of time, and then eventually go out.

Birth of a Star

A cloud of dust and gas, called a nebula, begins to form in outer space. Over time, the cloud becomes so massive that gravity makes it collapse in on itself. When it does, it becomes a star.

Life of a Star

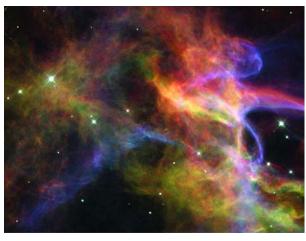
A star spends most of its life in a stage called main sequence. During this stage, a star gives off energy and light from nuclear fusion. It will shine energy into space.



Nuclear fusion is the process where multiple atomic particles join together to form a heavier nucleus. It is accompanied by the release of energy.

Cat's Eye Nebula

Veil Nebula



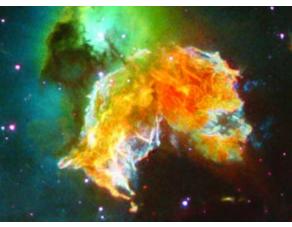
Helix Nebula



Death of a Star

Stars like our Sun have a predictable life cycle. Over time, our Sun will burn up most of its hydrogen. It will cool a little and start to shrink. It will then start to use helium as fuel and grow into a red giant. Eventually the Sun will swallow up Mercury and Venus. Once the Sun uses up the helium fuel, it will shrink into a tiny white dwarf star. The Sun will then completely cool and stop shining. Don't worry, this won't happen for another five billion years or so!

A dying star that has a core with two to three times more mass than our Sun will eventually collapse in on itself. The material of the star collapses so quickly that it creates an explosion called a supernova. From the Earth, supernovas look like bright lights in the night sky.

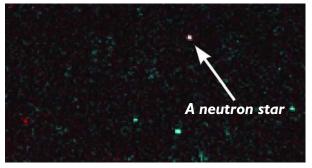


A supernova is an explosion of a dying star.

A supernova may leave behind a neutron star. In a neutron star, all

Nebulas

the material is pressed into a dense ball only a few miles or kilometers across.



Neutron stars sometimes give off light at regular intervals as they spin. We call these stars pulsars.

Nebulas may form from the particles given off by the stars collapse. Over time, these nebulas can form into new stars.

A dying star that has a core greater than three times the mass of our Sun will collapse into a black hole. The gravity of a black hole is so strong that even light can't escape. It looks black because no light gets out. Most scientists believe that a few black holes have been detected orbiting distant stars. They suck in material from the star and then throw it out into space at a rate near the speed of light.



dense (denss): crowded or thick

nuclear fusion (NOO-klee-ur FYOO-zhuhn): the release of energy when atoms are combined, or fused, together

Galaxies

A galaxy is a system of dust, gas, and stars that collects over a very large area. Gravity binds the objects in a galaxy together. Within each galaxy are billions of stars.

Types of Galaxies

The four basic shapes of galaxies are elliptical, spiral, barred spiral, and irregular. Elliptical galaxies are the most common type. Spiral galaxies, barred spiral galaxies, and irregular galaxies are less common.

Galaxy Shapes

Elliptical galaxies usually contain many old stars. Often, these stars are red giants and are near the ends of their lives. Some elliptical galaxies are shaped like spheres, while others are shaped like footballs.

Spiral galaxies have gigantic arms of stars that spread out, or radiate, from a center filled with stars. The bright stars in the center are red giants. Most of the bright stars in the arms are hot, young blue stars. All the stars in a spiral galaxy orbit the center.

Barred Spiral galaxies have two spiral arms connected by a bar of stars in the center.

Irregular galaxies look like a cloud of stars. They have odd shapes unlike elliptical and spiral galaxies.









Scientists believe that stars in a galaxy will group, or cluster, together in two different ways.

	Open Clusters (Galactic Clusters)
Number of stars	From a few stars up to thousands of stars
Gravitational bind	Loosely pulled togethe
Age	Less than a few hundre million years old
When viewed from Earth	Individual stars can b seen and look bright

The Milky Way

Our galaxy, the Milky Way, is one of many galaxies in a large group of galaxies called the Local Group. Some scientists think the Milky Way is a spiral galaxy, while others think it is a barred spiral galaxy.

Many stars group together near the center of the galaxy. Giant A galaxy may contain star systems and interstellar clouds and may have different arms of stars spread out from the shapes. center. The Sun is one of billions of stars in the Milky Way. Our 2,000 light-years thick. It will take solar system is nestled in one of our solar system nearly 230 the spiral arms about 32,000 light million years to complete one orbit years away from the center. of the galaxy's core. The Milky Way is over 140,000

light-years across. It is also nearly

er

ed

be

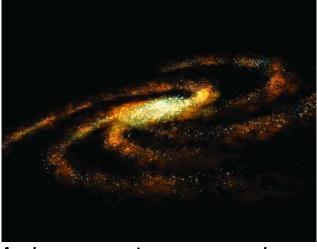
Globular Clusters

Thousands to millions of stars

Tightly pulled together

10 to 16 billion years old

Individual stars can be seen and look dim





The Milky Way as seen from Death Valley. The best time of year to view the Milky Way from the Northern Hemisphere is between July and September.

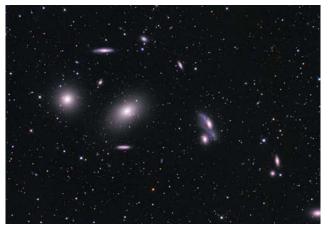
If you look at the sky on a very clear night, you may be able to see the light of a billion distant stars in of a large supercluster of galaxies a milky path. This path of light is our galaxy.

Group. It contains about 21 galaxies. The Local Group is part called the Virgo Supercluster.

The Milky Way has two irregular companion galaxies called the Small Magellanic Cloud and the Large Magellanic Cloud.

Other Galaxies

Billions of galaxies fill the void of outer space. Many of these galaxies are grouped together. The Milky Way belongs to a cluster of galaxies known as the Local



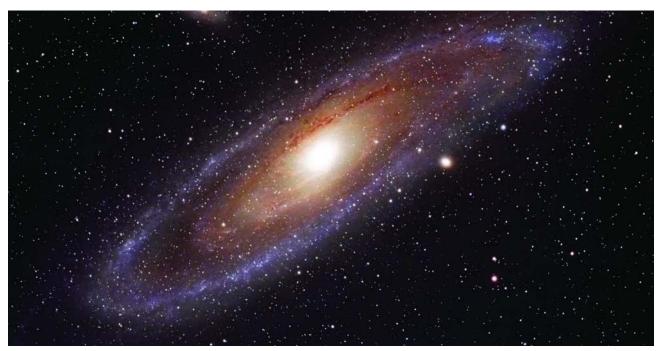
The Milky Way and Andromeda galaxies are part of the Virgo Supercluster.



The Large Magellanic Cloud is a dwarf galaxy that orbits the Milky Way.



The Small Magellanic Cloud is a galaxy that belongs to the Local Group along with the Milky Way.



The Andromeda galaxy is a spiral galaxy about 2.5 million light years away.





Galaxies Can Collide

Sometimes, the

huge gravity created by galaxies can make them collide, or hit each other! Their stars do not actually bump into each other, but the particles in their gas clouds do collide. These collisions may cause many new stars to form.

The Andromeda galaxy is the closest spiral galaxy to the Milky Way. You can see the Andromeda galaxy on a very clear night as a fuzzy spot in the sky.

The Universe

The universe is everything. It contains all galaxies, stars, planets, and matter that have ever existed or ever will exist. Everything you can possibly think of is part of the universe. The cosmos is another word for universe.

It is impossible to imagine the size of the universe. Think of words like huge, gigantic, enormous, and vast. The universe is bigger than all those words put together!

The Earth is a tiny planet orbiting one of 400 billion stars in our galaxy. There are over 100 billion galaxies. We are only beginning to understand how the universe works. Scientists still have more questions about the universe. There are many more questions than there are answers. We don't know exactly how galaxies form and where stars originate. Theories about the universe are constantly being developed and tested. This is the nature of science. How we look at the universe will change as technological advances reveal more of the universe's secrets.



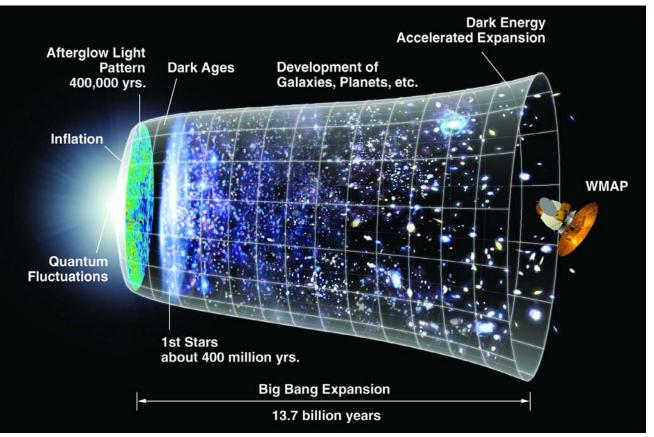
The universe contains all the galaxies, stars, planets, and types of matter. The universe continues to expand.

Origins of the Universe

Many scientists believe that the universe is between 15 and 20 billion years old. They believe thi because nearly all the galaxies in the universe are traveling away from one another. Scientists can



Satellites in space help collect data for scientists.



A graphical representation of the expansion of the universe, courtesy of NASA (WMAP stands for Wilkinson Microwave Anisotropy Probe).

	measure the rate at which the
	galaxies are moving apart.
e	
	The Big Bang Theory
is	Many scientists think that
	everything in the early universe was
	packed tightly into a single point.
	There were no galaxies, stars, or
	planets. Space, as we know it, did
	not exist. This single point was
	super hot and thick. Then this
	single point exploded. Scientists
	call this the Big Bang. Because of
	this huge explosion, the universe
	began to expand. This created
	matter, energy, space, and time.
	-

53

Astronomy and Space

The Big Bang is a theory based on the motion of galaxies and many mathematical calculations. Scientists still measure cosmic background radiation that came from the Big Bang.

There are over 100 billion galaxies in the visible universe. Most of these galaxies belong to clusters and superclusters. These superclusters are groups of galaxies that are drawn together in groups. They stretch out across the universe and may span several hundred million light years. The patterns of these superclusters can tell scientists a lot about the early history of the universe.



Dark Matter

Much of the universe is not visible even with the

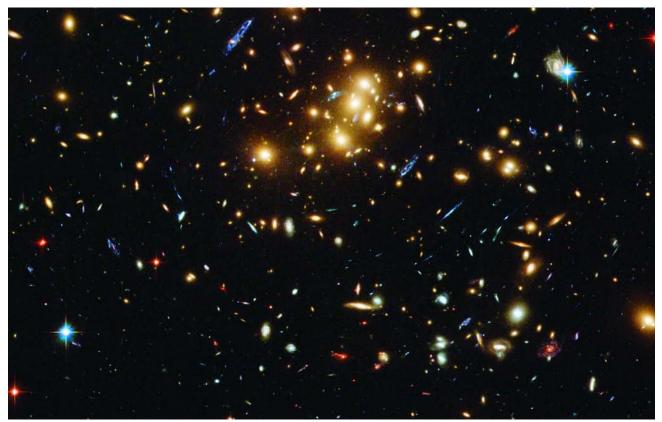
assistance of telescopes. Mathematical formulas and calculations help scientists figure out what is in outer space.

Astronomers have measured the amount of mass needed to hold galaxies together and to explain their motion through space. The number that they have calculated is far greater than the amount of material that has been observed. This "missing" mass is sometimes called dark matter.

Intergalactic space is the space between galaxies. It might contain a lot of dark matter.

This matter may take the form of dust, cold gas, dead stars, or black holes. Maybe dark matter is something else. We don't know for sure.

Over the centuries, people have wondered why the night sky is not lit up with light from the billions of stars in the Milky Way and other galaxies. One explanation is that dark matter is common throughout the universe. It might block some of the light from distant stars and galaxies. We know that there are giant dark clouds around the Milky Way. Some light from distant stars cannot reach Earth because of these dark clouds.



The Local Supercluster contains our galaxy the Milky Way.

Possible Ends of the Universe

Have you ever wondered if the universe will come to an end? If so, how do you think it will end? Scientists have several theories. The most common theories are the Open Universe Theory and the Closed Universe Theory.

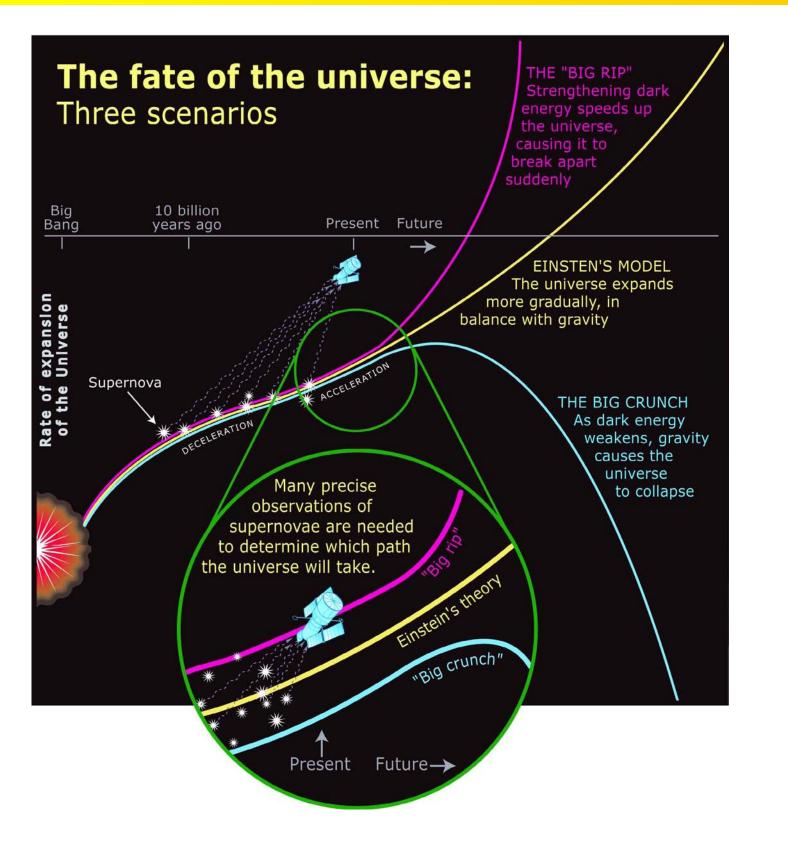
The Open Universe Theory

Some scientists think that the universe will continue to grow, or expand, forever. They believe that the galaxies will continue to move away from each other. At some point, the continuous growth will use up all of the energy in the universe. When this happens, scientists believe the universe will end by getting too hot, too cold (the Big Freeze), or ripping apart (the Big Rip). Scientists call this the Open Universe Theory.

The Closed Universe Theory

Other scientists believe that the universe will stop expanding. They think that the gravity from all the galaxies combined with all the material in the universe will begin to pull the universe back together. The universe will start to shrink, or contract. Eventually, all the energy, matter, space, and time will come together, or collapse, in the Big Crunch. After the Big Crunch, another explosion might begin a new universe. Scientists call this the Closed Universe Theory.

So who is right? Is the universe open or closed? It all depends on how much matter is in the universe. Current measurements still allow for both possibilities but most data suggests the universe will not collapse.





Stephen Hawking

1:0 know...

Stephen Hawking was born in England in 1942. In

1963, Hawking was diagnosed with amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. This fatal disease destroys the spinal cord and weakens the muscles. Hawking did not let this disease deter him from his passion for mathematics and physics.

Hawking earned a Ph.D. at Cambridge University. He began to study black holes. He found that they leak some radiation, which makes them become smaller. A black hole explodes if it gets too small, much like the Big Bang that started the universe.

Then in 1985, Hawking lost the ability to speak and began to use a computer voice. He became more famous after publishing A Brief *History of Time* in 1988. This book explains the origin of the universe to the public.

In 2005 at the age of 63, Hawking along with fellow physicist Leonard Mlodinow published A Briefer History of Time. This book seemed to be easier to read than the first book and this second version of the book provided more current and updated information.

Space Exploration



A refractor telescope

Humans have always had a need to explore. In ancient times, people could study only the places where they lived. They could only wonder about the rest of the world and what might exist in the universe.

Over the years, new technologies developed. With improved modes of transportation, we could explore more of the Earth. Today, with advanced mathematics, telescopes, unmanned spacecraft, and manned spacecraft, we have more options for exploring the universe.

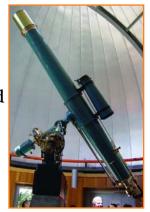
Telescopes

One of the first tools that helped scientists study the sky was the telescope. There are many different types of telescopes, but all telescopes have one thing in common. They help us study things that are far away.

Telescopes Used For Astronomy

Optical

telescopes gather light to create images. These telescopes are used for astronomy. If you look at a tree through an optical telescope it will appear upside down.



X-ray and gamma-ray telescopes can be difficult to use. They are usually used on satellites or high-flying balloons.



The Gamma-ray Large Area Space Telescope, or GLAST.



Radio telescopes gather very quiet sounds from space using large dishes and antennas.



A space probe is an unmanned spacecraft that collects information about outer space. The 1950s marked the beginning of the use of space probes to study the Earth, its Moon, the other planets, and the universe. They can be as small as a



Space telescopes are out in space. Space telescopes can see things and hear things that are too far away or blocked from the view of telescopes on Earth.

coffee can or bigger than a bus. Some probes send pictures back to Earth. Others provide different kinds of information. For example, a probe may explore the surface of a moon or planet.

The earliest probes simply orbited the Earth or the Moon. Later probes explored other planets.



eccine to know...

Edwin Powell Hubble was born in Missouri in 1889. His

family moved to Chicago in 1898. In high school, Hubble earned good grades but excelled in sports. After high school, he studied astronomy and mathematics at the University of Chicago. Hubble studied law, coached basketball, and taught physics and Spanish. Then he decided to pursue astronomy as a career.

Hubble worked at Yerkes Observatory in Wisconsin. It had a 40-inch refracting telescope, the largest in the world at that time. Hubble also used its 24-inch reflecting telescope to study nebulas.

In 1919, he went to Mount Wilson Observatory in California. It had a new 100-inch reflecting telescope. Using this telescope, Hubble proved the existence of other galaxies. He also introduced the classification system for galaxies. In 1929, he formulated Hubble's Law, which helped astronomers figure out the age of the universe and prove that the universe was expanding.

Hubble helped design the 200-inch reflecting telescope at Mount Palomar Observatory, in California. He died in 1953. The Hubble Space Telescope is named in his honor.



orbit Earth.

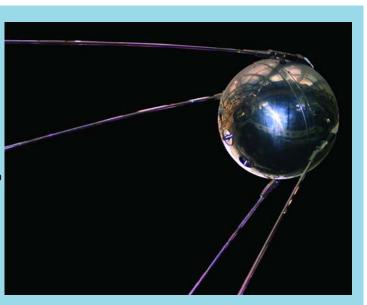
The Sputnik Program

The Sputnik program was a series of unmanned space missions launched by the Soviet Union in the late 1950s. It included Sputnik 1, the first manmade object to

1957, the Russian spacecraft called Sputnik 1 was the first manmade object ever to reach outer space.

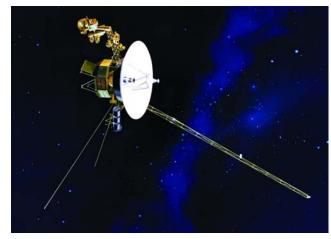
58

Edwin Powell Hubble



Some probes just take pictures as they pass by planets. Others orbit planets and study them in more detail. Scientists drop probes into the atmospheres of other planets. A few probes even land on the surface of the planets and moons they are studying.

The Americans launched Voyager 1 and Voyager 2 in 1977. Voyager 1 is the first probe ever to leave the solar system. It is the manmade object that has traveled the farthest away from Earth. Thirty years after launching, Voyager 1 and Voyager 2 continue to explore the deepest parts of the universe. Scientists with NASA's Deep Space Network communicate with the probes daily.



Voyager I.

The Mars Pathfinder was launched on December 4, 1996 by NASA aboard a Delta II. After a 7month voyage, it landed on Mars

on July 4, 1997. The lander opened, exposing the rover, called Sojourner, that was used for many different experiments on the Martian surface.

Humans in Space

Space has fascinated humans for centuries. Since the early 1960's, humans have traveled into orbit around the Earth. By 1969, humans had walked on the Moon.

Astronauts and cosmonauts are men and women who travel into space. Many astronauts travel into the local space around the Earth. Some stay for a few days. Others remain in space for several months.

Launched in 1973, Skylab was the first American space station. In 1986 the Russians launched the space station Mir. Initially, satellites and rockets were launched to transport astronauts and supplies to the space stations. Now we use space shuttles.

Today many countries work together to man, build, and maintain the International Space Station (ISS).

April 12, 1961	Yuri Gagar
	aboard Vos
May 5, 1961	Alan Shepa
	space aboa
February 20, 1962	John Glen
	the Earth a
June 16, 1963	Valentina 7
	space aboa
July 20, 1969	Neil Armst
	humans to

A History of the United States Space Shuttle Program

April 12, 1982	John You
	Columbi
June 18, 1983	Sally Rid
	outer spa
August 30, 1983	Guion S.
	America
January 28, 1986	The space
	launch. A
	Christa I
September 29, 1988	Discover
	the Chall
February 1, 2003	The space
	re-entere
	the astro
July 26, 2005	Eileen Co
	mission
August 8, 2007	Teacher
	first teac
	shuttle E

A History of Manned Spaceflight

- rin becomes the first human in space stok 1.
- pard Jr. becomes the first American in ard Freedom 7.
- in becomes the first American to orbit aboard Friendship 7.
- Tereshkova becomes the first woman in ard Vostok 6.
- strong and Buzz Aldrin become the first o land and walk on the Moon.
- ung and Robert Crippin are pilots of ia, the first space shuttle.
- de became the first American woman in pace, aboard the space shuttle Challenger. . Bluford became the first Africanin astronaut in outer space.
- ce shuttle Challenger was destroyed after All the astronauts, including teacher McAuliffe. were killed.
- ry is the first space shuttle launched after llenger disaster.
- ce shuttle Columbia broke apart when it ed Earth's atmosphere, killing all onauts.
- Collins commands the first space shuttle since the Columbia disaster.
- and astronaut, Barbara Morgan, is the cher in space aboard the space Endeavour.

The ISS has been home to many different astronauts and cosmonauts from around the world since November 2, 2000.

Space is not an easy place for humans to live. There is no air. Humans must stay inside spaceships or special space suits. This protects them from the harsh conditions of outer space. People are also weightless in outer space. This poses challenges to human health.

The conditions of space are unique. People can perform laboratory experiments and study things that are difficult or impossible to study on Earth.

People Who Study Space

Astronomers are people who study the sky. They make a career out of studying the sky. Amateur astronomers look at planets, stars, and galaxies as a hobby.

Astrophysics deals with the behavior and physical properties of all the objects in space.

Cosmology studies the origin and structure of the universe itself.

Scientists who study the sky use mathematics to predict the paths of planets, asteroids, and comets.



chemistry (KEM-is-tree): the scientific study of substances

physics (FIZ-iks): the science that deals with matter and energy

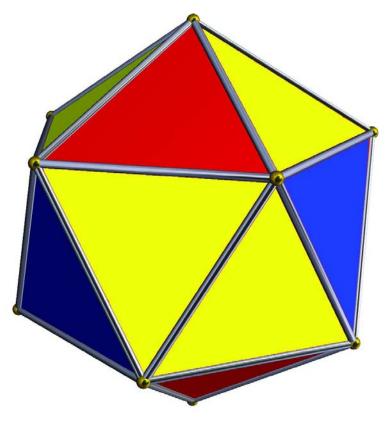
properties (PROP-ur-teez): special qualities or characteristics

Advanced forms of mathematics like chaos theory are used to describe the motions of galaxies and to explain the origins of the universe.

Astronauts who travel into space have backgrounds in physics, chemistry, medicine, and engineering. Mechanical engineers and electrical engineers design and build spaceships, probes, and space stations. People in all different fields of science study space and our place within it. Someday you may work in space, discover new information about the universe, or develop technology to be able to live on another planet!



Volume 8 Mathematics



By Tim Clifford

Editorial Consultant Luana Mitten Project Editor Kurt Sturm

Rourke Publishing LLC Vero Beach, Florida 32964

Table of Contents

© 2008 Rourke Publishing LLC

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced or utilized in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical including photocopying, recording, or by any information storage and retrieval system without permission in writing from the publisher.

www.rourkepublishing.com

Photo credits:

Page 4 © Tero Sivula; Page 4b © Kiselev Andrey Valerevich; Page 4c © courtesy of NOAA; Page 7 © Brad Sauter; Page 7b © Steve Snowden; Page 9b © sagasan; Page 10 © Elena Blokhina; Page 10b © Rich Koele; Page 10c © Morgan Lane Photography; Page 11 © Terrie L. Zeller; Page 12 © Jeroenhjj; Page 13 © Martine Oger; Page 14 © Silvia Bukovac; Page 14b © ene; Page 15 © Steve Luker; Page 15b © Debbi Gerdt; Page 16 © Kheng Guan Toh; Page 16b © Joy Brown; Page 19 © Kmitu; Page 21 © zackblanton; Page 22 © Ugorenkov Aleksandr; Page 26 © Simon Krzic; Page 26b © Simon Krzic; Page 27 © Mark Lijesen; Page 27b © Christoph Weihs; Page 27c © Marek Szumlas; Page 27d © Volkan Erdogan; Page 28 © Rich Koele; Page 29 © pixshots; Page 29b © Kmitu; Page 30 © Archetype; Page 31 © Mushakesa; Page 33 © Arvind Balaraman; Page 34 © rj lerich; Page 36 © zimmytws; Page 36b © Cara Purdy; Page 36c © Rob Byron; Page 37 © Dmitry Nikolaev; Page 33 © Maria Gritcai; Page 43 © Ronen Boidek; Page 45 © David Má‰ka; Page 45b © Jellyhead360; Page 46 © Feverpitched; Page 48 © Chris Alcantara; Page 50 © Skocko; Page 50 © Skocko; Page 50 © Skocko; Page 50 © Shocko; Page 50 © Shore C Webb; Page 51 © Nada Milevska; Page 53 © R. de Man; Page 54 © Crystal Kirk; Page 55 © sonya etchison; Page 58 © J.Gatherum; Page 58b © Gina Goforth; Page 59 © Brian Daly; Page 59 © Arvind Balaraman; Page 52 © Donald.

Editor: Luana Mitten

Cover design by Nicola Stratford. Blue Door Publishing

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Rourke's world of science encyclopedia / Marcia Freeman ... [et al.].
v. cm.
Includes bibliographical references and index.
Contents: [1] Human life -ISBN 978-1-60044-646-7
1. Science--Encyclopedias, Juvenile. 2. Technology--Encyclopedias, Juvenile. I. Freeman, Marcia S. (Marcia Sheehan), 1937-Q121.R78 2008
503--dc22

2007042493

Volume 8 of 10 ISBN-978-1-60044-654-2 **Printed in the USA**

CG/CG

Rourke Publishing	
www.rourkepublishing.com – rourke@rourkepublishing.com Post Office Box 3328, Vero Beach, FL 32964	n

What is Mathematics?
How We Use Mathematics
Number Systems
Numbers
Counting
Addition
Subtraction
Multiplication
Division
Sets
Finite Sets
Infinite Sets
Subsets and Supersets
Venn Diagrams
-
Ratios Proportions
Fractions
Decimals
Statistics
Averages
Probability
Algebra
Variables
Exponents
Roots
Equations
Coordinates and Grids
Geometry
Basic Geometry
Advanced Geometry
Lines
Angles
Triangles
Rectangles and Squares
Circles
Curves
Measurement
Length
Mass and Weight
Volume
Time
Temperature
Advanced Math
Calculus
Chaos Theory

												 				.4
																.7 .8
																.10
																.11 .13
																.14
																.16
																.19
																.22
																.23 .23
																.23
																.24
																.26
				 •				 •		 •		 •		•		 .28
																.28
																.32
																.34
																.35 .36
																.37 .37
																.37
•		•	•	 •	•		•	 •		 •	•	 •		•	•	 .39
																.41
																.41
																.43
																.43 .43
																.44
																 .45
																 .46
																.48 .51
	•••															.53
																.54
																.55
																.56
																.58 .60
																.60
																.61
																• 6 2
								 -				 -				 .62

What Is Mathematics?

When you think of mathematics, you probably don't think of science. But mathematics is a science. Mathematics is the study of numbers, shapes, change, quantities, and patterns. It also looks at the relationships between

them. Math is a short way of saying mathematics.

Not only is mathematics a science, all other scientists use math in their work. Can you think of how a chemist, biologist, or astronomer might use math?

use math to estimate

lasers power.

HOW SCIENTISTS USE MATH Scientists use math to compare Biologists microscopic objects sizes and shapes. Chemists use math to measure chemicals for solutions. use math to predict Meteorologists weather patterns.

70,000 BC geometric patterns 35.000 BC to 20,000 BC to quantify time 20.000 BC 3400 BC 3100 BC 2800 BC ancient weights and measures 2700 BC Egypt - precision surveying 2600 BC perfect right angles 1000 BC 400 BC innumerable, and infinite 300 BC 300 BC calculator, the abacus 300 BC

Physicists

Timeline of Mathematics 70,000 to 300 BC

South Africa - ochre rocks adorned with scratched

Africa and France - earliest known prehistoric attempts

Nile Valley - the Ishango Bone is possibly the earliest reference to prime numbers and Egyptian multiplication Mesopotamia - the Sumerians invent the first numeral system, and a system of weights and measures Egypt - earliest known decimal system allows indefinite counting by way of introducing new symbols Indus Valley Civilization on the Indian subcontinent earliest use of decimal ratios in a uniform system of

Indus Valley Civilization - objects, streets, pavements, houses, and multi-storied buildings are constructed at

Egypt - use of common fraction by Egyptians

India - mathematicians write a mathematical text which classifies all numbers into three sets: enumerable.

Egypt - Euclid proves the infinitude of prime numbers and presents the Euclidean algorithm

Mesopotamia - the Babylonians invent the earliest

India - mathematician Pingala writes the "Chhandah Shastra", which contains the first Indian use of zero as a digit (indicated by a dot) and also presents a

description of a binary numeral system, along with the first use of Fibonacci numbers and Pascal's triangle

Mathematics

Timeline of Mathematics 260 BC to AD1100s Mexico - the Olmecs people were using a true zero (a shell 250 BC glyph) several centuries before Ptolemy Greece - Eratosthenes uses his sieve algorithm to quickly 240 BC isolate prime numbers 140 BC Greece - Hipparchus develops the bases of trigonometry India - Indian numerals, the first positional notation 50 BC base-10 numeral system, begins developing in India Greece - Diophantus uses symbols for unknown numbers AD 250 in terms of the syncopated algebra India - the earliest known use of zero as a decimal digit is AD 300 introduced by Indian mathematicians

India - Shridhara gives the rule for finding the volume of AD 700s a sphere and also the formula for solving quadratic equations

Europe - Al-Khawarizmi is considered father of modern ad 750 algebra since he was the first to bring Indian mathematics to Europe

Iran - Ali Ahmad Nasawi divides hours into 60 minutes AD 1030 and minutes into 60 seconds

AD 1100s India - Indian numerals were modified by Arab mathematicians to form the modern Hindu-Arabic numeral system (used universally in the modern world) Europe - the Hindu-Arabic numeral system reaches AD 1100s Europe through the Arabs

Like any science, mathematics must show us things we didn't know. Proofs and theorems are the basis for math. A proof is a mathematical argument that convinces others to believe it is true.

A theorem is a mathematical statement supported by one or

more proofs. Mathematicians can prove that theorems are true. There are many proofs and theorems in math.

Mathematics uses reasoning and logic to solve problems. In math, you solve a problem by thinking. Other sciences rely on experiments to solve a problem.

It might seem like mathematicians already have solved all the math problems in the world because most of the math you do in school has a right and wrong answer. But mathematics is always growing. As we learn new things and create new technologies, mathematicians have new problems to solve.

How We Use **Mathematics**

People use mathematics every day. At home, we prepare food using math to measure ingredients. It helps us decide what size we need to cut the boards for a tree house. We can keep to a budget using math. You use mathematics when you count,



Many studies have found playing chess improves math skills.

play games, or share a plate of cookies with your friends. We use math outside the home. too. It helps us figure out how much of a tip to leave at a restaurant. We can find out how long a car trip will take us. Math can help you decide how much money you will have for snacks after buying a movie ticket.



You use math when paying a bill at a restaurant.

Many jobs involve math as well. The people who build homes use mathematics to make sure the walls don't collapse.



logic (LOJ-ik): thoughtful and accurate reasoning or thinking

quantity (KWAHN-tuh-tee): an amount or number

science (SYE-uhnss): studying nature and the physical world by testing, experimenting, and measuring

Mathematics

A hairstylist uses math to measure the chemicals to color hair. Businesses use mathematics when dealing with money. Stores add up our bills using math.

Math is also the basic tool used by scientists and engineers. They use it to describe the universe and everything within it.

Math isn't just for school. Math is everywhere and we use it every day!

Number Systems

Humans have used numbers for a very long time. Throughout the history of man, every culture used some form of mathematics. The numbers that we use today have been around for thousands of years.

The Base Ten System

Today, we use a base ten number system. The digits used in base ten are 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9. Using those 10 digits, we can make any number in the system.

The base ten system was probably created because we have ten fingers to count on. There are other bases as well. Some bases use more than ten numbers. Some use fewer.

What numbers can you make with these digits?

Digits	Whole Numbers
5, 7	57
	75
1, 3, 9	139
	193
	319
	391
	913
	931

The Base Two System (Binary Numbers)

In the base two system, only two digits are used. They are 0 and 1. Most computers use the binary system. Binary numbers are base two because all numbers can be made using zero or one.

Let's look at how the base ten numbers look in binary. Can you figure out the pattern?

The Base Ten Digits	In Base Two There Would Be
0	0000
1	0001
2	0010
3	0011
4	0100
5	0101
6	0110
7	0111
8	1000
9	1001

Base two is difficult for humans Roman numerals. Roman to use. Larger numbers get very numerals may look neat, but they large. The number 100 in base two are hard to use in mathematics. is 1100100!



The **Biggest** Number is Infinity Infinity is used to

describe a number that goes on forever. You can never reach infinity no matter how high or low you count!

In 1665, mathematician John Wallis created a symbol for infinity and we still use his symbol today. The symbol for infinity, ∞ , looks like a sideways 8.



In ancient Rome, people wrote numbers differently. They used



This clock shows that it is ten minutes to one.

Roman Numerals	Arabic Numerals
I	1
II	2
III	3
IV	4
V	5
VI	6
VII	7
VIII	8
IX	9
Х	10
L	50
С	100
D	500
Μ	1000

9

Arabic Numerals

Today, we use Arabic numerals. The digits 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 are all Arabic numerals. These numerals were developed in the Middle East thousands of years ago.



digit (DIJ-it): any Arabic numerals from 1 to 9, and sometimes 0

number (NUHM-bur): a word or symbol used for counting and for adding and subtracting

numeral (NOO-mur-uhl): the symbol that represents a number, such as 4 or IV

Numbers

Numbers are everywhere. We use numbers to tell time. They help us count money. We measure food with them. We use numbers in everything we do. Numbers are an important form of communication. Every language on the planet has some form of number system. Look around and see all the numbers in your world.

4 cups chopped apples Sprinkle 2 cups sugar over them. Stier often so-they make plenty pice. Po not cook. Let stand 1 hr. Beat - Legge Gdd - 34 cup cooking oil 1 tsp. vaniela

We use numbers in recipes.



Digital clocks display the correct time.



The Federal Reserve prints a serial number on each bill printed. There are a maximum of 832 bills with the same serial number. Serial numbers help prevent counterfeiting.

There are many different types of numbers. The most common are whole numbers. Whole numbers are the ones we use for counting. They are numbers like 1, 4, 15, 27, and 42. They are also called natural or positive numbers. A positive number is greater than zero.

Sometimes numbers are negative. This means that they are less than zero. A negative number looks like a whole number with a minus sign (-) in front of it.

Integers are all the natural numbers, the negative numbers, and zero combined.



In mathematics, we put numbers together in different combinations using different functions. This helps make new numbers. These new numbers gi people important information. Math begins with simple countin Then comes addition, subtraction multiplication, and division. Arithmetic is another name for these four operations. There are also other ways to use numbers.

Addition	2	+	2	II	4
Subtraction	4		2	=	2
Multiplication	3	x	3	=	9
Division	8	• •	4	=	2



Zero Means Nothing The number zero

actually means there is no number! It is used as a place holder when other numbers are not being used. In the number 205 the zero holds the "tens place". If we left out the zero we'd have 25. Would you rather get \$205 or \$25 for your birthday?

The ancient Greeks and Romans did not have a zero in their numbers. This made it difficult for them to write down mathematical problems.

Counting

	The simplest way of using
give	numbers is to count them.
	Counting from 1 to 10 is easy. You
ng.	can use your ten fingers. One hand
on,	can count to 5 by putting up one
	finger at a time. The other hand
	can count from 6 to 10 by putting
<u>è</u>	up the rest of the fingers. This is
•	why many number systems are
	based on 10.



We can also use our fingers to perform simple addition and subtraction problems.

Often people have to count in their heads without using their fingers. This is a very important skill. People who can count in their heads can learn how to do all kinds of mathematics easily. Sometimes, people count on paper by making tally marks. We can also use a device called a counter. Often, computers and calculators are used to count for us. Tally marks

Mathematics



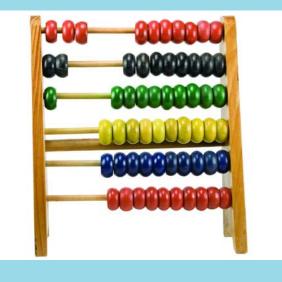
You Can Do Math with Beads

Ancient Greeks invented the first

calculator. The abacus is a device with beads strung on wires or bars. People can learn to do math very quickly with it. Using an abacus, you can do addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division.

If you travel around the world, you will probably see someone using an abacus in the marketplaces where they sell the goods they make or food they grow in their gardens.

Just about every language on Earth uses the Arabic numbers 0 though 9. Every language has



different words for these numbers. Some of the words look the same but sound very different.

	French	Spanish	Japanese	Chinese
0	zéro (ZAY-roh)	cero (SHE-roh)	zero (zeh-doh)	ling (ling)
1	un (uhn)	uno (OO-noh)	ichi (ee-chee)	yi (ee)
2	deux (dyew)	dos (dose)	ni (nee)	er (ar)
3	trois (twah)	tres (trace)	san (sahn)	san (sahn)
4	quatre (kat)	cuatro (KWAH-troh)	shi (shee)	si (ss)
5	cinq (sank)	cinco (SEEN-koh)	go (goh)	wu (ooh)
6	six (seece)	seis (sace)	doku (doh-koo)	liu (lyo)
7	sept (set)	siete (see-EH-tay)	shichi (shee-chee)	qi (chee)
8	huit (weet)	ocho (OH-cho)	hachi (hah-chee)	ba (bah)
9	neuf (nuhf)	nueve (NWEH-vay)	ku (koo)	jiu (jyo)
10	dix (deece)	diez (DEE-ehs)	ju (joo)	shi (shh)



Leonardo Fibonacci was born in Italy around 1170. He was from the town of Pisa and is sometimes called know... Leonardo of Pisa or Leonardo Pisano. In his time, people in Europe still used Roman numerals. He learned to speak and read Arabic in Algeria. Fibonacci realized it was easier to use Arabic numerals for multiplication and division. He wrote a book about solving math problems using Arabic numerals.

Fibonacci found a way to solve equations with two unknown quantities. He also noticed that a series of numbers in which each number is the sum of the two preceding numbers like 0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13...has many interesting properties. This is now called a Fibonacci series.

Addition

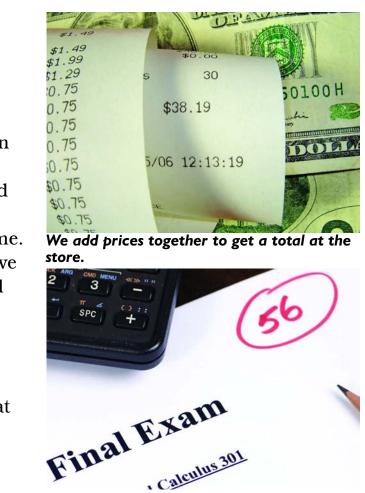
One way of putting numbers together is to add them. Addition is the combining of numbers to make a new number. We can add two or more numbers together.

People use addition all the time. We can add the prices of items we buy to find the total. We can add the points on a test to see the score.

Terms Used in Addition

Addends are the numbers that we add together. The sum is the total of all the added numbers.

Leonardo Fibonacci

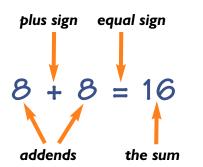


The teacher added the points together for a final score.

Mathematics

Symbols Used in Addition

The plus sign (+) is used to show when numbers should be added. The equal sign (=) is used to separate the two equal sides of a mathematical statement.

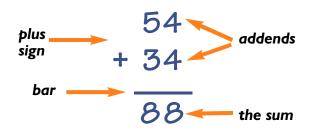


Adding from Left to Right. Adding numbers from left to right is useful for small numbers.

6 + 6 = 12

Adding by Going Down. It is often easier to add bigger numbers on paper by going down.

A line called a bar replaces the equal sign to separate the sum from the numbers being added.



Adding Zero. If you add zero to a number, the number does not change.

6 + 0 = 612 + 0 = 12



1 muffin plus 0 muffins equals 1 muffin

Addition is Commutative

In addition, you can reverse the numbers you add and the sum will not change. We call this the commutative property.

102 + 103 = 205103 + 102 = 205

Subtraction

The opposite of addition is subtraction. Addition puts numbers together, but subtraction takes one number away from the other. In subtraction, you find the difference between two numbers. We can subtract two or more numbers from each other.

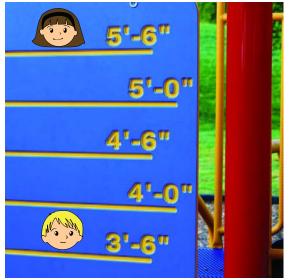
People use subtraction all the time in their lives. We can subtract to find out how much money we will have left after we buy something. We can also find out how much time we have left to complete a task with subtraction.



This woman is checking how much time she has left before the game is over.

Terms Used in Subtraction

In subtraction, we make a new number. The new number is the difference between the numbers.



If one child is 5'6" and another child is 3'6". you can subtract the two measurements and discover the difference in their heights is two feet.

Symbols Used in Subtraction The minus sign (-) is used to show when numbers should be subtracted. The equal sign (=) is used to separate the two equal sides of a mathematical statement. minus sign equal sign minuend 2 8 6 = the difference subtrahend



Subtracting from Left to Right.

Subtracting numbers from left to right is useful for subtracting small numbers.

7 - 3 = 4

Subtracting by Going Down. It is

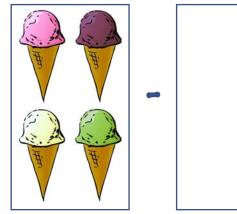
often easier to subtract bigger numbers on paper by going down. We use a bar instead of the equal

sign to separate the difference from the big numbers being subtracted.



Subtracting Zero. If you subtract zero from a number. the number does not change.

> 6 - 0 = 612 - 0 = 12



4 ice creams minus 0 ice creams equals 4 ice creams

Subtraction is Not Commutative

If you reverse the numbers in a subtraction problem, you will usually get the wrong answer. Subtraction does not have commutative properties.

> 5 - 3 = 23 - 5 = -2

Multiplication

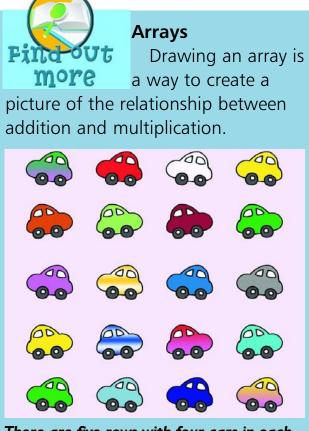
Sometimes, numbers are added to themselves many times, over and over. A simple way of describing this is multiplication.

For example, you can add the number 6 four times. like this:

6 + 6 + 6 + 6 = 24

In this problem, the number 6 appears four times. Instead of adding, you can multiply four times six and get the same answer:

 $4 \times 6 = 24$



There are five rows with four cars in each. You can write the equation 5×4 instead of 4 + 4 + 4 + 4 + 4. The answer is still 20.

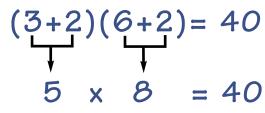
Terms Used in Multiplication

When we multiply two or more numbers together, we call the answer the product.

3 x 2 the broduct = 6

Symbols Used in Multiplication

Several different symbols indicate we should use multiplication to solve a math problem. In beginning math, we usually use the times symbol (x) to show that numbers are going to be multiplied. Sometimes a dot (•) or an asterisk (*) is used in between numbers that are being multiplied. If you see an equation with parenthesis around groups of numbers, that also means to multiply.



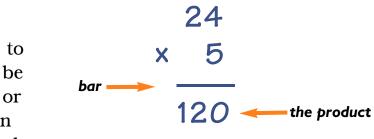
The equal sign (=) is used to separate the two equal sides of a mathematical statement.

Multiplying Across. For smaller numbers, you can multiply on a **Multiplication is Commutative** line going across. You can use the You can reverse the numbers you x, the dot, or the asterisk to show are multiplying. The product will be multiplication. the same. $4 \times 9 = 36$ $4 \times 6 = 24$ 9 = 36 $6 \times 4 = 24$

36 9 Ξ

The product of 4 times 9 is 36.

Multiplying by Going Down. It is often easier to multiply bigger numbers on paper by going down.



The bar is used instead of the equal sign when multiplying this way. The product, or answer, is below the bar.

Multiplying by Zero. Math is not magical. If you multiply a number by zero, the product is always zero.

> $4 \times 0 = 0$ $20 \times 0 = 0$ $1000 \times 0 = 0$



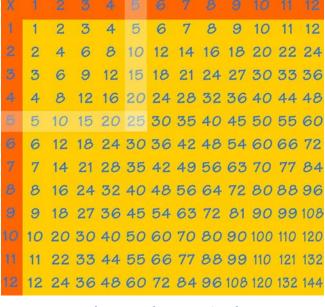
The Multiplication Table

A multiplication table shows how we multiply the numbers 1 through 10. It's helpful to have a multiplication table around when you are memorizing your multiplication facts.

Х	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
2	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24
3	3	6	9	12	15	18	21	24	27	30	33	36
4	4	8	12	16	20	24	28	32	36	40	44	48
5	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60
6	6	12	18	24	30	36	42	48	54	60	66	72
7	7	14	21	28	35	42	49	56	63	70	77	84
8	8	16	24	32	40	48	56	64	72	80	88	96
9	9	18	27	36	45	54	63	72	81	90	99	<u>108</u>
10	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	110	120
11	11	22	33	44	55	66	77	88	99	110	121	132
12	12	24	36	48	60	72	84	96	108	120	132	144

There are a few ways to use a multiplication table.

- Pick the two numbers you want to multiply
- Find the first number in the top orange row
- Find the second number in the orange column on the left
- Move down the column from the number on the top and across the row from the number on the left
- The solution is the number where they meet



 $5 \times 5 = 25$

Another way to use the table is to move down one column or across one row to see the products of one number. Most people memorize these columns or rows.

Division

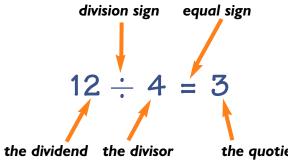
Numbers are broken into equal pieces when they are divided. Division tells us how many of one number it takes to equal another number.

We use division in everyday life. We often divide up our time to see how long we can spend on activities. We divide treats to make sure everyone has an equal amount.

If four people were to divide this pizza to share, each person would get an equal amount. Eight divided by 4 is 2. You can write the problem this way: $8 \div 4 = 2$.

Terms Used in Division

In division, each number has a name. The number that we are dividing is called the dividend. The number that we are using to divide is called the divisor. The quotient is the result, or answer.





the quotient

Mathematics

When one number is divided by another, the dividend is equal to the quotient itself times the divisor. In this way, division is the opposite of multiplication.

3 x 5 = 15

$15 \div 3 = 5$ **Symbols Used in Division**

There are several different symbols used to let you know you need to use division to solve a math equation.

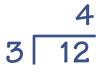
One way to divide numbers is on a line from left to right using the division symbol (\div) .

 $12 \div 3 = 4$

A slash (/) can also be used to show division.

12 / 3 = 4

Another way of writing a division problem is to use a corner-like symbol (). The divisor goes outside the symbol on the left. The dividend goes inside the symbol and the answer, or quotient, is written on top of the symbol.



Dividing by Zero

If you divide a number by zero, the quotient is always zero.

 $12 \div 0 = 0$

 $7 \div 0 = 0$

Division is Not Commutative

You can't reverse the numbers you are dividing. The quotient will usually not be the same.

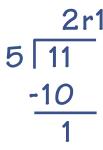
 $15 \div 5 = 3$

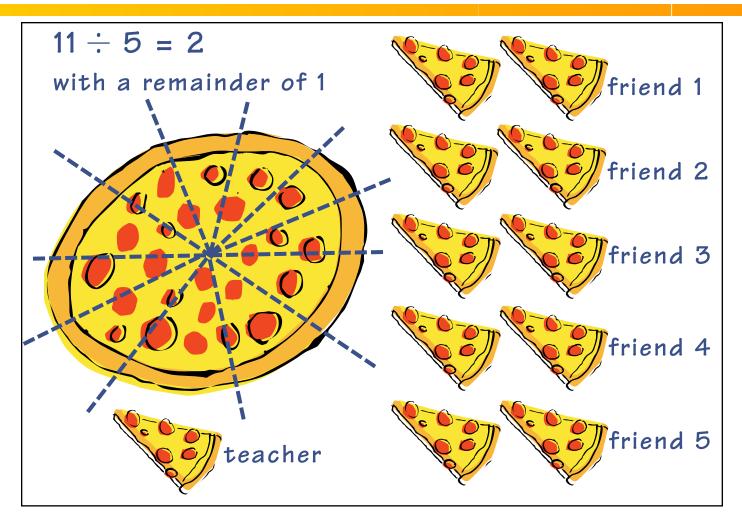
$5 \div 15 = .333$

Remainders

Sometimes numbers cannot be divided evenly. The quotient is not a whole number. When this happens, there is a remainder. The remainder is the number left over after the dividend has been evenly divided.

For example, If you have a pizza cut into 11 pieces and you want to share it equally with 5 friends, each friend will get 2 pieces of pizza and you'll have one piece left over for your teacher.





Long Division

In more advanced division, there is not a traditional remainder. Instead, long division is used to calculate exact quotients by extending the answer using decimals or fractions.



Step 2. Then multiply 6 times I and subtract answer from 7

Step 3. Now bring down the 5 and divide 15 by 6

6 75.0

Step 4. **Redo all steps until** you get to zero

12.5 75.0 6 ·6 30 <u>30</u> 0

Sets

We think of a set as a group of things that go together. A chess set has many different pieces. Some are black and some are white. Some are large and some are small. Some pieces are shaped like from two to ten. horses, and some like castles. Yet, they are all part of the same set.



All pieces in this game are part of the same chess set.

In mathematics, a set is a collection of numbers or things that are grouped together. Each item in a set is called an element. or member. of that set. Sets often have something in common.

Set theory is the study of possible sets and it is the basis of most math. You may not talk about set theory but much of the math

that you do each day in school is using set theory. Mathematicians use brackets { } to show what is in a set.

This is the set of even numbers

{2, 4, 6, 8, 10}

This is the set of whole numbers that are greater than nine.

{10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23...}



Georg Cantor

Georg Cantor was born March 3, 1845. He is best known as the creator of set theory, which has become a foundational theory in mathematics. In 1904, the Royal Society of London awarded Cantor its Sylvester Medal. Georg Cantor died in 1918.

Finite Sets

When something is finite, it ha a limit or an end. The set $\{2, 4, 6\}$ 8. 10} is a finite set. It contains only five items. If it is possible to count the number of items in a se it is a finite set.

Infinite Sets

When something is infinite, it has no limit or end. For example, the set of whole numbers is infinite. No matter how large a number is, you can always make larger by adding 1 to it. The set of whole numbers has no end.

It would be impossible to writ an infinite set. You could never stop writing! So, we show that a set is infinite by using dots.

{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 8, 9, 10, 11...}

The three dots show that the numbers wo go on to infinity.

Subsets and Supersets

In a subset, all the elements of the set are part of a superset. A

	superset can have many different subsets.
as 6,	The set of odd whole numbers is a superset.
o set,	{1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13,
	15, 17, 19, 21, 23,
	25, 27, 29, 31}
_ ,	Some possible subsets of the set of odd whole numbers are:
e it of te	 The set of odd whole numbers from 1 through 5 {1,3,5}
	• The set of odd whole numbers less than 10
9	{1,3,5,7,9}
ould	 The set of odd whole numbers greater than 15 and less than 31 {17, 19, 21, 23, 25,
	27, 29}



Naming Sets

Sets are often named by using capital letters. We might name two sets like this:

 $A = \{5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30\} \qquad B = \{10, 20, 30\}$

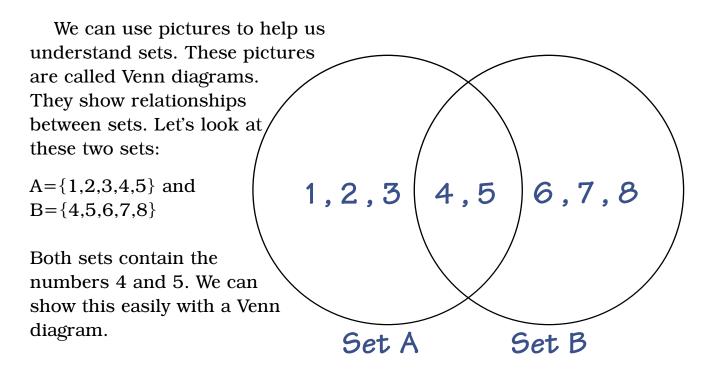
Naming sets makes them easier to talk about. We can say that "Set B is a subset of Set A" or that "Set A is a superset of Set B".

Instead of writing all of that, we can also use symbols. The symbol \subseteq stands for subset. So instead of writing "Set B is a subset of Set A", we can write "B \subseteq A".

Empty Sets

There is a special set called an empty set, or null set. An empty set contains no elements. We show it by using empty brackets { }, or by using the symbol Ø. The empty set is a subset of all other sets.

Venn Diagrams



Intersection of Sets

The place where the circles overlap is called the intersection of the two sets. The numbers 4 and are there because they are parts of both sets. We use the symbol \cap to show where the circles intersect.

Union of Sets

The union of sets is all the elements of both sets. In the previous Venn diagram, the union



Using Venn Diagrams to Compare and Contrast

of A and B would

Venn diagrams can be used in subjects besides math to show how things are the same (compare) and how they are different (contrast). For example, in reading you can show how two characters are alike and different. In science, you can compare different species. In social studies, you can use a Venn diagram to compare and contrast two countries. There's no end to how you can use Venn diagrams!



24

	symbol \cup to show a union. We
of 5	would write that as $A \cup B$.
of o	Showing Subsets and Supersets It's easy to show subsets and supersets using Venn diagrams. Let's use these sets:
	A= $\{3,6,9,12,15,18\}$ and B= $\{3,6,9,12\}$
1	A is the superset and B is the
	subset. To show this in a Venn diagram, just put one circle inside the other.
	Set B
or	(3,6,9,12)
n	15,18

be $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$. We use the

Set A

Showing Disjoint Sets

Sets are called disjoint when they have none of the same elements. Let's use these sets: $A=\{1,2,3\}$ and $B=\{4,5,6\}$ We would show this on a Venn 25

John Venn

know...

age of 88.

John Venn

was born in 1834

in Hull, England.

He was educated in London and went

to college at Cambridge University. He

Venn became interested in logic

subject. In 1881, he published a book

explained the Venn diagrams that he

over the years. He died in 1923 at the

is now famous for. This work made

him a very well known scholar. He worked on improving his diagrams

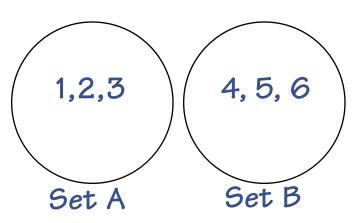
later became a teacher there.

called Symbolic Logic, which

and wrote several books on the

Mathematics

diagram by drawing two circles that do not intersect.



The only subset of these sets is the empty set { }.

 $A \cap B = \emptyset$

Ratios

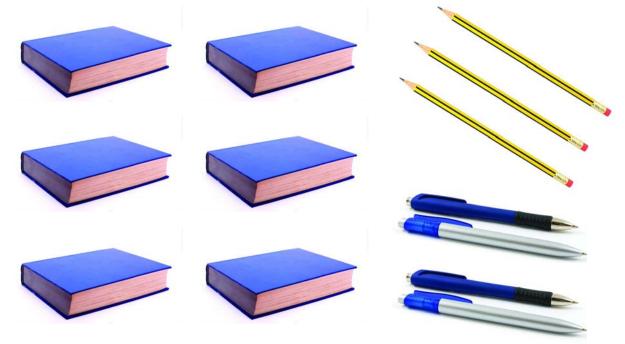
Ratios are comparisons between numbers. We usually show this relationship by using the colon

symbol (:). For example, most people have ten fingers. Suppose you show your hands like this:





Out of a total of ten fingers, only Suppose you opened up your five are showing. This ratio can be book bag. Inside are 6 books, 3 pencils, and 4 pens. The ratio of shown as 5:10. To read this ratio you would say "a ratio of 5 to 10." books to pens is 6:4. The ratio of The comparison is between the pencils to the total number of total number of fingers showing items is the bag is 3:13. and the total number of fingers.

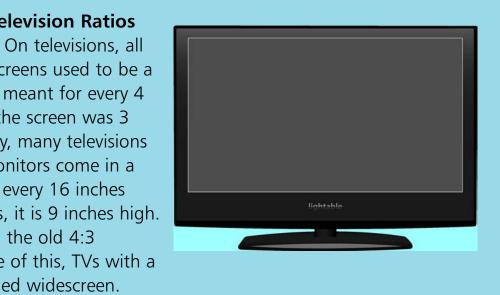


CAPTION



Television Ratios

screens used to be a ratio of 4:3. That meant for every 4 inches of width, the screen was 3 inches high. Today, many televisions and computer monitors come in a ratio of 16:9. For every 16 inches wide the screen is, it is 9 inches high. This is wider than the old 4:3 standard. Because of this, TVs with a 16:9 ratio are called widescreen.



Proportions

Proportions are comparisons between two ratios. It is a statement that the ratios are equal. Proportions use an equal sign. They look like this:

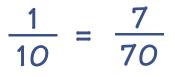


To show whether proportions are equal, we cross multiply.

 $\frac{2}{4}$ $\frac{8}{16}$ 8 x 4 = 32 2 x 16 = 32

When we cross multiply, the product of each equation is 32. When the products are the same, the proportions are equal.

If you took at test with ten questions, each correct answer might be worth 10 points. The ratio would be 1:10. If you got 7 questions right, your score would be a 70. The proportion would look like this:



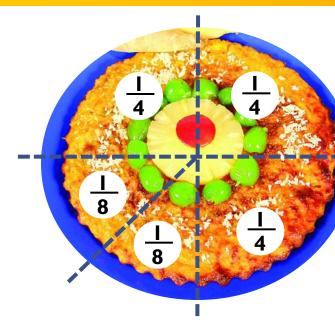
Imagine baking a cake. The cake is made up of ingredients. You might use flour, sugar, and butter. These ingredients have to be mixed together in certain amounts, or proportion. If you use the wrong proportion of ingredients your cake will be ruined. The proper ratio of ingredients will make a great cake. Proportions are very important.

French apple Cake 4 cups chopped apples Sprinkle 2 cups sugar over them. Stier often so-they make plenty pice Po not cook. Let stand 1 hr. Beat - Legge gdd - 34 cup cooking oil 1 tsp. vaniela Pour over apples. Mix together the following 2 cups flour

If followed carefully, the recipe will produce a delicious treat!

Fractions

One way of describing a ratio is with fractions. A fraction is used to show the ratio between two numbers. It can also show a piece, or portion, of a number.



Parts of a Fraction

The top part of a fraction is called the numerator. The bottom part of a fraction is called the denominator. The line between them is called the fraction bar.

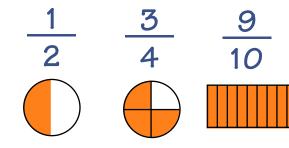


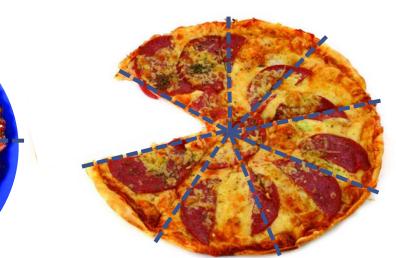
fraction bar

Types of Fractions

There are many different types of fractions.

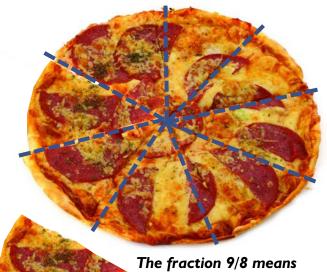
In a proper fraction, the numerator is a smaller number than the denominator. These fractions equal an amount that is less than 1 whole.





The fraction 7/8 means less than one whole pizza.

In an improper fraction the numerator is a larger number than the denominator. These fractions equal a number greater than 1 whole.



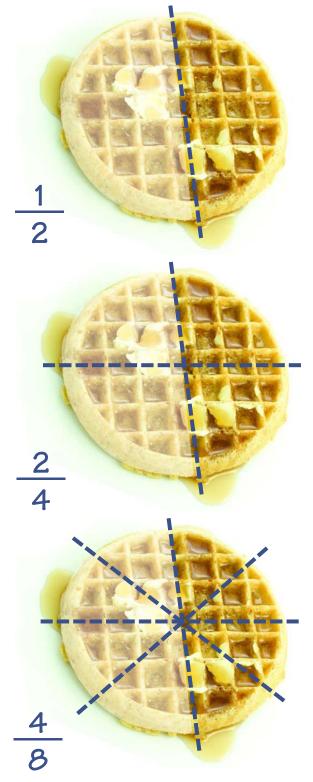
more than one whole pizza.

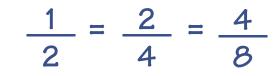


29

Equivalent Fractions

If fractions have the same ratio, they are equivalent. Look at the waffle photos.





These fractions are all equal to half the waffle.

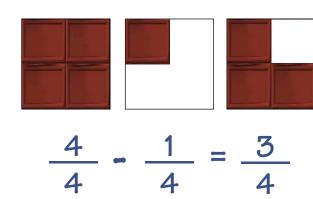
You can find equivalent fractions yourself. Multiply the numerator and denominator by the same number.

1	. x	2	II	2
2				
1	. x	4	11	4
2		4		8

Adding and Subtracting Fractions

To add or subtract fractions, they must have the same denominator. If they do, just add or subtract the numerators.

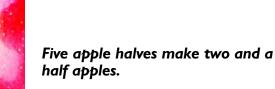
$$\frac{1}{5} + \frac{2}{5} = \frac{3}{5}$$
$$\frac{5}{7} - \frac{2}{7} = \frac{3}{7}$$



A common denominator for the Improper fractions can be made fraction 2/3 and 1/2 must be found into a separate whole number in order to add or subtract them. followed by a proper fraction. To find a common denominator. These are called mixed fractions. list the multiples of 3 and the You can change an improper multiples of 2. Some of your fraction into a mixed fraction by numbers will appear in both lists. dividing the denominator into the One common denominator is 6. numerator.

 $\frac{5}{2} = 2\frac{1}{2}$



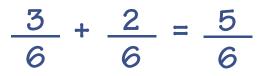


Finding a Common Denominator

You can't add or subtract fractions unless they have the same denominator. If their denominators are different, you must find a common denominator for them.



An equivalent fraction for 2/3 is 4/6. An equivalent fraction for 1/2 is 3/6. Now, these fractions can be added.



These fractions can also be subtracted.

$$\frac{3}{6} - \frac{2}{6} = \frac{1}{6}$$

Multiplying Fractions

When you multiply fractions, just multiply straight across. Multiply the numerators. Then multiply the denominators. The result is your new fraction.

 $\frac{5}{7} \times \frac{2}{3} = \frac{5 \times 2}{7 \times 3} = \frac{10}{21}$

You can also multiply whole numbers and fractions. Just put a 1 under the whole number to make it a fraction, and multiply.

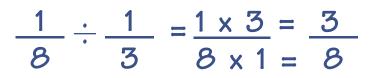
$$2 \times \underline{3} = \underline{2} \times \underline{3} = \underline{6}$$

7 1 7 7 7

Dividing Fractions

It's almost as easy to divide fractions as it is to multiply them. Just take the second fraction (the one after the division symbol), flip it upside down, and then multiply. That "flipped" fraction is called a reciprocal.

Take a problem like $1/8 \div 1/3$. Multiply 1/8 by the reciprocal of 1/3, or 3/1.



You can also divide whole numbers and fractions. Just put a 1 under the whole number to make it a fraction, and divide by flipping the fraction and multiplying.

$$5 \div \frac{1}{4} =$$
$$\frac{5}{1} \div \frac{1}{4} =$$
$$\frac{5 \times 4}{1 \times 1} = \frac{20}{1}$$

= 20

Decimals

What is a Decimal?

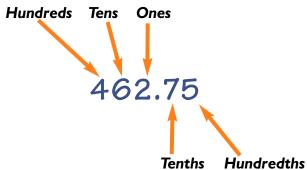
A number can be divided forever. It can be divided into smaller and smaller parts. One way to show these small parts is with a fraction. Another way is with a point called a decimal. A decimal point exists after every whole number, even if it is not written there.

> 3 = 3. 415 = 415

The fraction 1/2 is equal to 0.5. Decimals can be very important in **Decimals** calculating money, scientific Some decimals just end. They numbers, and test grades. Another have a specific number of decimal way of writing 50 cents is to write places. These are called terminating \$0.50. decimals. An example is 462.75. It ends after the 5. Sometimes a decimal never ends. The final number is repeated over and over in a regular pattern. This is called a repeating decimal. The fraction 1/3is equal to 0.33333.... The dots **How Decimals Work** show that the 3 repeats forever. You Any numbers to the left of a can also write a bar over the decimal point are whole numbers. repeating part. If you write 0.3 and Any numbers to the right of a draw a line over the 3, you show decimal point show a fraction of a that the 3 repeats forever.



whole number. The places have different names as you move to the left or the right of the decimal point. To the left are the ones, tens, hundreds. thousands. ten thousands, and so on. To the right are the tenths, hundredths, thousandths, ten thousandths, and so on. We write 4 hundreds, 6 tens, 2 ones, 7 tenths, and 5 hundredths as 462.75.



Terminating and Repeating

$0.333... = 0.\overline{3}$

Rounding Off Decimals

Sometimes, a calculation can lead to a decimal that never ends and never repeats. You can't write a decimal that never ends. Instead. you can round it off. A number is rounded up if the next decimal is 5 or greater. The number stays the same if the next decimal is 4 or less. The number 0.0236 can be rounded up to 0.024. Money is usually rounded off to the nearest penny.



Percentages

The word

"percentage" means "per 100." A percentage is the ratio of a number per 100. The percent symbol (%) shows that a number is a percentage. Twenty-five percent can be written as 25% and is equal to the ratio 25/100. An equivalent fraction to 25/100 is 1/4, or one-fourth.

It is easy to write percentages with decimals. Just move the decimal point two places to the left. Twenty-five percent can also be written as the decimal 0.25. One hundred percent is simply equal to the number 1.

Percentages are used in many different areas. A store may have a sale where everything is 10% off. This means that 10 cents will be deducted for every dollar spent. People often leave a tip of 15% when they eat at a restaurant. This means that they will leave 15 cents for every dollar that the food cost them. Use the example below to practice calculating a tip. Cost of dinner: \$20. Tip: 15%

 $20 \times 0.15 = 3$

The tip would be \$3. The total bill would be \$23.

Taxes are also measured in percentages.

Grades in school are sometimes measured in percentages. Scoring 100% on a test means you got all the answers right!

Statistics

Mathematics can be used to predict things. We can figure out when things may happen. This type of mathematics is called statistics.

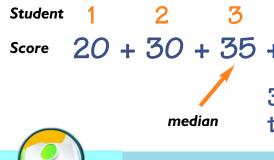
Statistics can be used to calculate many things. You can figure out the odds of winning the lottery. You might find the number of kids who like to eat strawberry ice cream.



The odds of winning most state lotteries are more than 18 million to one. If you save one dollar a month for the next 20 years you will have saved \$240. However, your account will be worth about \$465 because of the interest vou collect.

Statistics are used everywhere. All the sciences use them. Sports teams use statistics to see how each player is doing. Teachers and schools use statistics to analyze how well students are learning. You may use statistics when you figure out how long it takes to do your homework.

An average is sometimes called **Averages** the mean. This is not the same as the median. In a list where all the One form of statistics is called numbers are written in order from averages. To find an average, add lowest to highest, the median is the up a group of numbers. Then middle number. On the list, the divide the sum by the amount of median has as many numbers numbers. We can figure out the lower than itself as it has numbers average test scores in a school by higher than itself. The median and adding up all the scores and then the mean are usually different dividing that total by the number numbers. of people who took the test.



Baseball Stats

Baseball fans love to keep track of how baseball players are doing. Managers, coaches, and fans all use statistics, or stats. more You can find these stats in the sports section of your newspaper. Some baseball stats are simple totals of home runs, stolen bases, and runs batted in, or RBIs. Other stats are ratios or percentages. A pitcher has an earned run average, or ERA. This is the average number of runs that the pitcher gives up in nine innings.

A batting average tells how well a baseball player hits. It is calculated using the number of times the player has come to bat and the number of times he has gotten a hit. A player who hits safely every time would be hitting 1.000. We would say, "He is batting a thousand." Most hitters have a batting average between .200 (two hundred) and .300 (three hundred). This means that they get 2 or 3 hits for every 10 times they come to bat. Great hitters have a batting average of over .300. In baseball, a player who gets out 7 out of 10 at bats is considered a good hitter.

 $20 + 30 + 35 + 40 + 45 = 170 \div 5 = 34$ 34 is the average test score mean



Probability

Probability tells us how likely something is to happen. It is sometimes called chance. Another name for probability is odds.

Probability can be measured in the real world. Start flipping a coin in the air. Flip it 100 times. The odds are that it will land on heads about 50 times, and tails about 50 times. The chances are equal. We call this a 50-50 chance.



You can figure out the chance of just about anything. Rolling a 6sided die will give you a 1 in 6 chance of rolling a 5. If you do this thousands of times, the odds remain the same. The average ratio of rolling a 5 will be 1 in 6, or 1/6. The chances of rolling two 5's in a row are much smaller.



Playing games with dice make them exciting because you are never sure what number you will role.



The Lottery Has Bad Odds

In a lottery, people

pick numbers they hope will match the official numbers chosen. The more numbers you can pick from, the lower the probability that the numbers will match. Most people who play do not win. You have a better chance of being struck by lightning than of winning millions of dollars in a lottery!



Algebra

Figuring out a math problem when you know all the numbers is usually easy. But what if one of the numbers is unknown? The problem would be more difficult. You would need to use algebra to You can use algebra to determine the length figure it out. Algebra is the branch of this train. of mathematics that deals with You can write this word problem unknown quantities. The principles as an equation. Let the variable x of algebra are used to describe represent the length of the everything from exchanges of passenger train. money to lines on a graph. Algebra Twice the length of the uses all the rules of arithmetic. It passenger train would be 2x, or also creates new rules. two times x. The length of the freight train is 30 meters less than that.

Variables

In algebra, an unknown numb is called a variable. We use letter to stand for the unknown numbers. Often, variables are letters such as a, b, and c or x, y, and z. Variables can stand for many different values or a range of values.

Then divide both sides of the Variables can be used to solve equation by 2. problems even if all the values are not known. Imagine that a $230 \div 2 = 2X \div 2$ passenger freight train is 200 or meters long. If the freight train is 115 = X30 meters less than twice the length of a passenger train, how The passenger train is 115 long is the passenger train? meters long.

200 = 2X - 30

ber	To solve this equation, the x
ſS	must be by itself. To do this, add
	30 to both sides of the equation.

30+200=2X-30+30

230=2X



Numbers or variables with an

numbers. We say the variable x^2 as

times x. Numbers or variables with

an exponent of 3 are called cubed.

We say the variable y^3 as "y cubed".

It is the same as y times y times y.

the powers of a variable. We would

say 5^3 as "5 to the third power".

Exponents are sometimes called

exponent of 2 are called squared

"x squared". It is the same as x

Exponents

Mathematicians often multiply numbers by themselves. An easy way to show this is to use an exponent. An exponent is a little number written above and to the right of a number or variable. It tells how many times the number or variable should be multiplied by itself. For example:

$5^3 = 5 \times 5 \times 5 = 125$



Scientific Notation

Many numbers are either really big or really small. One way to show these numbers is to simply write out all that

make them up. You can also show big numbers or numbers much less than 1 by using scientific notation. Scientific notation is a way of writing a number as the product of a number between 1 and 10 multiplied by the number 10 raised to a power. The number is big when the exponent on the 10 is positive. The number is very small when the exponent on the 10 is negative.

It is usually easier to show very big or very small numbers using scientific notation than it is to write out the entire number. The average distance from the Earth to the Sun is about 149,000,000 meters. It is much easier to write that distance from the Earth to the Sun as 1.49 x 10¹¹ meters. The mass of a single neutron inside of an atom is really, really small. In scientific notation, this number is written 1.67 x 10⁻²⁷ kilograms, with a minus sign next to the exponent.

Roots

The root is a number multiplied by itself. When a number is squared, it is multiplied by itself. An example would be 3×3 . In this example, the root number is 3. The number 3 squared, or 3×3 , is equal to 9.

Square Root

The square root shows what quantity multiplied by itself will be equal to a specific number. For example, the square root of 25 is 5, because $5 \ge 5 = 25$.

The symbol for a square root ($\sqrt{}$ goes around the number. Since the square root of 25 is 5, we would write it like this:

$\sqrt{25}=5$

Cube Root

The cube root shows what quantity multiplied by itself twice will be equal to a specific number. The cube root of 8 is 2, or

$\sqrt[3]{8}=2$

because

 $8 = 2 \times 2 \times 2$

Roots are the opposite of exponents. The square root of the square of any number is equal to

that number. The square root of $\mathbf{x}^2 = \mathbf{x}.$

Real Numbers and Imaginary Numbers

In general, two different types of numbers are the result of roots. Most of the numbers we use every day are called real numbers. The square root of a positive number will give a real number. Sometimes, mathematics can be used to make imaginary numbers. The square root of a negative number will give an imaginary number. We do not use imaginary numbers to count objects or measure distance. They are part of a complex number system that aid in understanding of things that are described by ordinary numbers. When determining the strength of an electromagnetic field, scientists use imaginary numbers.

How to Find Square Roots

Calculators and computers are often used to find the square roots of numbers. The square root of a number may result in a number with many decimal points.



roots have many numbers to the

right of the decimal, they are

rounded here to the nearest

thousandth.

Mathematics

Roots

You can also find root numbers, square roots, squares and cubes using a chart like the one below. Because some square

Root Number Squared Square Root Cubed 1.000 1 1 1 2 8 1.414 4 3 9 27 1.732 4 15 64 2.000 2.236 5 25125 6 36 216 2.449 7 49 343 2.6468 512 2.828 64 729 9 81 3.000 10 100 1000 3.162 121 1331 3.317 11 12 144 1728 3.464 13 169 2197 3.606 14 196 2744 3.742 225 3.873 3375 15 4.000 16 2564096 17 289 4913 4.123 5832 4.243 18 324 19 361 6859 4.359 4.472 8000 20 400



Albert Einstein

Albert Einstein was born in 1879 in Germany. He is considered one of the great thinkers of all time. People even use the word "Einstein" to mean a genius!

One of Einstein's greatest contributions was a famous equation, $E=MC^2$. This equation shows the relationship between mass and energy. **Equations**

An equation is a statement in mathematics that two things are equal. An equation always has two sides that are separated by an equal sign. Equations can be very simple, such as:

2 + 2 = 4

The amounts on both sides of the equal sign are the same.

Equations with Variables

A more complex equation may have a variable in it:

9 + X = 15

Equations may have many variables in them.

Polynomial Equations

An algebraic expression with two or more powers of a variable or variables is called a polynomial equation. An example of a polynomial equation is

 $y = 3X^3 + 5X^2 - 6$

Solving Equations

The trick to solving the equation is to get the variable by itself and away from all the other numbers. Arithmetic is often used to solve

Coordinates and Grids

Number Lines

Number lines are pictures in which numbers are shown along marks on a line. Some number lines have both positive and negative numbers on them with the number 0 in the middle. The 0 on a number line is known as the origin. They are called real number lines. Numbers can be plotted, or drawn, along the number line. We call the points on a number line coordinates.

-5 -4 -3 -2 -1 0 I 2 3 4 5

e Coordinate Grids

Sometimes, two real number lines are put together. This is called a coordinate grid. The number line going from left to right is called the x-axis. The line going up and down is called the y-axis. The two lines cross where the zero is located on each line. This is called the origin. This sort of grid is sometimes called a coordinate plane.

Graphing Coordinates

Coordinates name a point on a graph. When writing coordinates, use the x-axis coordinate first, followed by the y-axis coordinate.

Point A: (2, 3) Point B: (4, 2) Point C: (5, 5)

Coordinates

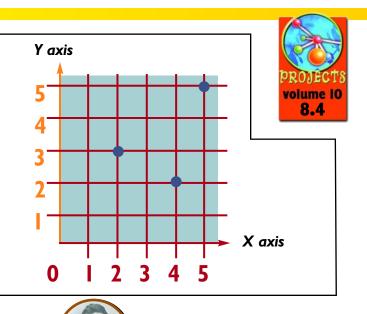
Numbers called coordinates can be shown on the plane. The process of drawing the position of numbers is called graphing. Coordinates in a plane are often represented by the variables x and y. A point on the plane can be written with the coordinates (x,y). Numbers can be put in place of the variables. Then, a dot is drawn on the graph where those two coordinates meet. A line can be drawn between two points that are graphed. Algebraic equations can also be graphed.



axis (AK-siss): a line at the side or bottom of a graph

grid (grid): a set of straight lines that cross each other to form a regular pattern of squares

plane (plane): a flat surface



Emmy Noether

Emmy Noether Getting was born in know... Germany in 1882. She studied to be a teacher but then turned to mathematics. Women could not enroll at German universities. Noether was allowed to attend classes and earned a Ph.D. She worked at the local university without pay because she was a woman. The famous mathematician David Hilbert invited her to the University of Göttingen. Noether taught classes listed under Hilbert's name.

Noether made contributions to the field of abstract algebra. She also worked on the mathematics behind Albert Einstein's theory of relativity. In 1933, the Nazis took power in Germany and Noether was fired because she was Jewish. She moved to the United States but soon died following an operation.

Geometry

Geometry is the branch of mathematics that studies objects in a defined space. Geometry is all about shapes and how to describe them. Geometry studies mathematical

designs. They are all around us. Lines, triangles, squares, rectangles, circles, and ellipses are found everywhere in nature. The shape of a snail shell is spiral. Lines are everywhere you look.



A snail shell is an example of a Fibonacci Spiral. It follows the Fibonacci numbers or pattern. The pattern continues by adding the two previous numbers to get the next number in the sequence 0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13....

Basic Geometry

Basic geometry deals with twodimensional shapes. Anything that is flat is a two-dimensional surface. In geometry, this kind of surface is called a plane.

Advanced Geometry

More advanced geometry

in space. Three-dimensional

combining two-dimensional

three-dimensional. But many

two dimensions.

involves three-dimensional shapes.

These shapes are objects that exist

objects can be made by rotating or

objects. The world around you is

things in the world can be viewed

more easily by looking at them in

ellipse (i-LIPS): an oval shape

width, and height

rotate (ROH-tate): to turn around and around like a wheel

dimension (duh-MEN-shuhn): the dimensions of

an object are the measurements of its length,

Cube





Sohere



Cylinder



Getting to know...

Euclid

Euclid was probably born in Greece between 335 and 300 BC. He attended a famous school called the Academy. Ptolemy, the ruler of Egypt, invited Euclid to teach at the Museum of Alexandria. Euclid created his own school of mathematics and wrote mathematical papers. His most important book was called *The Elements*. It arranged the principles of geometry in a logical way. Euclid was so important that all ideas in geometry different from his are called non-Euclidean.

Lines

Lines

A line is said to be infinite, or without end. It stretches forever in both directions. A point is an exact location on a line. There are an infinite number of points on any line. We name a line by naming any of its two points.

There are two points on this line, point x and point y.

Rays

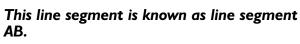
A ray is a line that starts at one point. It then goes on forever in one direction. It is named for its endpoint and one other point found on the ray.

We would call the beginning of the ray point A.

another point. It is named for its two endpoints.

It starts at one point and ends at

A line segment is part of a line.



Parallel Lines

Line Segments

Two straight lines put side by side can be parallel. Parallel lines always remain the same distance apart from each other. The lines could go on forever and never cross.

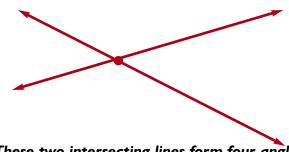
As long as the two lines could never meet, they will be considered parallel.



Train tracks must remain parallel for the train to move.

Intersecting Lines

Lines that cross are said to intersect each other. They intersect at one common point, forming four angles. Intersecting lines cannot be parallel. Lines that look like they are very close to each other form two very small angles and two very wide angles where they intersect.

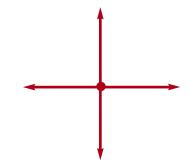


These two intersecting lines form four angles, two obtuse angles greater than 90°, and two acute angles, less than 90°.

Perpendicular Lines

Lines that make a perfect cross are said to be perpendicular. Perpendicular lines are the opposite of parallel lines. They form four right angles when they cross.





These two intersecting lines form four angles. All are right angles, or exactly 90°. These lines are perpendicular to one another.

Angles

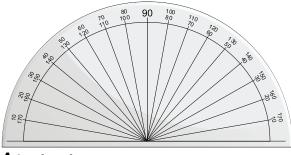
An angle is formed when two lines meet each other at a point. The point where the two lines meet is the vertex of the angle.

Measuring Angles

The common unit of measure for an angle is called degree. The degree symbol (°) always follows a number.

A line with one end held in place can be rotated a total of 360° around. A whole circle has 360° in it. You have rotated 360° when you spin completely around. Half of a circle has 180° in it.

A device called a protractor can be used to measure angles.

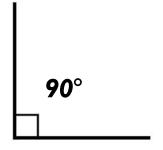


A protractor

-

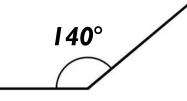
Right Angles

Perpendicular lines have an angle of 90° . This is often called a right angle.



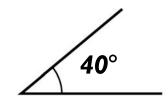
Obtuse Angles

Angles greater than 90° are called obtuse angles.



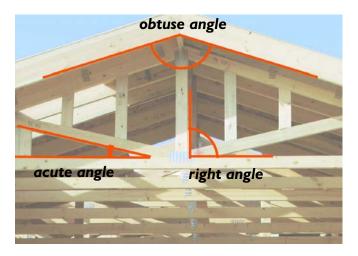
Acute Angles

Angles smaller than 90° are called acute angles.



How We Use Angles

Angles are very important in many different fields. Houses are built using very precise angles. Most houses have walls that are perpendicular to the floor. The roofs of some houses rise up at an angle to help water and snow run off. Angles are important in art and many of the sciences.

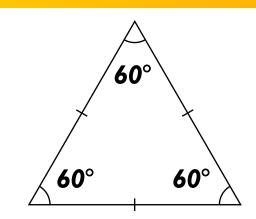


Triangles

Triangles are shapes that have three sides and three angles. The word "triangle" even means "three angles." The sum of all the angles in a triangle is always 180°. There are several different types of triangles.

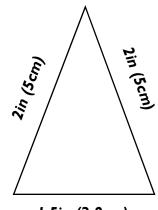
Equilateral Triangles

A triangle whose sides are all the same length is called an equilateral triangle. All three of its angles are 60°.



Isosceles Triangles

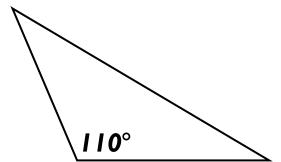
A triangle with two sides that are the same length is called an isosceles triangle.



1.5in (3.8cm)

Obtuse Triangles

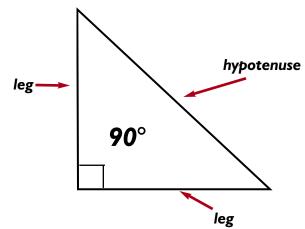
A triangle with one angle bigger than 90° is called an obtuse triangle.



46

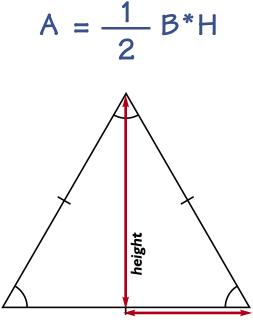
Right Triangles

A right triangle has a 90° angle in it. The short sides of a right triangle are called legs. The long side that is opposite the right angle is called the hypotenuse.



The Area of a Triangle

The area, or space inside, of a triangle is 1/2 of the total base width times the total height. The formula looks like this:



1/2 of base



The Pythagorean Theorem

Right triangles have many special properties. Thousands of years ago, people figured out that the squares of the sides of any right triangle are related to each other. The sum of the squares of the legs of a right triangle is equal to the square of its hypotenuse. This is called the Pythagorean Theorem.

The Pythagorean Theorem is often written as an equation:

 $a^2 = b^2 = c^2$

In this equation, a and b are the lengths of the two legs of the triangle and c is the length of the hypotenuse. The length of one side of a right triangle can be figured out using basic algebra if the other two sides are known.

Pythagoras was a mathematician from ancient Greece. The Pythagorean Theorem is named after him because he was the first person to prove the theorem. Ancient Egyptians used the theorem to help them build the Great Pyramids. People use the Pythagorean Theorem today to figure out distances between points.

Pyramids

A three-dimensional object with a single base and sides made out of triangles is a pyramid.



Ancient Egyptians built pyramids using the Pythagorean Theorem.

Trigonometry

There is a form of mathematics called trigonometry. It uses the properties of triangles to solve mathematical problems. Trigonometry can be used to figure out angles. Much of trigonometry involves measurements using right triangles.

Rectangles and Squares

Rectangles

Rectangles are shapes that have four sides and four right angles.

The opposite sides of a rectangle Doors and windows often have are always parallel to each other. rectangular shapes. The area of a rectangle can be found by multiplying the width times the height.



The two longer sides are parallel and the two shorter sides are parallel.

Some rectangles are long and thin. Others are short and squat.



Carl Friedrich Gauss

Carl Friedrich Gauss was born in 1777 in what is

now Germany. He was a child prodigy. This means that he showed great talent at a very young age. His family was poor, but a rich Duke supported him. Gauss became a professor of astronomy when the Duke died in a battle.

Gauss loved mathematics. He discovered how to build a polygon with seventeen sides. He found a general rule for which polygons could be made and how to build them. Gauss wrote a book on number theory that made him famous. He also revolutionized mathematics with his work in geometry and algebra. He helped build the foundations for statistics. Gauss was called the Prince of Mathematics.

Squares

Squares are rectangles whose sides are all the same length. All four sides are equal in length and form

Parallelograms

right angles.

Both rectangles and squares are special types of parallelograms. Parallelograms are four-sided shapes that have two pairs of parallel sides. They do not always have right angles.



The longer sides are parallel and the shorter sides are parallel as well. The longer and shorter sides are not perpendicular because they do not form a right angle when they meet.

Mathematics



Polygons and Polyhedrons A polygon is a

two-dimensional shape made of straight lines. Usually, the word "polygon" refers to shapes with sides that are equal in length. The names of different polygons use special prefixes to tell you how many sides they have. A pentagon has five sides and five angles. The

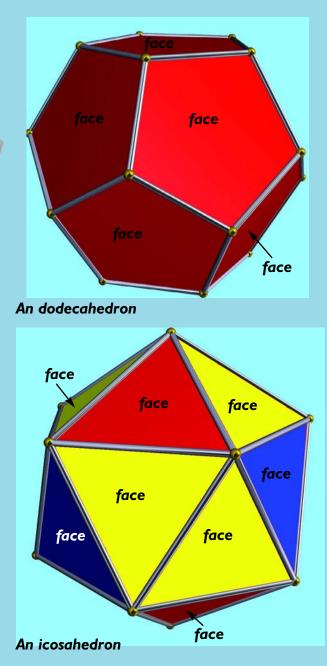
headquarters of the U.S. Department of Defense got the name Pentagon because the building has five sides.

> A hexagon has six sides and six angles. A heptagon has seven sides and seven angles. An octagon has eight sides and eight

angles. A stop sign is an octagon. A nonagon has nine sides and nine angles. A decagon has ten sides and ten angles.

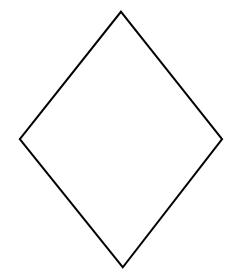
A polyhedron is a threedimensional solid made of twodimensional planes. The names of different polyhedrons tell you how many faces they have. The ancient Greeks found five polyhedrons that

have all sides, angles, and faces equal. They called them regular solids or Platonic solids. The tetrahedron has four faces. The cube has six faces. The octahedron has eight faces. The dodecahedron has twelve faces. The icosahedron has twenty faces.



Rhombuses

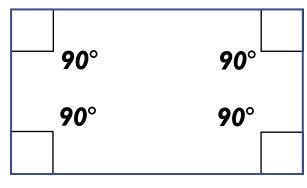
A rhombus has equal sides like a square but is tilted so that is does not have right angles.



Sometimes, we use the word diamond when referring to a rhombus.

Ouadrilaterals A circle is a shape made by All four-sided shapes made up of drawing a curve completely around a point. Everywhere on the curve is straight lines are called quadrilaterals. These include the the same distance from the point. parallelogram, the rhombus, the **Diameter and Radius** square, the rectangle, and the trapezoid. The distance all the way across

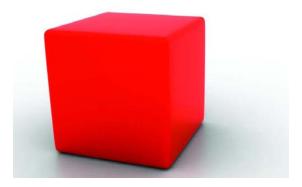
The sum of all the angles in a quadrilateral is always 360°.



 $90^{\circ} + 90^{\circ} + 90^{\circ} + 90^{\circ} = 360^{\circ}$

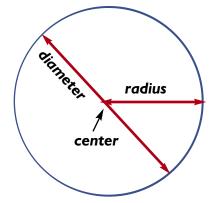
Cubes

A three-dimensional shape that is made out of six squares is called a cube.



Circles

the center of a circle is called the diameter. The distance from the center to the edge is the radius.



Circumference

The distance all the way around a circle is called the circumference.

Pi

The ratio of the circumference to the diameter of a circle is a special number known as pi. This number is the same for every circle. Pi is equal to the never ending decimal number 3.141596.... It is usually rounded off to 3.14. It is often written as the Greek symbol π .

Finding the Circumference of a Circle.

The circumference of a circle is equal to the diameter times π . Since the diameter is twice the radius, the circumference is equal to 2 times the radius multiplied by π . The equation to find the circumference of a circle is:

$c=2\pi r$

In this equation, c stands for circumference and r stands for radius. A circle with a radius of 3 centimeters has a circumference equal to $2 \ge \pi \ge 3$. This number is equal to:

2 x 3.14 x 3

or

18.84 centimeters



Archimedes

The ancient Greek scientist, Archimedes was

born in Syracuse, Sicily. His exact birth year is uncertain but was around 287 BC. He probably studied at the Library and Museum of Alexandria.

Archimedes was one of the greatest mathematicians in history. He calculated the value of the number pi (π). He also found the volume and surface area of a sphere. Archimedes invented many military machines and a water pump called Archimedes' screw. He is famous for shouting "Eureka!" (which means "I have found it!") when he discovered the idea of buoyancy while he was taking a bath.

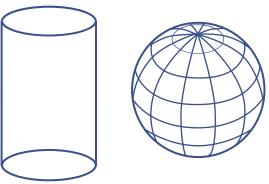
Finding the Area of a Circle. The area of a circle is equal to π times the radius squared. The equation to find the area of a circle is:

$A = \pi r^2$

In this equation, A stands for area and r stands for radius. A circle with a radius of 2 centimeters has an area equal to $\pi \ge 2^2$. This number is equal to 3.14×4 , or 12.56 square centimeters (cm²).

Circles in Three Dimensions

A circle in three dimensions makes a ball, or sphere. Circles Sometimes, it is easier to can also form a tube called a understand an equation when it is cylinder. How many spheres and represented by a picture. Algebraic cylinders can you find in your equations can be charted on a classroom or your home? Do you graph to make geometric curves think you'd find more cylinders or with many different shapes. more spheres in your kitchen? Describing algebraic equations with geometric curves is called analytic geometry.

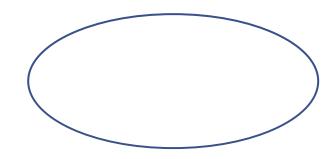


A cylinder

A sphere

Ellipses

An ellipse is an oval. Ellipses do not have a constant radius. Instead, they have two foci (fixed points). The sum of the distance to each focus is the same for every point on an ellipse.

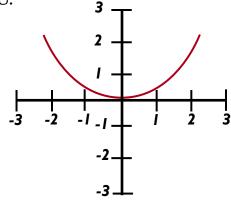


An ellipses

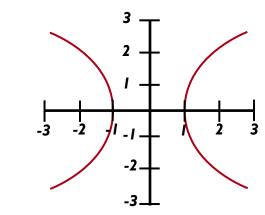
52

Curves

The graph of the equation $y = x^2$ is a parabola. It has a shape like a U.

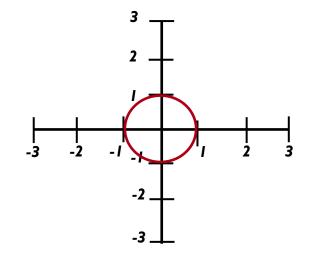


The graph of the equation $x^2 - y^2 = 1$ is a hyperbola.



The graph of the equation $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ is a circle with a radius of 1.

Many other geometric shapes can be made by graphing equations.



Measurement

Have you ever stood on a scale to weigh yourself? Can you estimate how tall you are?

When we measure things, we can figure out its weight, its length, or how much of something it can hold. We can measure time with a clock. We can tell the temperature by reading a thermometer.

If you live in the United States, you probably use the customary (Imperial) system of measurement. When you use words like inches and feet, quarts and gallons, and ounces and pounds, you are using the customary system.

Most countries use the metric system for measurement. Multiples of ten are the base of the metric system. When you want to change from one unit of length to another, you can simply multiply or divide by 10, 100, or 1000 to form a larger or smaller number. If you use words like meter, liter, and gram, you are using the metric system.



Doctors and scientists use the metric system of measurement.

Length

Length tells us how long something is from one end to the other. We measure how far we can jump or throw a ball, and we measure how far it is from one city to another.



We would measure the distance this boy threw the ball in feet or meters.

In the customary system, long distances are measured in miles, and smaller things are measured in inches, feet, and yards. If you want to measure something smaller than an inch, you would measure it to the nearest half inch, quarter inch, or eighth of an inch.

In the metric system, long distances are measured in kilometers. Smaller things are usually measured in meters, centimeters, and millimeters.

Customary	Metric
1 ft = 12 in	1 cm = 10 mm
1 yd = 3 ft	1 dm = 10 cm
1 mile = 5280 ft	1 meter = 10 dm
1 mile = 1760 yds	1 km = 1000 m
	1 ft = 12 in 1 yd = 3 ft 1 mile = 5280 ft

If you live in the United States, you would probably say that this plant is 3 inches tall.



A friend who lives in another country would measure the plant in centimeters. To describe your plant to your friend, you would have to convert inches to centimeters.

1 inch = 2.54 centimeters

 $3 \text{ inches} = 3 \times 2.54 \text{ cm},$ which equals 7.62 cm.

Mathematics

Your friend, who uses the metric system, can picture your plant more easily when you tell him that it is 7.62 centimeters tall.

Other lengths can be converted from one system to another by multiplying.

Customary to Metric:

1 inch = 2.54 cm

1 yard = 0.9 meters

1 mile = 1.6 kilometers

Metric to Customary:

1 cm = 0.4 inches

1 meter = 3.3 feet

1 km = 0.6 miles

Mass and Weight

When we talk about how heavy something is, we usually use the word weight. Scientists like to use the term mass instead of weight. Mass is a measure of the amount of matter something contains. It is measured with the metric unit of grams, usually on a balance. Your mass will not change, even if you travel to the Moon.

Weight is the measure of the amount of gravity pulling on an object. Your weight would change when you travel to the Moon,

because the pull of gravity is not as strong.



"I weigh 60 pounds."



"I weigh 10 pounds."

"My weight changed, but my mass didn't change. My body still contains all the same stuff it contained when I was on Earth."

An object's mass doesn't change when its location changes. That's why scientists and mathematicians use the term mass instead of weight. On Earth, your mass and weight are considered to be about the same.

Measuring Weight

We can use a scale to measure the weight of an object. When you were a baby, you were probably weighed on a special scale that held you while you were weighed. As you got older, you could stand on the tall scale in the doctor's office. At home, you might have a small bathroom scale. If not, you might use the big one at the grocery store where you shop. These scales tell us how many pounds or kilograms we weigh.

measured in grams, milligrams, and kilograms. One paperclip weighs about 1 gram (.04 oz). A U.S. nickel weighs 5 grams (.18 oz). A kilogram is much heavier. One thousand grams equal 1 kilogram. In the customary system, we We use kilograms when we weigh measure weight in ounces, pounds, and tons. Look around your large objects such as pianos and kitchen, and you will find many people. To measure very small foods in small jars and boxes that amounts, we use milligrams. A are measured in ounces. Heavier milligram is 1/1000 of a gram. items, such as sugar and flour, are sold by the pound. A large bag of Metric Customary sugar weighs 5 pounds. 1 pound = 16 ounces 1 g = 1000 mgYou won't find any food sold by 1 ton = 2000 pounds 1 kg = 1000 g the ton. You'd never be able to carry

it home! One ton is the same as 2000 pounds (907 kg).

In the metric system, mass is



This scale is used to measure the weight of fruits and vegetables in a grocery store.

Look at the food in your kitchen. Many of the packages show both metric and customary weights.

Mathematics

Mathematics

Your 5 pound bag of sugar is 2.26 kilograms. A small bottle of spice weighs 25 grams (0.9 ounces). Sixteen ounces of rice is 454 grams. You can convert from one system to another by multiplying.

Customary to Metric:

1 ounce = 28 gramsA cookie weighs three ounces. How many grams is that?

3 X 28 = 84The cookie weighs about 84 grams.

1 pound = .45 kilogramsA box of candy weighs two pounds. How many kilograms is that?

2 X . 45 = .9The box of candy weighs about .9 kilograms

Metric to Customary:

1 gram = 0.035 ouncesA soda weighs about 453 grams. How many ounces is that?

453 X .035 = 16The soda weighs about 16 ounces.

1 pound = .45 kilogramsA box of candy weighs two pounds. How many kilograms is that?

2 X . 45 = .9The box of candy weighs about .9 kilograms

Volume

When we measure volume, we are finding out how much something will hold. If you are buying orange soda for a group, you might buy it in a 2



One gallon of liquid is the same as four quarts of liquid.

liter bottle. A smaller bottle or can might contain 12 to 16 ounces.

In the customary system, volume is measured in cups, pints, quarts, and gallons. A family that drinks a lot of milk would buy it by the gallon.

Many recipes use one or two cups of milk. For smaller amounts, you can measure fractions of one cup, such as 1/4, 1/3, or 1/2 cup of the liquid. In a recipe, you would also use your measuring cups for dry ingredients such as flour and sugar.

Sometimes you only want to add a little bit of something to a recipe. You can measure smaller amounts with a set of measuring spoons. If you want to add a very little amount of salt to a recipe, you would use the smallest measuring spoon, 1/8 of a teaspoon. Measuring spoons include many sizes. The largest of all, the tablespoon, is equal to 3 teaspoons.



One tablespoon is equal to three teaspoons.

The metric system measures volume in milliliters and liters. One liter (1 l) is very close to the quart used in the United States. You can find 1 liter bottles of soc and water on the grocery store shelves. You are probably more familiar with 2 liter (2 l) bottles soda. Two 2 liter bottles are just little more than one gallon in the U.S. customary system.

Measuring spoons are used for smaller volumes. In a set of metric measuring spoons the smallest measures 1 milliliter (1 ml), and the largest measures 25 milliliters (25 ml).

Customary	Metric
1 pint = 16 ounces	1 l = 1,000 r
1 pint = 2 cups	
1 quart = 2 pints	
1 gallon = 4 quarts	

Measuring cups often show both metric and customary units of measurement.

	Sometimes we want to use a
e	recipe from another country. A
	measuring cup that shows cups
da	and milliliters makes things easier.
	But what if we do not have one? It
	is helpful to be able to convert
of	liters to cups on our own. We can
ta	convert from one system to
е	another by multiplying.

Customary to Metric:

- 1 cup = 0.24 liters
- 1 quart = 0.95 liters
- 1 gallon = 3.79 liters

Metric to Customary:

- 1 liter = 4.2 cups
- 1 liter = 1.1 quarts
- 1 liter = 0.26 gallons

ml

Mathematics



The Metric System

Numbers in the metric conversion

chart are powers of ten (10, 100, 1000). There is only one unit for length (the meter), one for mass (the gram), and one for volume (the liter). The metric system was developed in the late 1700s to make it easier to understand and convert from one measurement to another.

We know that 1 meter equals 100 centimeters. How many centimeters are there in 5 meters? Just multiply. 1m = 100 cm, so $5m = 5 \times 100$ cm, or 500 cm.

The prefixes used for measurement are the same for meters, liters, and grams. The meter is the basic unit of length. The prefix kilo- means 1000. So, a kilometer is 1000 meters. A kiloliter is 1000 liters, and a kilogram is 1000 grams.

meter (m), liter (l), gram (g) milli- (m) 1/1000 centi- (c) 1/100 deci- (d) 1/10 deca (da) 10 hecto (h) 100 kilo (k) 1000

There is a relationship between the different units. The metric system was designed so that 1 $\text{cm}^3 = 1 \text{ ml}$. One ml of water weighs 1 gram. One liter of water weighs 1 kilogram.

Time

How long can you hold your breath? When will dinner be ready? How long until my plant produces watermelons? Time is measured in many ways. We divide a minute into 60 seconds, and count how long we can hold our breath. We set the kitchen timer for 8 minutes to prepare our favorite pasta, but the roast in the oven will bake for at least an hour. It will take days for a plant to grow from a seed, and months until it produces fruit.

Time is a way for us to measure the span between events. We can keep track of time by watching the seasons of the year, noting the rising and setting of the Sun, keeping track on a calender by reading the time on a clock.

Time Conversions

60 seconds = 1 minute60 minutes = 1 hour24 hours = 1 day7 days = 1 week4 weeks = 1 month (approximately)12 months = 1 year365 days = 1 year

Most months last for 30 or 31 days. February is the only month that is exactly four weeks long. But that changes every fourth year. In a leap year, we add a day to February, giving it 29 days in all. This changes the year from 365 to 366 days. We do this because it takes a little more than 365 days for the Earth to orbit the Sun. It really takes 365 days, plus about 6 hours. If we didn't adjust the calendar every four years, our seasons would become confused.

When we want to know the exact it for dinner. Temperature is the time, we use clocks. Digital clocks degree of heat or cold in something. show the time in numerals. Analog We measure temperature with a clocks show the time with hour and thermometer. Some thermometers minute hands on a numbered measure the air temperature, circular face. The minute hand others are used in baking. When we makes a complete circle every hour, are not feeling well, there are while the hour hand moves slowly different types of thermometers for from one number to the next. Some measuring body temperature. analog clocks have a second hand, In the United States, which circles the clock every temperature is measured on the minute. Fahrenheit scale. The Celsius scale is used by all scientists and in most other countries.



A.M. and P.M.

Suppose you receive a note from a friend

asking you to call him at 8:00 the next day. Would you call at 8:00 in the morning or 8:00 in the evening? To be clear, your friend should have added A.M. or P.M. to his note. A.M. (from the Latin ante meridiem) means before noon, and P.M. (from the Latin post meridiem) means after noon. If your friend had asked you to call at 8:00 A.M., you would know he wanted you to call him in the morning.

Temperature

Many decisions we make every day depend on temperature. Our summer clothes are very different from our winter clothes. We plan our activities based on the temperature. Meat is cooked to a certain temperature before we serve

Temperature Scales

Fahrenheit Scale

Water freezes into ice at 32° F Water boils at 212° F

Celsius Scale

Water freezes into ice at 0° C Water boils at 100° C

To convert Fahrenheit temperatures to Celsius, subtract 32 from the Fahrenheit temperature, then multiply by 5/9. A cool fall day might be 59° Fahrenheit or 15° Celsius.

Advanced Math

Some math problems can't be solved with arithmetic. Even algebra and geometry alone can't solve them. Scientists have looked for other types of mathematics to help them solve these problems.

Advanced math can help. Some types of advanced math help us understand our own world. Sometimes, they help us understand the universe. Math can be used to see the universe in new ways.

All the rules of basic mathematics apply to the more advanced forms of mathematics. In this way, the language of mathematics is consistent.

Calculus

Finding the area of a square is easy. A square doesn't get larger or smaller. But some things do change. Calculus helps us to figure out how physical quantities change.

Calculus was created in the seventeenth century by Isaac Newton and Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz. They developed it to solve mathematical problems that regular algebra and geometry could not solve. Many discoveries were made with calculus. It is the main mathematical language used in science and technology. It was used to define many of the basic principles of physics. Engineers use calculus to show how something works without having to build it.

Chaos Theory

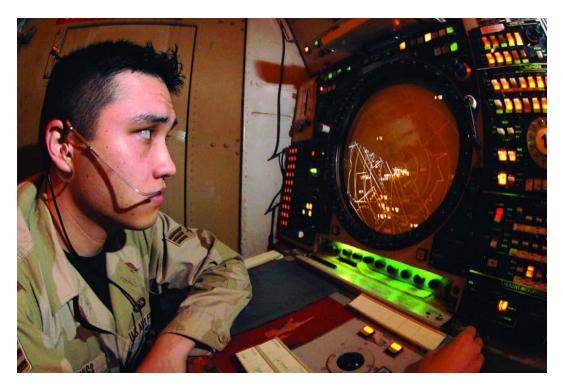
Many things in nature seem like they are random. Blades of grass blowing in the wind or the shapes of rain clouds are tricky to show using ordinary math. These types of movements and shapes are not entirely random. A branch of mathematics that can explain these things is called chaos theory. This is the study of results that seem unpredictable given some sort of starting point.



Chaos theory, discovered in 1961 by a meteorologist named Edward Lorenz, explains how even the smallest change to the initial conditions of a system can drastically change its behavior forever.



Volume 9 Technology



By Nancy Harris

Editorial Consultant Luana Mitten Project Editor Kurt Sturm

Rourke Publishing LLC Vero Beach, Florida 32964

Table of Contents

© 2008 Rourke Publishing LLC

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced or utilized in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical including photocopying, recording, or by any information storage and retrieval system without permission in writing from the publisher.

www.rourkepublishing.com

Photo credits: Title Page - Bradley A. Lail-Department of Defense; Page 4 - Kiselev Andrey Valerevich; Page 4b - wikipedia; Page 5 -Dennis Owusu-Ansah; Page 5b - Liz Van Steenburgh; Page 6 - Stefan Redel; Page 6b - Alan Egginton; Page 6c - Tim McCabe; Page 7 -Carl Jani; Page 7b - Kiyoshi Takahase Segundo; Page 7c - Gary Kramer; Page 7d - Danish Khan; Page 8 - Lynn Betts; Page 9 - Ron Nichols; Page 9b - USDA - Scott Bauer; Page 10b - Mike Young; Page 11 - DigitalVision; Page; 11b - courtesy of the Library of Congress; Page 11e - courtesy of NASA; Page 12 - Drazen Vukelic; Page 12b - DigitalVision; Page 13 - PhotoSky; Page 13b - Tim Hansen; Page 13c - erics; Page 14 - Anita; Page 14b - DigitalVision; Page 14c - Paul J. Perkins - Department of Defense; Page 15 - Paul Farley -Department of Defense; Page 15b - Robert J. Fluegel; Page 16 - Richard Thornton; Page 17 - Diane N. Ennis; Page 17b - Gilmanshin; Page 17c - Thomas Nord; Page 17d - Eugene Buchko; Page 18 - LOC; Page 18b - DigitalVision; Page 19 - wikipedia; Page 19b - egd; Page 19c - Richard Foreman; Page 20 - David Kay; Page 20b - Margaret Stephenson; Page 20c - Philip H. Eckerberg; Page 21a -OksanaPerkins; Page 21b - Jim Preston - Department of Defense; Page 21c - Kit Thompson - Department of Defense; Page 22 salamanderman; Page 22b - Rob Wieland - Department of Defense; Page 23 - DigitalVision; Page 23b - Rob Bouwman; Page 23c - Jordan Beesley - Department of Defense; Page 23d - Ivan Cholakov; Page 24 - NASA; Page 24b - NASA; Page 25 - NASA; Page 25b - Margita Braze; Page 26 - Fred Sweet; Page 26b - Losevsky Pavel; Page 26c - Pchemyan Georgiy; Page 27b - Yury Asotov; Page 27c - Stefan Glebowski; Page 28 - SueC; Page 29 - U.S. Military; Page 29b - Undergroundarts.co.uk; Page 30 - Larry A. Simmons; Page 30b - Aleksandar Milosevic; Page 31 - Laurence Gough; Page 31b - Page 31c - Samantha Wilner -U.S. Airforce; Page 32 - Michael Haggerty; Page 32b - Phan Patrick M. Bonafede; Page 33a - Kevin Brooks; Page 33b - Don Bray; Page 33c - Kenneth C. Zirkel; Page 34 - Kelly E. Barnes; Page 35 - LOC; Page 36 - LOC; Page 36b - LOC; Page 37 - LOC; Page 37b - Pascale Wowak: Page 37c - Jan Carbol; Page 38 - Evgeny Terentey; Page 38b - Brent Wong; Page 38c - DigitalVision; Page 39 - Darrell Young; Page 39b - wikipedia; Page 40 - Stephen Coburn; Page 40b - Albo; Page 40c - Randall Schwanke; Page 41 - NASA; Page 41b - NASA; Page 42 - courtesy of NASA; Page 42b - Department of Defense; Page 43 - Bradley A. Lail-Department of Defense; Page 43b - Jennifer Kimball-U.S. Navy; Page 44b - sil63; Page 44d - sagasan; Page 45 - Bogdan Radenkovic; Page 45b - Morgan LanePhotography; Page 46 - Losevsky Pavel; Page 46b - Kruchankova Maya; Page 47 - Lucian Coman; Page 48 - Lukaszfus; Page 49 - Ljupco Smokovski; Page 49b - Anne Kitzman; Page 49c - Losevsky Pavel; Page 50 - Emin Ozkan; Page 50b - Darrell Young; Page 51 - LOC; Page 51b -David Romeo Corral; Page 52 - Kristian Sekulic; Page 52b - Kenneth Sponsler; Page 53 - Natale Matteo; Page 53b - Darren Green; Page 53c - cloki; Page 54 - Arvind Balaraman; Page 54b - Scott A. Frangos; Page 55 - Lisa F. Young; Page 55b - Tatiana Popova; Page 56 -Semenov Gleb; Page 56b - Fen; Page 57 - Courtesy Apple; Page 58 - No Credit; Page 58b - No Credit; Page 59 - Chrysler Media; Page 59b - Honda Media; Page 60 - NASA; Page 60b - Honda; Page 61 - wikipedia; Page 61b - Atlant for wikipedia commons(MUST ATTRIBUTE); Page 62 - courtesy of US government; Page 62b - wikipedia; Page 62c - courtesy of U.S. Governement; Page 62d - no credit required; Page 62e - courtesy of US government

Editor: Luana Mitten

Cover design by Nicola Stratford. Blue Door Publishing

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Rourke's world of science encyclopedia / Marcia Freeman ... [et al.].
v. cm.
Includes bibliographical references and index.
Contents: [1] Human life -ISBN 978-1-60044-646-7
1. Science--Encyclopedias, Juvenile. 2. Technology--Encyclopedias, Juvenile. I. Freeman, Marcia S. (Marcia Sheehan), 1937-Q121.R78 2008
503--dc22

2007042493

Volume 9 of 10 ISBN 978-1-60044-655-9

Printed in the USA

CG/CG

Rourke Publishing www.rourkepublishing.com - rourke@rourkepublishing.com Post Office Box 3328, Vero Beach, FL 32964

What Is Technology?
AgricultureFarm EquipmentChemicals
TransportationShips and BoatsTrainsMotor VehiclesAircraftRockets
Electronics Currents Currents Circuits Lasers Currents
Medicine Microscopes Microscopes Imaging Surgery Surgery
Communications Telegraphs Telephones Copiers and Fax Machines Satellites
Entertainment Stereos Stereos Radio Radio Television Cameras Motion Picture Camera
ComputersCentral Processing UnitDedicated ComputersComputers in Our Everyday LivesPersonal ComputersDrivesMonitor, Keyboard, and MousePrintersNetworkThe InternetRobots

People Who Use Technology

	•	÷.			÷.																			•	•	•	.4
•	•••	•	•	• •	•	•	•	•••	•	•	•	•••	•	•	•••	•	•	•	•	••	·	•	•	·	•	•••	.4
																											.5
																											.6
•	•••	·	·	• •	•	•	•	•••	٠	•	•	•••	•	•	•••	•	·	•	•	••	·	•	•	·	•	•••	.8
•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•				•	•	•	•	.10
																											.12
																											.16
																											.18
																											.21 .24
																											.25
																											.25 .26
																											.26
																							-	÷.,			.31
																											.31 .32
																											.32
																											.35
	• •																										.35 .37
																											.40
																											.41
																											.44
																											• 11
																											.46
	•••																										.48
•	•••	•	•		•		•		•		•			•		•	•	•	•		•		•	•			.50
•	•••	•	•	• •	•	•	•	•••	•	•	•	•••	•	•		•	•	•	•	••	•	·	·	·	•		.52
•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•					•	•	•	•	.53
																											.53
																											.54
																											.54
																											.54
																											.54 .55
																											.56
																											.56
																											.56
•	•••	•	•	• •	•	•	•			•	•		•	•	••	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•••	.59
																											.61

What Is Technology?

Science is the search for knowledge. Scientists look at the world. They observe how things work and develop ideas about ways to make them work better. Sometimes they try to test an idea to explain how something works. Scientists perform experiments to find out how things work. The knowledge that they discover is useful for many things. It can help to build new machines. It can help scientists to develop new medicines or cure a disease. Technology is the use of scientific knowledge to create new things.



Scientists must often wear protective clothing.

Inventors

An inventor is a person who creates a new idea or device to perform a task. An invention is the new technology created. An inventor with a new idea or design for an invention may decide to have the idea protected. The idea gets protection from the law in a paper called a patent. A patent prevents other people from making, using, or selling the new idea without permission from the inventor. Some inventions are simply a better way of doing or building something. They may improve an existing technology. Other inventions are much more complicated.



In the 1800s, telephones had a crank to ring the operator for assistance to make a call.



Cell phones, a new invention in the 1950s, were used only for telephone calls.

Today's technology has been in the process of development for thousands of years. New inventions are constantly changing how people work and play. They change how people think and live. The future will bring even more changes. This will happen as we continue to learn about the world.



Wheel rakes attach to tractors and sweep cut grain crops into piles. Often farmers use other equipment to make the piles into bails.

Agriculture

Thousands of years ago, humans relied on hunting, fishing, and gathering to provide food for their families. They looked to find edible plants for food. Soon people realized they could grow these plants. They also found they could make clothing out of plant fibers, or threads. People used cotton and flax to make clothing. This was the beginning of farming. People had to learn how to prepare, or cultivate the soil for planting crops. They learned how to breed, or grow plants. They learned how to process, or change plants to grow what they wanted. Agriculture is the science of growing crops. Agriculture has used advancements in technology to improve the methods for growing and harvesting crops.

Technology

Farm Equipment

A farmer plants crops in shallow trenches. Sowing the seeds is another way to describe the process of planting. Furrows are shallow trenches that look like narrow grooves in the ground. The farmer turns over the dirt to mix nutrients into the soil. Plants need nutrients to stay healthy. Farmers also turn the ground in order to loosen the soil and give seeds room to grow.



Farmers plow in a straight line wherever possible.

One invention designed to break up soil is the plow. A plow is a piece of metal shaped liked a V in the front. It digs furrows when dragged along the ground. A farmer pushes the plow from behind or pulls it from the front. He may also use an animal like a horse or an ox to push or pull the

plow. A tractor is used to pull many farming machines. Tractors are a type of vehicle which has large wheels to keep it from sinking in mud.



A horse pulling a plow makes a single furrow.



A tractor pulling a plow makes many furrows.

Sickles and Reapers

Farmers need to harvest the crops, or cut them down and gather the useable portions after they have grown to full size. People can cut crops by hand. One invention they can use to make the job easier is a sickle. A sickle is a tool with a sharp curved blade. Harvesting with a sickle is hard work and takes a long time. The reaper is another invention. This is into fabric for clothes. a machine that cuts wheat and other grains using many blades. It works much faster than a sickle.



Another name for a sickle is a scythe.



grain in a short time.

Cotton Gin

Following the harvest, there is sometimes more work to do. Farmers must process some crops before they are used. For example, cotton grows in balls with many small seeds. The cotton fibers must be unwound and someone must remove all the seeds. People then make thread from the cotton. A worker will weave the thread



A cotton boll holds the ripe balls of cotton.



Reapers (threshing machines) can cut a lot of Commercial looms weave lots of cloth at one time.



Eli Whitney

to Eli Whitney was born in Westborough, Massachusetts, on December 8, 1765.

Whitney worked as a farm laborer and schoolteacher to save money to attend Yale University. In 1793, Eli Whitney learned of the problems with processing cotton and developed a machine that would use a comb and roller to make the work much easier. He invented the cotton gin. His invention made it easier and quicker to separate the cotton fibers from the seeds. Eli ran into many problems with his request for a patent, but it finally received approval by the court in 1807.

Chemicals

Fertilizers

Fertilizers are substances that add nutrients to the soil to help plants grow. Natural fertilizers have been used for centuries. They include manure, or the excrement of animals. They also include guano, which is made of bird and bat droppings.

Compost is a mixture of decaying plant material, and people use it as a fertilizer. Some farmers use chemical fertilizers to help their crops grow. Chemicals are things which may be found in nature or created in a laboratory.



Liquid fertilizer is sometimes added to the soil.



Compost

Compost is one of more nature's best mulches and is a great soil fertilizer. Did you know you can make your own compost? You can make it without spending any money and it will make your garden or the plants in your yard

Protecting Plants

Some farmers use poisons to Organic farming is a natural way of farming. It is the practice of protect their crops from weeds and raising plants, especially fruits and insects. Herbicides are chemicals vegetables, without the use of that destroy unwanted plants. Many people spray herbicides to kill synthetic pesticides. Many people weeds. Pesticides are chemicals that believe using harsh chemicals on plants or produce can be harmful to kill insects. An aphid is a type of the health of the humans who insect that will eat the leaves of a farmer's crops. Other types of regularly use the foods which have insects that can destroy plants are been exposed to chemicals. Organic locusts and weevils. Farmers will farmers use only things naturally occurring in nature, such as spray pesticides to prevent these insects from destroying their crops. manure to help plants grow. Organic farming does not use chemical fertilizers, herbicides, or pesticides.



Airplanes and helicopters are both used for crop dusting large areas with pesticides.

grow strong and healthy without the help of chemicals from the store. You can use yard cuttings, fruit rinds, vegetable peelings, and even tea bags to begin your compost. There are many conservation groups and websites that can help you to get started.

Organic Farming



Organic vegetable gardens can produce delicious nutritious food.



fertilizer (FUR-tul-ahy-zer): any substance used to increase the ability of the soil to promote plant growth

organic (or-GAN-ik): a substance, especially a fertilizer or pesticide, of animal or vegetable origin

synthetic (sin-THET-ik): something that is man-made



Rachel Carson

Rachel Carson was born in Pennsylvania in 1907. She always loved nature and writing. Carson studied biology, the science of life, in college. Then she studied marine zoology

in graduate school. This is the study of sea animals. Carson wrote three popular books about the ocean and the creatures in it.

Carson then turned her attention to the land. A friend of hers noticed that many of the birds on her property died rather suddenly. This happened after the spraying of pesticides in the area. Carson studied the impact of the pesticide DDT. She found that the poison contaminated or dirtied the soil and water. It also killed birds. Carson wrote about what she discovered in1962. She called her book *Silent Spring*. Her warnings made people think about the negative effect technology can have on the environment.

Transportation

People and things have always had the need to move or be moved from one place to another. People have always looked for more comfortable or quicker ways to travel. Transportation is a way people and things move from one place to another. Different environments require different methods of transportation.



Engineers study traffic patterns, structures, materials, and techniques to help them design safe and efficient roads.

People have invented machines called vehicles or crafts, to travel. Some vehicles travel on the ground, like a train. Some vehicle travel on top of the water, like a je ski. Some even help people to travel under the water, like a submarine. People use other types of crafts to travel in the air. A hot

Timeline of Transportation After 1600



1662 - Blaise Pascal invented a horsedrawn public bus.



1783 - Joseph Montgolfier and Étienne Montgolfier launched the first hot air balloons.



1814 - George Stephenson built the first practical steam powered railroad locomotive.



1900 - Ferdinand von Zeppelin built the first successful airship.



Wright and Wilbur

Wright flew the first

motor-driven airplane.



1908 - Henry Ford developed the assembly line method of automobile manufacturing.

es,	air balloon is an interesting way to
el.	travel through the sky.
	Crafts such as rockets can help
eles	people to travel into space. Over
jet	the centuries, inventors designed
	machines or improved ways of
	traveling to move people faster and
bes	faster.
ht	

1926 - Robert Goddard launched the first liquid-fueled rocket.

1981 - John W. Young and Robert L. Crippen were the first astronauts to fly in a space shuttle mission.

Technology

Ships and Boats

One of the earliest ways to transport people and things was by traveling in the water. Boats are small crafts generally used for a special purpose like fishing. Ships are larger crafts that might use sails or an engine to propel them through the water. They may travel on rivers, lakes, or oceans.

Boats With Paddles

People use flat wooden boards called paddles to row small boats. An oar is another name for a paddle. A raft is a simple boat with a flat bottom. We can make a raft using tree trunks or logs. Sometimes, flat pieces of wood called planks are bound together to make a raft. Some rafts are made of rubber or a plastic called vinyl. These rafts are often inflatable.

A canoe is a small boat. It has curved sides and a pointed bottom. Early Native Americans made canoes out of tree trunks.



inflatable (in-FLEY-tuh-buhl): an object that can be filled with air

planks (plangks): a piece of lumber that is cut thicker than a board

vinyl (VAYHN l): a type of plastic



Canoes were made and used for early transportation.



Large ships are able to move many people and things at the same time.

They hollowed out the trunk and used a paddle to move from place to place. Today, an artificial substance, made by man, called fiberglass is a popular material for building a canoe.

A kayak is a sleeker version of a canoe with one or two small holes. The holes are where people sit. A rider may attach a watertight skin or enclosure to prevent water from getting in the boat. The boat can turn all the way over without

sinking. Some people compete in kayak races. The Olympics have had a kayak event since 1936.



Kayaks were originally used by hunters in subarctic regions.

Boats With Sails or Motors

Other boats and ships use different types of power. A sailboat uses pieces of canvas or other fabrics called sails. Wind fills the sails and pushes the boat forward.



Sailboats have the right-of-way over motorboats because the sailboats must rely on the wind to move them.

Ancient Egyptians used sailboats to move the stones for the Great Pyramids from Aswan to Giza. Pilgrims traveled from England on a large sailboat called the Mayflower to reach America in 1620.

A motorboat uses an electric motor and propellers. Propellers are turning metal blades that help the vessel to move through the water. A speedboat is a small, but very fast motorboat. Speedboats pull water skiers, help the Coast Guard or marine patrol on rescue missions, or might even compete in a race.



Motorboat drivers and passengers should learn and follow the rules of boating.



A steamboat driven by a large, single paddle wheel at the stern is called a stern-wheeler.

Larger Boats and Ships

Most large ships are made of metals like iron or steel. They use giant propellers powered by engines to move through the water. A steamboat is a large boat with paddles. A steam-powered engine turns the paddles to move the boat.

The biggest ships are tankers and aircraft carriers. Oil tankers

can carry millions of barrels of oil inside huge cargo areas. Designers built tankers to travel long distances and other than oil, they may transport water, chemicals, or liquefied natural gas.

Aircraft carriers are long, flat warships designed to act as a floating airbase. Planes take off and land on the runways on the top of the ship.



When an oil tanker collides with another ship or an iceberg, it may spill oil into the sea. This creates an oil slick (a film of oil floating on the water).

The Navy is the branch of the United States military whose pilots land on aircraft carriers.

A submarine is a metal ship that can travel underwater. A submarine can be small enough to carry one or two people and remain underwater for a few hours. They can also be very large, have a crew of over eighty people and remain underwater for a few months.

know...

Robert Fulton was born in Pennsylvania in 1765. His

father died when Fulton was only nine. Fulton worked as a portrait painter. He did not have much success. Then he decided to study engineering, using science to solve problems. He patented a method for building canals. Canals are man-made waterways.

Fulton moved to the country of France. At that time France was at war with the country of England. He designed a boat that could travel underwater. He thought its purpose could be to attach a mine or torpedo to enemy ships. In 1800, Fulton built the Nautilus, the first submarine. He also became famous for turning the steamboat into a commercial success. Although other inventors worked to develop steamships, his improvements allowed steamboats to carry more people and cargo. Carrying passengers and materials on rivers became much faster and safer.



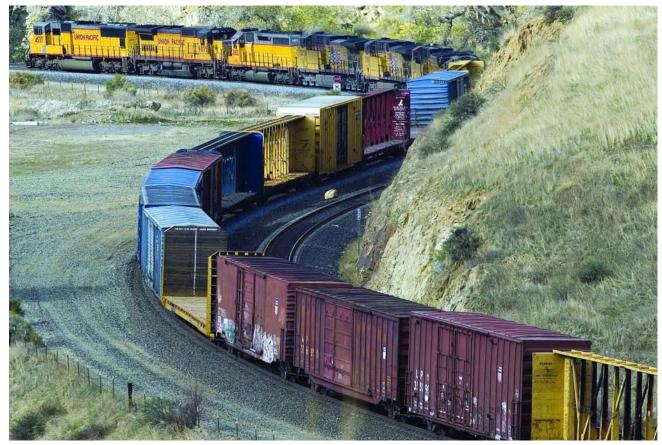


When a submarine is docked in port, much of the ship remains underwater.

Robert Fulton



Trains



When a freight train pulls a heavy load up hills, it may be pulled by several engines (locomotives) hooked together.

A train is a vehicle that runs on tracks, or rails. Passenger trains may have many compartments for people to travel from one place to another. Freight trains carry cargo, or things. Different cars transport different types of items. Refrigerator cars transport food. Container cars need a crane to lift cargo in or out of the car. Tanker cars transport different types of liquids.

Light Rail

People sometimes use the term light rail to talk about trains that run on city streets. A trolley, also called a streetcar, is one type of light rail transportation. Horses pulled the first streetcars. Modern streetcars usually get their power from electricity. Electricity makes things run.

A subway is a light rail system of cars. A subway runs on the street and in underground tunnels. Many large cities have a network of subway tunnels.



In cities, trolley cars are good transportation for short distances.

Big Trains

Big trains have wheels that run on railroad tracks. They travel long distances between cities and towns. The first car on a train is the locomotive. The locomotive powers the train. The first trains used steams engines. Today, most trains get power from using gasoline or electricity.

High-speed rail trains are electric trains that run faster than a regular train, sometimes called a bullet train. These high speed rail systems also transport people in Germany, Korea, and Spain. The first countries to build and use the bullet train are the countries of France and Japan.

The monorail is another type of train. Most monorail systems run on a single rail. Some monorails are suspended. The train cars actually hang from the track.



Subways are an efficient method of moving large numbers of people quickly in many of the large cities of the world.





Bullet trains move quietly and quickly.



The word monorail means one rail.



Granville T. Woods

Granville T. Woods was an African American inventor. He was born in Ohio in 1856. He left school when he was ten years old so he could work. Woods continued his education

at night school. He had many jobs. He worked in a machine shop and on the railroad. He worked in a factory and on a steamship, then he started his own electronics business.

Woods became a successful inventor. He invented a telegraph system. It let trains and railroad stations send warnings and other messages. He also developed trolley cars. They ran using overhead power lines. Woods invented the telegraphony. This is a combination of a telegraph and a telephone. The operator could send messages verbally or by Morse code.



A telegraphone

Motor Vehicles

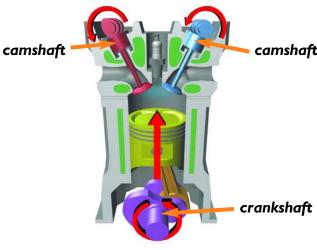
People drive and are passengers in motor vehicles in most places of the world. Motor vehicles have wheels and a motor. They can be driven on many different land surfaces. Cars, buses, and trucks allow people and things to travel to certain places. They can travel where boats and trains cannot go.



A sedan is sometimes called a family car.

Cars

combustion engine and battery power to make the car work. Cars are vehicles used by people to get from one place to another. Cars come in a variety of sizes. A limousine is a long car. It has Combustion engines are often the space for many passengers and has power source for cars. This type of engine burns gasoline or diesel fuel a chauffeur to drive the vehicle. A to run. Some people are concerned microcar, also called a bubble car, that combustion engines are is very popular in countries outside of the United States. Auto makers contributing to pollution in the air. designed the microcar to use less gas. It is also economical because a camshaft small amount of material is



A four-stroke engine

Inventors are developing other types of power systems to make cars run. Electric cars have electric Limousines are often referred to as limos. motors that run on batteries. Some cars use hydrogen to provide power. A hybrid car uses a



Hybrids look like standard automobiles.

necessary to build the car.





chauffeur (SHOH-fur): a person employed to drive a private automobile or limousine for the owner

combustion (kuhm-BUHS-chuhn): burning, the process of combining fuel with oxygen to produce heat

gasoline (GAS-uh-leen): a flammable liquid mixture of hydrocarbons obtained from petroleum, which is used as a fuel for combustion engines

Some people like to drive a sports car. It can go fast. The fastest cars are race cars. Some cars have special features. A convertible is a car with a fabric top that folds back. Instead of fabric, some convertibles have a hard top that the owner can remove.



Buses

Buses are bigger than cars. A bus has a long body with several rows of seats or benches for passengers. Buses usually operate on a schedule. A school bus carries children to and from school. A passenger bus can carry people long distances. They travel between different cities and towns. A tour bus carries tourists or people on vacation. Some people charter, or rent, a bus for special purposes.



The stop sign which a school bus driver activates is a warning to drivers to stop for school children.

Trucks

Vehicle engineers designed trucks to carry materials of all kinds. Pickup trucks are a bit bigger than cars. They have a flat bed behind the passenger compartment. They can carry many things in the flat bed. Large trucks transport different kinds of heavier materials or equipment. They carry things to places where trains and boats cannot travel. An 18-wheeler is a very big truck. It has 18 separate wheels.



Sometimes, pickup trucks are used as emergency vehicles.



It is wise to leave extreme space between your car and an 18-wheeler so the truck driver can see your car in his rear-view mirrors.

Aircraft

Hot Air Balloons, Blimps and Dirigibles

Aircraft are vehicles or machines that let people travel through the air. The first type of air transportation was the hot air balloon. It is the oldest successful



The first hot air balloon flight carrying humans Advertising blimps are sometimes equipped was on November 21, 1783 in Paris, France. with television cameras when flying over an athletic field.

human carrying technology for flight. It floats using a large bag of silk or nylon filled with heated air. People travel in a wicker basket called a gondola, that hangs underneath.

A blimp or dirigible is like a balloon. The gas helium fills up the balloon to help it float. It has a motor to push it forward. This type of craft was very popular before 1940.



Technology

As technology for airplanes improved, people stopped using blimps to travel. Today, advertisers use blimps to market their products. Some companies offer sightseeing tours in a blimp.

Airplanes, Gliders, Helicopters

An airplane is an aircraft that flies using wings and an engine. The Wright brothers receive credit for the invention of the first airplane in 1903. Airplanes can be military airplane that can go small and carry only one or two people. Commercial airplanes can be large and carry many passengers a long distance in a short amount of time. Most



Some jet airplanes are so huge that large trucks and small airplanes can be carried inside them.

airplanes take off on a long road called a runway. Air lifts the airplane up. This happens as the air passes over and under the wings. A small airplane gets its power from propellers. Propellers

are on the outside. A motor makes the propellers turn. Most larger airplanes have jet engines. This type of engine has many turning blades inside. They move air much faster than ordinary propellers.

Jet airplanes use turbines to make them move faster. The military uses supersonic aircraft, such as fighters or bombers, to move quickly with a great amount of power. A fighter jet is a small very fast.



Military airplanes are not painted such bright colors as passenger airplanes.

The Concorde is one of the only supersonic planes used as a commercial airplane. It carried passengers from Europe to America in less than half the time it took for a regular airplane to fly the same distance. The Concorde

was very expensive to fly. Due to rising costs, the Concorde was retired from use. The last Concorde flight was on October 24, 2003.



You are not likely to see a Concorde in flight anywhere.

A glider has a similar shape to an airplane. It uses only the wind for power. The military may use gliders to deliver troops. Gliders are very quiet because they don't have an engine. Some people participate in glider competitions.



Gliders have no propellers or jet engines.

A helicopter is an aircraft with a large propeller on top. It can rise into the air, or take off, straight up. A helicopter can take off without using a runway.



Helicopters may land on a hospital roof helipad with emergency patients.



Military helicopters can deliver personnel and supplies to places where there are no runways.



commercial (kuh-MUR-shuhl): transporting passengers or cargo for profit

supersonic (soo-per-SON-ik): traveling through air faster than the speed of sound

turbines (TUR-bine): a machine that uses steam, water, or gas to create energy and is often used in jet engines

Rockets

A rocket is a vehicle that travels into the air at a very high speed. It burns fuel to make thrust. Thrust pushes, or propels, the rocket upward. A rocket engine ejects the thrust out of the bottom of the rocket. A lot of energy is required to propel a rocket into space. Energy is necessary to make things happen. Astronauts and cosmonauts are people who travel into space using rockets. Rockets also lift satellites into orbit. Satellites study the Earth and other objects in the universe.

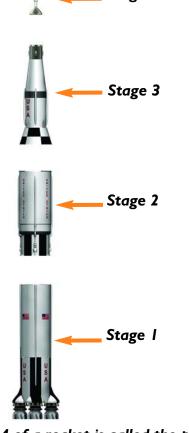


People must be far away from the base of a rocket at the time of blastoff.

Rocket Design and Travel

Multiple sections or stages make up the design of most rockets. Each stage contains its own fuel supply and rocket engine. When its fuel is used up, a rocket is released. This lightens the weight of the rocket. It allows it to travel faster. A rocket needs to travel at least 17,700 miles per hour, (28,500 kilometers) to make it out of the atmosphere into space. This speed is the escape velocity. The part of the rocket that actually reaches space is often called a spacecraft.

Stage 4



Stage 4 of a rocket is called the payload.

Booster rockets

Some rockets get extra thrust from booster rockets. The scientists usually attach the boosters to the side of the main rocket. The space shuttle is both a rocket and an airplane. It takes off like a rocket. It releases two booster rockets. As the rocket uses up its fuel, it will also release an external fuel tank. The space shuttle lands like an airplane when it returns to Earth.

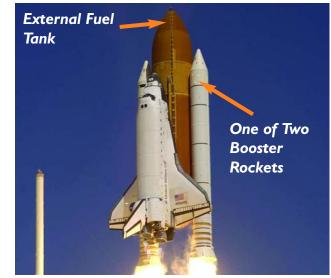
Electronics

Currents

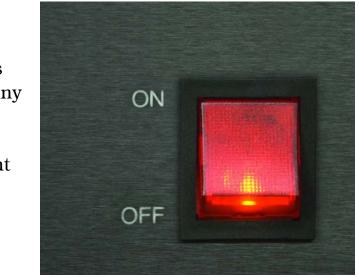
Much of modern technology is the development of a variety of tiny electronic devices. Electronics is the study of devices used to control electric current. A current is moving electricity, usually conducted, or moved, in a wire. Different things can happen to currents. Some electronic parts switch the current on and off. Other components make the current larger or smaller.

Types of Currents

There are two different types of electronic current. Direct current,



A space shuttle is also called a spaceship.



A toggle switch is used to turn the current on and off.

or DC, flows down a wire in only one direction. It remains constant. Direct currents make computers and electronic clocks work

t, properly.

Technology



When your computer is plugged into the AC outlet, a built-in power adapter charges the AC to DC.

Alternating current, or AC, moves first in one direction and then in the opposite direction. AC is the type of current that delivers electricity to homes and businesses. Frequency is how many times the current changes direction each second.



Sound systems and TVs operate on alternating current.

Electronic devices are things that use electricity to work. Computers, televisions, radios and video games use electricity. Can you think of other things that use electricity?

Circuits



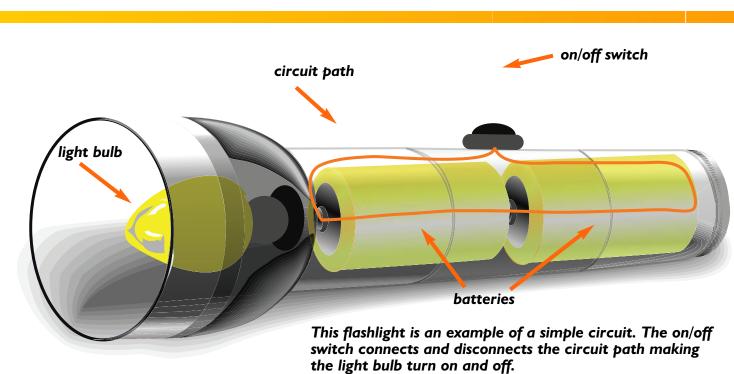
Electronic Circuit Components

A circuit is a group of electronic components or parts. Electronic circuits are made of parts that are connected. There are several types of electronic parts. Batteries store chemical energy. This can be converted or changed into electrical energy. Resistors control the current. Transistors make the current stronger, or amplify it. Capacitors store energy.



Batteries have a positive (+) end and a negative (-) end.

Devices like motors and light bulbs convert, or change, energy. Electronic circuits use these



components in different combinations to perform differen tasks. Circuits come in many size Some are big. Others are tiny. These components form a comple path for the electric current. The current starts and ends in the same place. A very simple circuit forms complete loop like a rubber band

Simple Circuits

Electronic circuits can be as simple as turning on a light bulb The components of a flashlight an a battery, a switch, wires, and a light bulb. When the switch turns "on" the circuit completes its path Electricity can flow. It flows from the battery, through the light bulk and back to the other end of the

nt es. lete e ume	battery. The filament, or wire, inside the light bulb heats up. The filament becomes so hot that it emits, or gives off, light. In this circuit, some of the chemical energy from the battery is converted. It changes into light energy.
s a	
d .	Find-out More A Circuit Can Fit on a Tiny Chip Sometimes, compli-
	cated circuits can be a few
o. re s h.	millimeters, or a fraction of an inch long! They are integrated circuits. These circuits are found on microchips. Microchips allow some electronic devices to be
ı b,	very small. Cell phones have microchips.

Technology



Nikola Tesla

Nikola Tesla was born in Croatia in 1856. His father was a clergyman and his mother was an inventor. His mother had a great influence on his life. Tesla loved solving problems in

science and mathematics. He came to the United States in 1884. He became Thomas Edison's assistant. He disagreed with Edison about the best form of electric current.

Tesla developed a form of electricity called alternating current, or AC. He designed electronic components. They allowed power to travel over long distances. He also discovered medical uses for electricity. Tesla invented other electronic devices and developed the basic principles for many more. Many of his inventions were not valued during his life. Only after his death did Tesla get the praise he deserved.

Complex Circuits

Many circuits are complex as we see in a powerful computer. Computers use many combinations of different types of components. These components often combine together on a circuit board. Some of the components used in computers include processor chips, RAM, and ROM.

Lasers

Lasers are devices that make an intense, narrow, and single-colored beam of light. The word "laser" stands for "light amplification by the stimulated emission of radiation." Scientists introduced



the first laser in 1960. Many lasers consist of a tube that contains gas. Scientists use different types of gases to make different colors of light. The light happens when the gases become active or energized. The gases usually gain energy when combined with electricity. Helium-neon lasers create a red
light. Argon lasers can produce
blue and green light. Helium, neon
and argon are gases. Lasers range
in size from microscopic to the
size of a football field.as a pointer. They shine a little dot
on a wall far away. This is
especially helpful to teachers.
Some people use other kinds of
lasers to transmit or send
computer information very quickly.
They do this through fiber optic
cables. They are very thin groups
of glass or plastic.



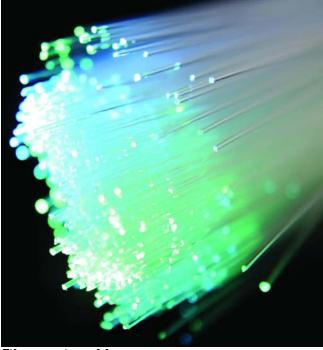
Laser beams shine in a straight line.

Seeing Lasers

You cannot see some lasers unless they reflect off of a surface. Other lasers are easier to see. High-powered lasers cause particles in the air to light up. Usually, a laser beam is visible when it passes through dust or smoke.

Using Lasers

There are a lot of different uses for lasers. Some people use a laser



Fiber optic cables carry computer information sent with lasers.

Laser printers and compact disc players are common products that use lasers. A bar code scanner in the grocery store uses a laser to read the code. Doctors use medical lasers in surgery. Surgeons use laser technology to remove unwanted tissue in the body. A doctor can make a precise incision using a laser.



For example, lasers are common for eye specialists to perform eye surgeries. Industrial lasers cut steel and other materials. Engineers often use lasers to measure distances or to mark a straight line.

Lasers enable doctors to perform some surgeries without making any incisions.



Holograms

Seeing holograms without lasers

A hologram is a three-dimensional image. Sometimes, you can see a hologram without a laser. You can see these three-dimensional images with natural light. You can see holograms on most credit cards. Credit card companies use holograms to prevent people from making copies of the card. The hologram appears to move and change colors as you move the card.



Holograms are used on many banknotes.

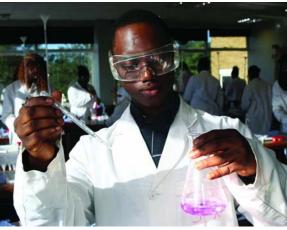
Seeing Holograms with Lasers

People use lasers to make holograms. A laser beam splits into two separate beams. One of the beams reflects off an object onto a photographic surface, or plate. The other beam shines directly onto the photographic plate. It does not reflect off the object. This is the reference beam. The two beams combine to make light and dark areas on the photographic plate. Scientists call them interference patterns. These patterns make a three-dimensional image when lit with the same type of laser light.

There are many other types of holograms. Medical professionals use holograms. One day, computers may use holographic memory.

Medicine

sample of cells that a researcher Medicine is the science of keeping the human body healthy. It will study. The specimen is generally too small for the eye to includes treating people when they get sick. Doctors need technology see without assistance from some to help them with a diagnosis, or type of technology. A scientist might stain, or color, the specimen finding out what is wrong with a to make its parts easier to identify. person. They need technology to create medications to help sick people feel better. They need technology to perform operations. Operations can help doctors to cure or treat a disease within the body.



Medical professionals can tell much about us be examining samples of our body fluids.

Microscopes

A microscope is a device used to make something look bigger. Scientists use microscopes in medicine to study cells for signs of disease. Cells are the building blocks of life. A specimen is the









A microscope is many times more powerful than a magnifying glass.



Compound Light Microscope

The most common type of microscope is the compound light microscope. When you use this microscope, a scientist presses the specimen between two glass slides. A scientist then places it on an area called the platform. A bright light shines below the platform.

The image of the specimen is magnified by several glass lenses.

Electron Microscope

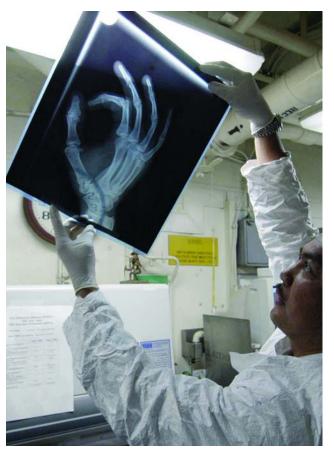
An electron microscope can magnify very small things. Instead of using waves of light, it uses waves of electrons. An electron is a small particle. You cannot see electrons with just your eye. The waves of electrons light up a specimen. Electron microscopes can show viruses and other things that are invisible to the eye. They can also show things that are invisible to light microscopes.



Electron microscopes are much larger and stronger than light microscopes.

Imaging

Doctors often need to know what the body looks like on the inside. Imaging is a way to take pictures of bones and organs, such as the heart. A simple imaging technology is the X-ray. X-rays are a type of radiation. Exposure to the rays in large amounts can damage tissues. Doctors use small amounts for diagnosis. An X-ray is like a photograph. X-rays allow doctors to see cavities in teeth. They allow them to see fractures in bones, or fluid in the lungs.



By comparing x-rays taken at different times, a doctor can tell how a body is changing.

Fluoroscopy

Fluoroscopy uses X-rays to show movement inside the body. It also uses a television type screen. It can show what happens when you swallow or when your heart beats. Surgeons use fluoroscopy during surgery if they need to have a consistent picture of what is happening in the body while the patient is on the operating table.



A fluoroscope helps a surgeon know what is happening inside your body.

Other Types of Imaging

Computed tomography scanning, or a CAT scan, creates millions of pictures. A computer puts these pictures together to make one image.

Magnetic resonance imaging, or

MRI, uses magnetic fields. A powerful magnet produces small pulses of energy. A computer uses these pulses to create a picture. Doctors use MRI to see soft tissues like the brain.

During medical tests using an imaging machine, you must lay very still.

Ultrasound imaging produces images with sound waves. It can show the movement of blood in an unborn baby.

03/02. GA(LMP)=22W5D P

Your first official photograph might be via ultrasound before you are born.

Surgery

Many doctors recommend surgery to treat or cure a disease or other problem inside the body. Surgery usually involves cutting into the skin and other tissues. For hundreds of years, a sharp knife called a scalpel was the tool doctors used. Today, advances in technology have created other ways to operate.



Surgery is performed in a cool, sterile room with very bright lights.



abdomen (AB-duh-men): the part of the body containing the stomach and intestines

incision (in-SIZH-uhn): the act of cutting into the body for surgical purposes

surgical instruments (SUR-ji-kuhl IN-strement): tools used for scientific or medical purposes

Using An Endoscope

An endoscope is a fiber-optic tube inserted into the body. Fiber – optics are very thin groups of glass or plastic fibers. The fiber-optics send pictures to a screen so that the doctor can see what is happening inside the patient's body. Doctors see inside organs, such as the heart, and even what is happening inside blood vessels. Blood vessels carry blood around the body.

Laparoscopy is the use of an endoscope in the abdomen. The doctor attaches surgical instruments to the tube to perform the operation. This means that the incision into the skin can be much smaller.

Microsurgery

Surgeons often make incisions using lasers. In microsurgery, the surgeon uses a microscope and tiny instruments to repair tissue and cut away diseased tissue. Doctors use microsurgery to reattach a severed (cutoff) body part. For example, doctors will sew arms, legs, toes and fingers back on during microsurgery.

Communications

Humans communicate with each other in many different ways. The simplest forms of communication involve talking out loud, using hand signs, and writing down messages. Technology is used to increase the number of ways people can communicate. People have invented devices and systems that allow individuals to talk to each other when they are not together. Communications technology is an important part of both today's and tomorrow's society.

Telegraphs

People often need to communicate with each other over very long distances. One way people do this is to send electrical signals along a wire. The telegraph was one of the first devices that could do this. Telegraphs are relatively simple devices. Pushing down on a telegraph lever causes electric current to flow. This current travels very fast through a wire. At the other end of the wire is a telegraph receiver. Each pulse of current causes a special magnet an electromagnet, to turn on. A

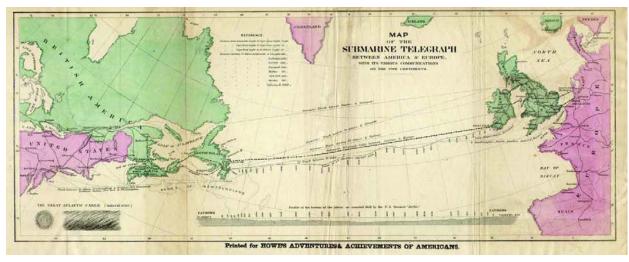
	clicker makes dots and dashes on
/S.	a strip of paper when this magnet
	is on. People sometimes call this
ut	strip of paper a ticker tape.
	Workers laid very long telegraph
	cables all the way across North
he	America. This transcontinental



There is a charge for each word used in a telegram.

al	telegraph allowed people to
ph	communicate from New York to
T	San Francisco. They were able to
	send messages across the country.
g	Workers laid a metal cable across
s S	the floor of the Atlantic Ocean
	from the state of New York to the
а	country of England. It went to the
e	city of London. This was the
se	transatlantic telegraph.
iet,	

Technology



This old map shows the transatlantic telegraph line placement.

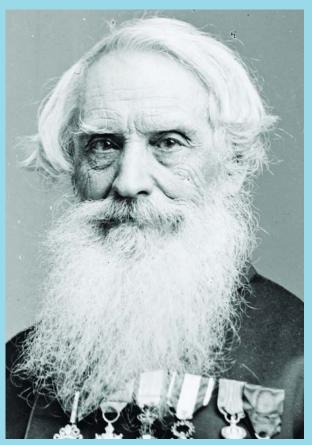
There are also wireless telegraph systems. A wireless telegraph system allows people to send signals through the air.



Morse Code

Sending messages over a telegraph line is not

like talking on a telephone. You can make only long or short sounds, not words. A special code is needed that will be understood by the person sending and receiving the message. Samuel F. B. Morse created a list of sound patterns for letters and numbers. The name of this code is Morse code. A short tap on the telegraph makes a short sound called a dot. A longer tap makes a longer sound called a dash. People send a word or words using the dot-and-dash patterns for each letter, with short pauses between letters and longer pauses between words.



Samuel F. B. Morse

Telephones

People use telephones every day to talk with each other. A telephone is a device that converts or changes sound into an electrical signal. Another telephone far away can hear this signal. Telephones come in many shapes and sizes. The microphone is the part of the phone that people talk into. The microphone converts sound into electrical signals. It makes the sound louder. The receiver is the part of the phone that allows

Morse code was once very important when ships used the telegraph for communication. The universal or worldwide signal for a sh in trouble is SOS. This stands for "Say our ship." In Morse code, SOS is ••• - • • •. People can also use flashes of light to send messages in Morse code Many people in the military still learn Morse code.







Telephones make it easy to keep in touch with people.

	Morse code	
	A •=	S • • •
nip	B = • • •	T 🔳
/e	C =•=•	U • • =
		$\vee \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet$
	E •	W•==
<u>-</u> .	F • • ≖ • G ≖ ■ •	X =••= Y =•==
-	G ■■● H ● ● ● ●	
		2 ==•• 0 ====
	J •===	0
	K = • =	2 • • • • • •
		3 • • • = =
	M = =	4 • • • • =
	N = •	5 • • • • •
	0 ===	6 =••••
	P •■■•	7 ==•••
	Q 	8 ===••
	R∙∎∙	9

Technology

Types of Phones

There are several ways you can make a telephone call. A rotary telephone has a wheel, or dial, with numbers on it. The rotary phone makes a different pulse, or clicking sound, for each number dialed. A touch-tone telephone has a keypad with numbers on it. Touch-tone phones send out different combinations of tones. or noises, for each number that is pressed.

How Telephones Work

Telephone companies normally connect telephones to each other by a series of devices such as fiberoptic cables and copper wires. All these devices make up a telephone network. The network allows you to make a phone call to any other telephone line. Every phone line has a different telephone number.



Telephone companies are responsible for the telephone network. Individuals are responsible for the lines and equipment in their homes.



Rotary phones, and some touch-tone phones, must be used where they are plugged into a phone jack.

People often have one telephone number in their home. The same line can connect several telephones to the same line. They will share the same telephone number.

Cordless Telephones

Many people have cordless telephones in their homes. They use radio waves to communicate with a base. The base connects to a phone line.



Cordless phones allow people to move around the house while talking.

People may hook up a telephone answering machine to their telephone line. The answering machine will make a recording of a phone call if nobody answers the phone.

Cellular Telephones

Some people carry cellular telephones with them wherever they go. Cellular phones are little telephones. They have powerful transmitters in them. They connect to other phones through a system of antennas called the cellular network. Cellular phones work as



know...

Alexander Graham Bell was born in the country of

to Scotland in 1847. His father and his grandfather were wellknown speech teachers. Bell taught music and speech to children. In 1871, he moved to the United States and lived in the city of Boston. He moved there to teach deaf children how to speak.

Bell figured out how to send several telegraph messages over a wire at the same time. The telephone is Bell's most famous invention. A telephone changes a voice into an electrical signal. It then transmits it along a wire. It changes it back into sound at the receiver. He founded the Bell Telephone Company in 1877. Bell made the first telephone call from New York City to the city of Chicago.

38

long as they are close to a cellular antenna. People have to recharge cellular phones when the battery gets low.



Cell phones can be used almost anywhere now. In some countries there are more cell phones than people.

Alexander Graham Bell

Graham Bell's original phone



Copiers and Fax Machines

Photocopiers

Photocopiers are devices that can make a duplicate, or copy, of an image. There are many different types of copiers. Traditional photocopiers use a black powder called toner. The machine uses toner to make a copy of the original image. The toner transfers from an image roller onto paper that is electrically charged. The machine then melts the toner into places by hot fuser rollers. The toner should not rub off when it comes out of the copier.



Many copiers can make black and white copies as well as color copies.

Scanner

Other types of copiers use different methods for copying an image. A device called a scanner is often used. A scanner converts an image into computer data. The computer is able to store or print out the information.



Scanners can be small desktop devices or large freestanding machines.

Facsimile (fax) Machines

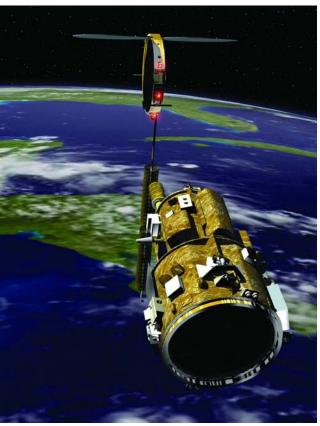
Facsimile or fax machines are copier-like devices. They send written and printed material to another fax machine using telephone lines. They often have a built-in scanner. It changes the image into data that transmits over a phone line. A fax machine receiving a call from another fax machine changes the data back into a printed image. Many people use the term fax to describe the image sent by a fax machine. Sometimes, people use computers to send faxes. They can send and receive a fax without using a single sheet of paper.



Since the 1980s, fax machines have been an essential tool for most businesses.

Satellites

Communications on Earth often depend on technological devices in space. Satellites are anything that orbit around a planet. The Moon is Earth's only natural satellite. Humans have sent up hundreds of man-made satellites. They orbit around the planet Earth.



The three main types of satellite orbits are polar, Sun synchronous, and geostationary.

Communications Satellites

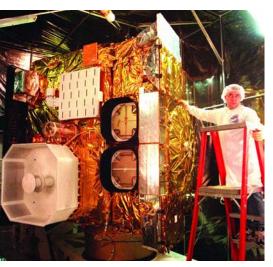
Some companies use satellites for telephone communication. They allow people to place phone calls instantly to any telephone on the planet. Communications satellites

have other uses. They can receive and transmit radio and television signals, allowing people to watch and listen to events as they happen around the world.

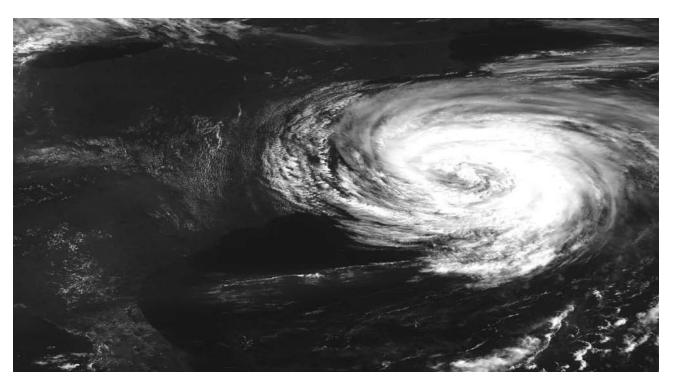
Communications satellites often have a geostationary orbit. This means that they stay over the same spot above Earth as it spins. Some people and companies have satellite dish antennas. These antennas allow them to receive satellite signals.

Weather Satellites

Scientists use other satellites to study the Earth. Weather satellites send images of clouds and storms covering the planet. These satellites often move about the Earth in a polar orbit. This type of orbit allows them to view the entire planet as it spins.



Most weather satellites have a lifetime of about seven years.



An image from the GOES-9 weather satellite shows Hurricane Felix.

The weather is predicted using images from weather satellites. Often you will see satellite images on the weather and news channels on television.

Military satellites

The military sometimes uses satellites to spy on other countries. The satellites carry powerful telescopes. Telescopes are devices that magnify distant objects which people can not see with just their eyes. These telescopes can take detailed images of the Earth's surface. Other satellites with telescopes study the planets and stars.



The Earth looks like a big ball when seen from space.



Radar and Sonar

Radar

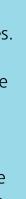
Some people can measure distance using radio waves. Radio waves travel well above ground. Some of the waves bounce back when they hit an object. This causes an echo. Radar is an electronic device that listens to echoes. Radar can find the distance to an object by measuring the time it takes to receive the echo.

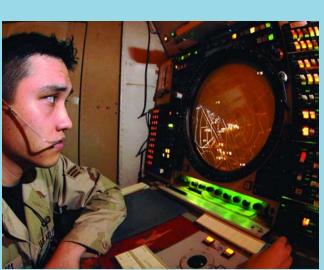
vehicles, sometimes use radar to map the surfaces of other planets.

Sonar

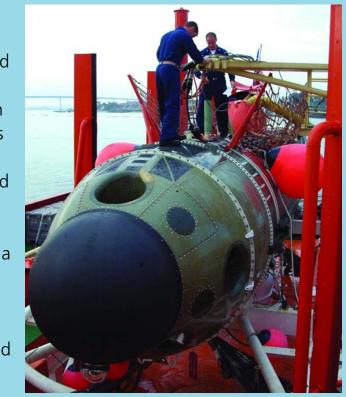
Sound waves travel well underwater. Like radio waves, sound waves create echoes. This happens when they come in contact with an object. Sonar is a device that listens to the echoes of the sound waves. The word "sonar" stands for "sound navigation and ranging."

Like radar, sonar measures the time it takes to receive the echo of a sound. Then it calculates the distance to the object. Submarines use sonar to "see" underwater. Sometimes, people use sonar to find fish underwater. Oceanographers use sonar to map the ocean floor.





The word "radar" stands for "radio detection and ranging." Radar is useful to keep airplanes from crashing into one another. Police officers use radar to measure the speed of moving cars. Space probes, which are unmanned



Entertainment

Many of the ways people have fun involve the use of technology. Entertainment includes listening to music on stereos, radios, or MP3 players. It includes watching television, taking photographs, and going to the movies. All these activities depend on technology. Stereos, radios, and televisions have electronic parts. Many cameras have mechanical parts. Video and computer games, movies, and music all require technology.

Stereos

People use a stereo to listen to music and other sounds. Technicians make stereos using specific electronic components. These components amplify sounds (make them louder). Other devices or components allow stereos to play compact discs and MP3s. They allow them to play records and tapes. Some stereos can take up an entire room. Other stereos are small. Portable stereos run on batteries. People can take portable

stereos outdoors. Many people have changing the quality of how we hear stereos built into their cars. MP3 players are small portable devices that can fit in a pocket. They can of songs.

is. Bass controls make the low hold hundreds. or even thousands frequencies of sound louder or softer. Treble controls make the high frequencies louder or softer. **Frequencies** Some stereos have equalizers that Sound travels on sound waves. can control many different A sound wave has a frequency. The frequencies. Balance controls make frequency is the number of times the sound louder or softer in the something moves in a second. A left or right speakers. People use a higher frequency sound has a high fader to make the front or back pitched sound like a whistle. A speakers louder or softer. lower frequency sound has a low **Stereo System** pitched sound like a drum. The amplifier is the main part of a A stereo system has many stereo. It has different controls for components. It needs to have a

THE HISTORY OF MUSIC RECORDING TECHNOLOGY



Phonographs or gramophones

were the most common devices for playing recorded sound from the 1870s through the 1980s. Its design changed numerous times during that period.



Phonograph records began replacing the phonograph cylinders in the early 1900s. Phonographs are often called records, LPs, or 45s.

10

Stereo 8, also known as 8-tracks, were created in 1964. They are a form of endless loop tapes.

Cassette tapes were a primary form of sound recordings between the 1960s and early 2000s. Cassettes made it easier for people to

make recordings at

home.



Compact discs, or CDs, have been used since the early 1980s. They are still popular today.

MP3 players are digital audio players (DAP). These small devices are unique because they can store and play music.



tuner to operate the radio and an amplifier to increase the volume. A stereo needs speakers in order for the stereo system to make sound. A tweeter is a speaker which produces high frequency sounds and the woofer provides the bass. Speakers often come in pairs to provide stereo sound. Stereo sound is sound from two sides at once. When sound comes from all sides. it is called surround sound. A compact disc player is a regular feature in modern stereo systems. A compact disc player plays compact discs, (CDs). Some stereo systems have auxiliary inputs to be able to use MP3 players or access satellite radio.

Technology



Some people enjoy arranging all of their stereo equipment in plain sight. Others prefer placing their equipment in a cabinet.

Sometimes, people listen to stereos using small speakers on their ears called headphones.



Headphones make it possible to listen to recordings or radio without disturbing others.

Radio

Radio waves are a form of energy that travels through the air all around you. This type of energy is electromagnetic energy. These waves (signals) can carry sound, pictures, and other information over long distances. Radios are a type of device that uses radio waves. People often listen to the radio for news, information, music, and other entertainment. People like to use portable radios because of their small size. Many people have radios in their stereo systems at home or in their cars. The latest technology is satellite radio. It is a digital radio signal broadcast by a communications satellite.



know ...

Guglielmo Marconi was born in Italy in 1874. He

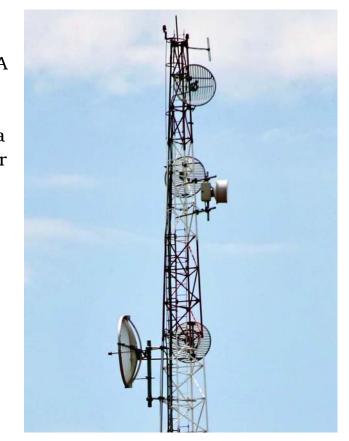
studied two types of science, physics and chemistry. Marconi read about Heinrich Hertz's transmission of electromagnetic waves across a room. Marconi realized that these radio waves could send messages through the air. They could do this without using wires. He performed experiments in his attic.

In 1896, Marconi obtained a patent for his invention of the radio. He also added a telegraph key that used Morse code. Marconi sent messages across the English Channel to France. The English Channel is part of the Atlantic Ocean. He showed how ships could use radio waves to communicate with other ships. They could also use them to communicate with people on the shore. Marconi found ways to increase the distance that radio waves could travel. Soon, he transmitted signals from England to Canada and Australia.

Radio Stations

Everything you hear on the radio comes from radio stations. A radio station broadcasts or sends music and other programs to a transmitting antenna. The antenna is high on a mountain, building, or tower. The antenna transmits the radio waves into the surrounding area. Small antennas in radios convert or change the radio waves into electric signals. When the electronic signals are amplified it produces sound. Different radio stations broadcast on different frequencies. You can tune into different stations on the radio to listen to different types of programs or music.

Guglielmo Marconi



Towers with antennas for transmitting electronic signals can be found in many countries of the world.

Technology

How Radio Waves are Transmitted

Radio stations can transmit radio waves in several ways. AM radio stands for amplitude modulation. This means that the strength of the radio wave is varied. FM radio stands for frequency modulation. This means that the frequency of the radio wave is varied. The short-wave is another type of radio wave. Shortwave radio can transmit over very long distances. Satellite radio is a new form of radio. This signal can cover a large geographic area.

Television

The first televisions had black and white pictures and you could only use them to watch shows broadcasted from television stations.

Television. or TV. is a source of both information and entertainment. Television stations can broadcast pre-recorded programs or live events as they are happening. Some live broadcasts, such as newscasts, are



frequency (free-kwen-see): In radio or electricity, the number of waves or vibrations per second

transmitted (trans-mit-ted): to send forward, to pass on or communicate

varied (vair-eed): changed or altered

produced in a studio. Other live broadcasts, like sporting events, are done away from a studio. They rely on a mobile studio and satellites.



Satellite trucks are mobile TV studios.

How Televisions Work

Televisions receive signals and then reproduce the signals into pictures and sounds. Televisions must have a screen for us to view the image and speakers for us to hear the sound.

Today, televisions are either analog or digital. Radio waves can carry both analog and digital television signals. Three different ways televisions receive signals are through the air, cables, and satellites.

Analog Televisions

Analog televisions use a cathode ray tube (CRT) to convert the pictures broadcast from a TV station into the image we see on the screen. The CRT uses beams of electrons

to produce an image. Electrons are very small particles that you cannot see. The electrons light up red, green, and blue dots inside the screen. Electromagnets control the electronic beams and allow them to make a picture on the screen.

On February 17, 2009, all television stations in the United States will stop broadcasting analog signals.

Digital Televisions

Digital televisions (DTVs) have many advantages over analog televisions. Digital signals are electrical signals and can be compressed. Compressed digital signals can carry lots more information than analog signals. Digital televisions do not use a cathode ray tube to convert the signal into pictures. This makes the flat screen TV possible.

Another benefit of DTVs is that they can both receive and send signals. This makes it possible for you to send a message through your television to select a movie or show you want to watch. Many companies call this feature "on demand viewing."

Digital televisions also have bette picture quality than analog TVs. People refer to digital televisions as

HDTV (high definition televisions). Not all digital televisions are HDTVs. HDTV is the highest resolution level currently available for digital televisions.



Digital technology led to the development of flat screen TVs.

Devices Connected to Television Sets

Today, televisions have many different functions.

	DEVICE FUNCTIONS
n j	Video Cassette Recorder (VCR): plays and records programs
	Digital Video Disc(DVD): plays programs
r s	Digital Video Recorder (DVR): plays and records programs
er	Game Consoles: plays video games
	Surround Sound: high quality audio system

Technology

Cameras

People use cameras to record images (pictures) of people, places, and things. Some cameras take single still pictures showing one moment in time. Other cameras take several pictures together (movies) that record several moments together.

All cameras work by using a lens to focus light onto a surface. Some cameras capture the image on film while others capture the image digitally.

Still Cameras

Today, most still cameras have many automatic features and record the images digitally rather than on film. Some of the automatic features that make taking pictures a snap are auto flash and auto focus.

When the light comes through the camera lens, a sensor in the camera turns the light into electrons. The

Film

camera reads the electrons and creates the image out of tiny pixels. A pixel, or picture element, is one point in an image. Many pixels make up each image.

Most digital camera sensors are a charge couple device (CCD). A few cameras use a complementary metal oxide semiconductor (CMOS).



In the past, when all cameras captured images on film, it could take several hours or days to develop the film and see your



Film cameras take photographs when an image remains focused on the film for

a certain amount of time. This is the exposure. The aperture controls the amount of light that can come in.

Exposure times are longer when there is not much light or the aperture is small. Once exposed film is removed from the camera, it is then developed. Developed film is called negatives. We can print pictures from the negatives.



pictures. Digital still cameras have taken away the wait. You can take a picture and then view, print, or e-mail it almost instantly.

Video Cameras

Video cameras. or camcorders. take motion and record pictures. They are both a camera and VCR.



Sony made the first video camera for home use in 1983. These video cameras were much bigger than the camera the girl is using in this picture.



optical disk media







A few digital still cameras can also take short movies. Many people use the digital camera in their cell phone to take short movies.

Video cameras or television cameras use lenses to focus light. An electronic sensor converts the light to images. The camera records the pictures and then stores them on videotape, optical disk media, hard disk, or flash memory. You probably have home movies taken with a video camera that you view on your TV or computer.

VIDEO STORAGE DEVICES

flash memory



Motion Picture Cameras

Motion picture cameras take pictures one right after the other. The pictures are recorded on film at a rate of about 24 pictures, or frames, per second. This allows movements to appear smooth and lifelike when someone watches the film.

Movie producers usually use several different cameras to shoot a movie. The film from all of the cameras is then edited (put together) to create one film. Movie theaters use projectors to show motion pictures on a screen.





Thomas Alva Edison

Thomas Alva Edison was born in Ohio in 1847. As a boy, he worked at a railroad station selling newspapers and candy. Edison found a job as a telegraph operator. Then he

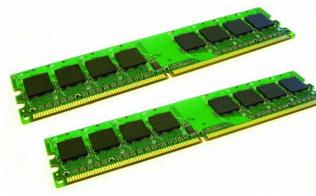
decided to become an inventor. In 1876, he opened a research laboratory in Menlo Park, New Jersey.

Edison improved many existing devices, like the telegraph. Edison invented the phonograph. This is a device for recording sound as grooves on a spinning cylinder. This invention made him famous. People called him the 'Wizard of Menlo Park." He developed a motion-picture camera. It could record and play back visual images. People most often recognize the name Edison for his electric lighting system. He did not invent the light bulb, but he improved it.

Computers

A computer is an electronic device that stores data, or information. It also retrieves and processes or sorts information. People can program a computer to help complete many different tasks. Computers use a combination of hardware and software.

The hardware is all the electronic Programs stored in RAM can components that make up a also send instructions to the CPU. computer. For example, a mouse is Other data can be stored in RAM hardware. temporarily. A computer loses all **Software** is the instructions that the information stored in RAM tell a computer what to do. when someone turns the machine Sometimes, people use the term off. Most personal computers have program to describe these more RAM memory than ROM instructions. memory.



If your computer seems to be working slowly, you may need to buy more RAM to put in your computer.

Central Processing Unit

All computers use a central processing unit, or CPU, to process information. A CPU is made of

thousands of tiny electronic circuits. The CPU processes instructions and then sends out a result.

Many computers have ROM chips that provide instructions to the CPU. ROM stands for read only memory. Many computers also have RAM chips that store information. RAM stands for random access memory.

ATM machines give people access to their bank accounts 24 hours a day.

Dedicated Computers

Some computers do only one thing. This type of computer is a dedicated computer. Automatic teller machines, or ATMs, contain dedicated computers. These computers let people check their bank accounts and withdraw money.

Computers in Our Everyday Lives

Computers are all around you. Small computers may tell you when an oven is hot. Computers in cars help engines run smoother. They also tell the driver when there is a problem. Many televisions use computers to change channels, or to turn them on and off. Some toys have computers that allow them to talk or make noises. Computers are an essential part of modern technology.

Personal Computers

A personal computer, or PC, is a computer that can perform many different functions. People use personal computers at home, in school, and for business.



Business people often use handheld computers to keep track of appointments and read e-mails when they are away from the office.

Personal computers have many components or parts. Electronic circuits inside a PC process information. PCs also perform calculations, such as adding or dividing. All personal computers need a CPU, ROM, and RAM. Many other peripheral devices can connect to a PC.

Most personal computers have a few USB (Universal Serial Bus) ports that let you plug in peripheral devices. For example, many digital cameras and printers connect to your PC through a USB port.

Drives

Computers use hard disk drives, or hard drives. to store software and data. They also use hard



In most libraries, people use computers to see if the book they are looking for is available.

drives to retrieve information. Most hard drives have hard disks inside the central processing unit that are permanent. That means you can not remove the hard drive without taking the computer apart. Some hard drives have removable hard disks.



Flash drives plug into your computer through a USB port.

Most personal computers have a CD or DVD drive that can read and write onto CDs or DVDs. Flash

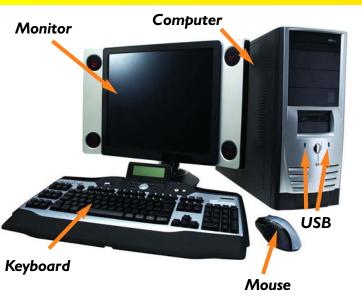
drives are smaller than hard disks. They are about the size of your thumb. They can not store as much information. Both hard drives and flash drives store information by magnetizing tiny parts of a disk. When you magnetize something it acts like a magnet and attracts iron or steel. Information can be lost if a magnet comes too close to the disk.

CD-ROM Drives

CD-ROM drives use a laser to read information on special compact discs called CD-ROMs. A CD-ROM can contain a lot of information. You are not able to erase the data on a CD-ROM.

Monitor, Keyboard, and Mouse

A monitor is a screen like a television. It shows the information that the computer is processing. People use a keyboard to type information into a computer. Most keyboards have the entire alphabet and numbers zero through nine. They also have several other keys for symbols and special functions. You can use a mouse to select information on the screen. The mouse moves a symbol on the screen called a cursor.



Printers

People use a printer to make a printout, or paper copy of information displayed on the monitor. There are many different



'Today, many people connect their computer to their printers using Wi-Fi.

kinds of printers. Some print in black and white. Others print in color. Ink-jet printers and dot matrix printers print with ink. Laser printers use toner to make an image on paper. Toner is like powder.

Network

A network is a way to link together many computers. A network allows different computers to share information with each other. Many computers on the same network can share the same printer.

People use a device called a router to connect their network. Networks can be connected through the router with cables or with Wi-Fi.

more

Computers Get Sick Too Sometimes,

computers have bugs in their programs. Bugs are errors in a computer program. Something called a virus can infect a computer. Viruses are little programs that cause big problems in other programs. Bugs and viruses cause computers to crash, or stop working.

The Internet

The Internet is an electronic communications network that

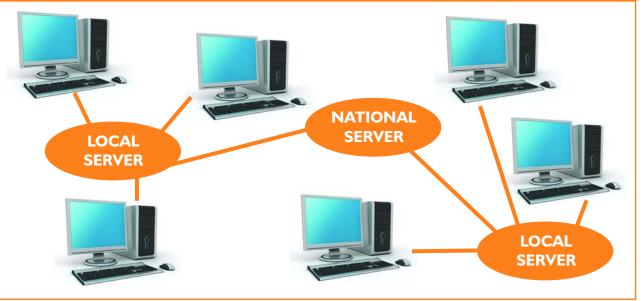


Steve Jobs was born in San Francisco, California in 1955. 155.11 When he was young he worked for a company called Atari. know... This company made video games. When Jobs was only 21, he formed the Apple Computer Company. He worked with Steve Wozniak. The company built personal computers. It helped to make the personal computer very popular. Jobs was one of the first inventors to introduce a computer that used a mouse. This was in the early 1980s. This helped to make personal computers easier to use by the average person.

For a short time, Steve Jobs left Apple Computer Company. Jobs then went back to work for Apple. He is now the CEO. Under his leadership Apple has recently made the MP3 player popular. Two of their MP3 products are the iPod and iTunes.

connects millions of computers around the world. It allows peop to share information between computers and communicate with people through their computers. Most people connect their person

HOW A COMPUTER CONNECTS TO THE INTERNET



Steve Jobs

	computers to the Internet. The
ple	connection can be a physical
	connection using phone lines or
ith	cable lines or it can be a wireless
•	connection (Wi-Fi).
nal	

Technology

INTERNET BASED TECHNOLOGIES

E-mail (electronic message) is a way to send and receive messages electronically. The messages are saved and can be read whenever the recipient wants to read them.

IM (instant messaging) is like a conversation between two people using text. The communication is in realtime.

Videoconferencing is a way for people in different locations to meet and talk using video and audio.

VoIP (Voice over Internet Protocol) is a way to carry voice conversations over the internet. VoIP uses phones that look like traditional telephones.

Web (World Wide Web) is a part of the Internet. A person uses a web browser to see interlinked and hypertext documents.

Wi-Fi (Wireless Fidelity) is the common term for wireless local area networks. Wi-Fi is used for Internet access as well as many other things such as gaming and television.





Calculators

Calculators are small general purpose computers that can do more calculations. The basic functions of a calculator are addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. After you type in your mathematical problem, the calculator displays an answer almost instantly.

Scientific calculators can perform more complex calculations. They have extra function keys for doing simple algebra and geometry. Some people program scientific calculators to solve mathematical equations. These equations have many calculation steps.

Robots

Robots are devices that perform specific tasks. For example, robots can put parts in a car. People use computer programs to control



Robots used to build cars still require people to program and maintain them.

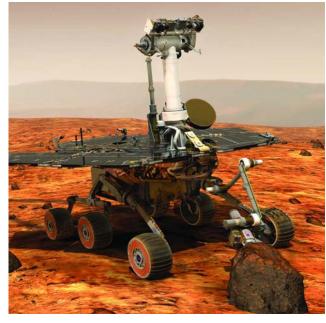


robots. The programs tell them what to do. Sometimes, people can control a robot directly. They use a remote control to make the robot work.

What Robots Can Do

People use robots to help build things. These robots perform the same tasks over and over. Sometimes they do jobs that are too complicated or hard for humans to do. Computers control the movements of these robots.

Some robots do jobs that are too boring for people. Other robots perform tasks that are too dangerous for people to do. For example, they may search for bombs. Robots also go places and do things that humans cannot. For example, robots explore the surfaces of other planets.



The Mars Rover Robot has helped us learn more about planet Mars.

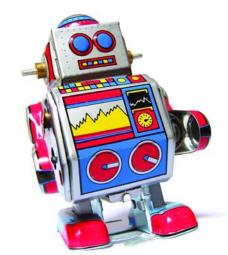
Robot Parts

Robots have various parts that help them do their jobs. Robots

may have attachments or parts that anchor them to the ground or they may roll around on wheels. Some robots have mechanical arms to pick things up. Despite what you may see in movies, most robots look more like machines than people.



Almost all cars are made using robots.



Toys can also be robotic.

People Who Use Technology

What did you do today? Did y talk on the telephone? Did you ride in a car or on a bus? Did yo use a computer or turn on a ligh If you did any of these things, yo used technology.

Almost everybody uses some form of technology at work, hom or school. Computer programme use computer technology to write computer program. People may write letters using a computer program called a word processor Many people work in the entertainment industry. Camera operators use television and motion-picture cameras. They us

Technology

Global Positioning System (GPS)



Imax film (short for Image Maximum)



ou	them to make TV shows and	
	movies. Disc jockeys, or DJs, play	
ou	records and CDs on the radio.	
nt?	Scientists use all sorts of	
ou	technology to study the Earth and	
	the Universe. Businesses often	
	have telephones, fax machines,	
ıe,	and computers. Graphic designers	
ers	use desktop publishing programs	
e a	to create books and magazines.	
	Doctors frequently use medical	
	technology. They use it to treat	
r.	injuries, illnesses, and diseases	
	such as cancer. Pilots fly airplanes	
	and helicopters. Who knows what	
	jobs will be created by new	
se	technologies in the future!	

OTHER AMAZING TECHNOLOGY

Used For

GPS is used by the military to navigate and coordinate the movement of troops and supplies. Civilians use them as navigation tools in their cars.

Imax film can display images of far greater size and resolution than conventional film display systems. A standard IMAX screen is 72.6 feet (22m) wide and 52.8 feet (16.1m) long.

OTHER AMAZING TECHNOLOGY			
Technology	Used For		
Night vision device (NVD)	NVD allows images to be produced in levels of light approaching total darkness. They are most often used by the military and law enforcement agencies.		
Remotely operated underwater vehicles (ROVs)	ROVs are used by the navy to perform deep-sea rescue operations and recover objects from the ocean floor, and by the science community to study the ocean.		
Thermography, thermal imaging, or thermal video	When viewed by a thermo- graphic camera, warm objects stand out well against cooler backgrounds. They are used by security and military people. Firefighters use it to see through smoke.		
Video Pill	Video pills are cameras the size and shape of a pill. Patients swallow the video pill then a doctor can look at their gastrointestinal tract.		
Virtual reality (VR)	VR allows a person to interact with a computer- simulated environment, either through the use of standard input devices such as a keyboard and mouse, or through multimodal devices such as a wired glove.		



Volume 10

Research Projects/Cumulative Index & Glossary

By Marcia S. Freeman Tom F. Sheehan

Editorial Consultant Luana Mitten Project Editor Kurt Sturm

Rourke

Publishing LLC Vero Beach, Florida 32964

© 2008 Rourke Publishing LLC

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced or utilized in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical including photocopying, recording, or by any information storage and retrieval system without permission in writing from the publisher.

www.rourkepublishing.com

Illustrations

Tara Raymo: pages 6-7, 9-10, 13, 15, 18-32; Jason Register: pages 5, 8, 11-12, 17, 33-39; Heather Botto: Page 14; Renee Brady: page 16, 40; AdiniMalibuBarbie: page 30

Editor: Luana Mitten

Cover design by Nicola Stratford. Blue Door Publishing

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

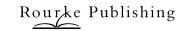
Rourke's world of science encyclopedia / Marcia Freeman ... [et al.]. v. cm. Includes bibliographical references and index. Contents: [1] Human life --ISBN 978-1-60044-646-7 1. Science--Encyclopedias, Juvenile. 2. Technology--Encyclopedias, Juvenile. I. Freeman, Marcia S. (Marcia Sheehan), 1937-Q121.R78 2008 503--dc22

2007042493

Volume 10 of 10 ISBN 978-1-60044-656-6

Printed in the USA

CG/CG



www.rourkepublishing.com – rourke@rourkepublishing.com Post Office Box 3328, Vero Beach, FL 32964

Science Investigations and Projects Overview	4
Human Life Heart Rate Heart Rate <td>5 6 7</td>	5 6 7
Animal Life Pond Water Observing Snails Building A Fruit Fly Trap Animal Hair	9 10 11
Plant & Fungi Life Making a Leaf Display Parts of a Flower Seed Germination Mushroom Spore Prints	13 14 15
Earth Science Soil Composition Wind Direction A Tornado in a Bottle Water Power and Pressure A Tornado in a Bottle	17 18 19
Chemistry Surface Tension Making a Solution Acid or Base Oil and Water	21 22 23
Physics Experimenting with a Pendulum Thermometer Reflection Refraction	25 26 27
Astronomy and Space Making a Sundial Papier-mâché Planetary Models Solar Eclipse Finding the North Star	29 30 31
Mathematics Analyzing Data: Seed Germinating Presenting Data: Graphing the Distribution of Variations in Sunflower Seeds Stripes Probability Presenting Data: Graphing the Pendulum	33 34 35
Technology	37 37 38 39
Cumulative Glossary	41
Cumulative Index	

Table of Contents

Science Investigations and Projects Overview

The investigations in this book will help you understand some of the ways that science works. You can do the activities at home or with your classmates at school. You will need some everyday items that you probably have at home or can find in your school classroom.

All scientists use the metric system when gathering and recording data. If possible, you should use metric measurements when gathering and recording data. If you do not have access to metric measurement instruments, you can use an Internet online conversion website to change your customary measurements to metric.

Scientific Process Elements

The investigations in this book focus on some of the things scientists do:

- observe and describe
- experiment or test ٠
- change a variable in an experiment
- collect data (count, measure, conduct timed tests or trials)
- record and analyze data
- draw conclusions
- present data graphically

How to Do the Investigations

Before you begin:

- Read the entire project.
- Think about where you will perform your investigation. Will your project be messy? Choose a spot where clean-up will be easy.
- Gather all your materials together.
- Plan your time. Once you start, will you have time to finish?
- Plan for safety. If you will be using a sharp knife or boiling water, ask an adult to help.

Performing the investigation

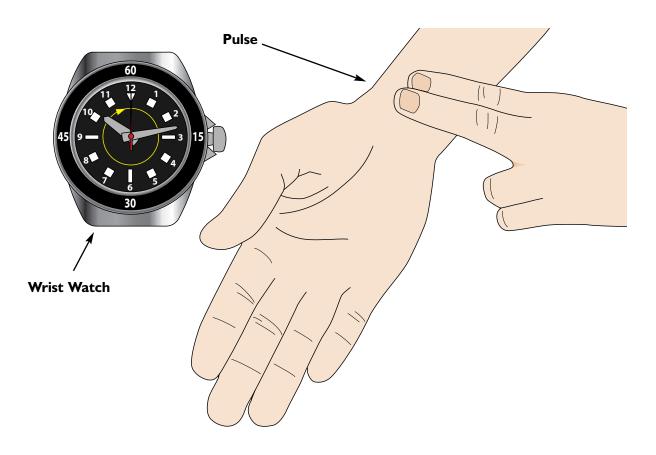
- 1. Read the directions carefully one more time.
- 2. Perform the task.
- 3. Keep a log book for notes and for recording data.
- 4. Record any questions you think of as you do the investigation.
- 5. Write a few sentences about conclusions you formed by doing the investigation.

Heart Rate Project

Question: What is my pulse rate?

Things you need:

- Watch or clock with a second hand
- Paper and pencil



Directions:

l.	Use your fingers to find your pulse o
	point on your neck – you might faint
2.	Look at the second hand on your wa
3.	Begin to count your heartbeats when
4.	Count your pulse for 60 seconds, or
	by 2.
5.	Record your pulse. Repeat several ti
6.	Repeat again during and after exerci

Scientific Process Elements: collecting data, changing a variable, analyzing data, drawing conclusions

Human Life



See Volume Page 10

se.
mes.
count for 30 seconds and multiply your results
the second hand is at 12 o'clock.
rch.
n your wrist or neck. Do not press on the pulse

Human Life

Projects

Projects

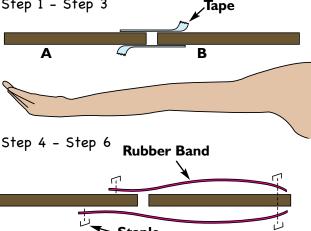
Saliva and Digestion Project Question: What does saliva do to start the digestive process? olume I 1.2 Things you need: Things you need: • Tincture of iodine (school nurse or drugstore) • White sheet of paper covered in See Volume • Scissors Page 13 • Eyedropper or cotton swab plastic food-wrap of a ruler • Saltine crackers • Tape Step 1 - Step 2 Step 3 - Step 5 Step 1 - Step 3 Saltine Crackers Iodine Chewed Up Saltine Cracker Step 4 - Step 6 Crumbled Saltine Cracker Staple Paper wrapped in Plastic Step 6 **Directions: Directions:** 1. Place a saltine cracker on a piece of paper covered with plastic food wrap. Crumble it thoroughly, and spread it out evenly. 2. Put a drop of iodine on the cracker in several places. Note any color change. (taped) edge of strip B. 3. Chew up a second saltine cracker. Chew it well and get it very wet with your saliva. 4. Spit the saltine mush out on the plastic wrap-covered paper and spread it out evenly. 5. Put a drop of iodine on the saltine mush in several places. What happens? 6. Record your observations. 7. You can use the iodine test to identify other foods that contain starch. strip B.

Scientific Process Elements: observation and description, demonstrating or verifying a scientific fact, experimenting or testing, recording data and observation, changing a variable in an experiment, drawing conclusions

Muscle Movement Project

Question: How do muscles move our bones?

• Heavy cardboard or wood strips, the size



- 1. Mark the wooden or cardboard strips A and B. These represent the arm bones.
- 2. Lay the strips end-to-end, with the top of strip B to the bottom of strip A.
- 3. Pull the strips apart slightly (about 1/2 cm) and tape them together on both sides. This represents the elbow joint in your arm.
- bands represent the bicep and tricep muscles.
- rubber and staple the other end about 1 inch (2 1/2 cm) below the top
- Gently stretch the rubber band and staple the other end 1 1/2 inches (3 3/4 cm) from the top (taped) edge of strip B.
- 7. Turn the strips over again. Hold strip A in place and pull up on the bottom end of

Bend the model open and closed as shown in the drawing. Watch the top rubber band get shorter and the bottom rubber band get longer. This is what happens when you flex your arm muscles.

Scientific Process Elements: building a model to understand how something works, observation and description, drawing conclusions

Human Life

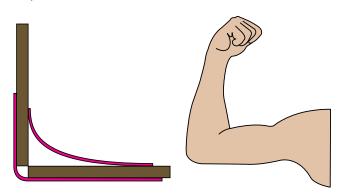


7

- Rubber band at least 1/8 inch (1/3 cm) wide
- See Volume Page 16

• Stapler

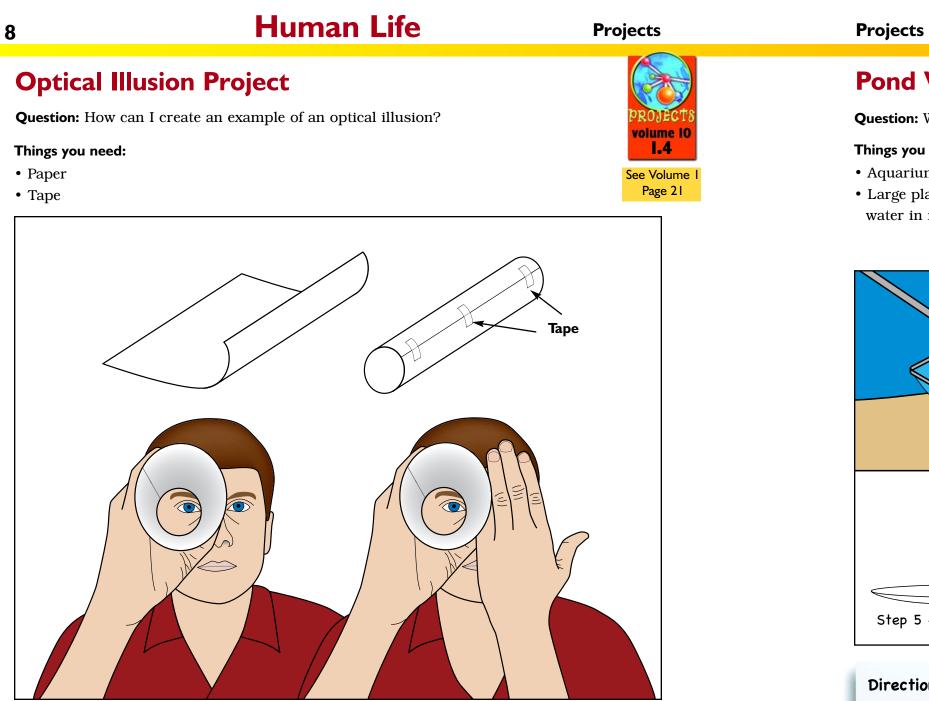
Step 7



4. Cut the rubber band into two pieces, one slightly longer than the other. The rubber

5. Staple one end of the shorter rubber band to the top of strip A. Gently stretch the

6. Turn the strips over. Staple one end of the longer rubber band to the top of strip A.



Directions:

- 1. Roll a piece of paper into a one-inch tube and tape around it to hold it together.
- 2. Hold the tube in your right hand and look through the tube with your right eye. (Keep both eyes open, looking straight ahead.)
- 3. Now bring your left hand up beside the tube (palm facing toward you), until it touches the tube.
- 4. Describe what you see as you look straight ahead.

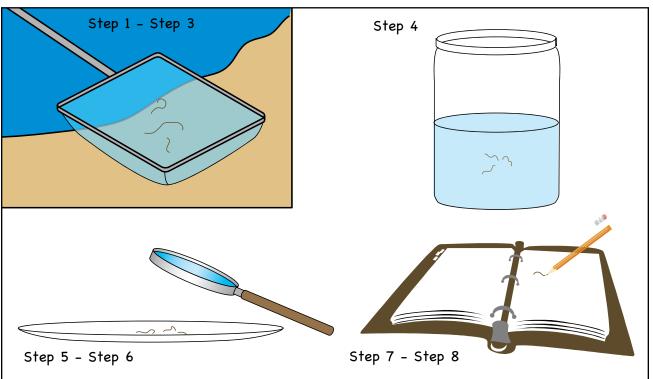
Scientific Process Elements: observation and description, demonstrating or verifying a scientific fact, recording data and observations

Pond Water Project

Question: What kind of animal life can I find in pond water?

Things you need:

- Aquarium net or kitchen strainer
- Large plastic container, pail, or jar with clean water in it



Directions:

1.	Find a small pond in a park or on sch
	your house, you can use water from a
2.	Dip your net or sieve into the muck o
3.	Let it drain. Pour more pond water ov
4.	Study the inside of the net for thing
	container of water to transfer the liv
5.	Place specimens on the white paper p
6.	Use a magnifying glass and the field
7.	Draw some of the specimens you four
8.	Return the specimens to the pond unl

Scientific Process Elements: observation and description, recording data and observations, drawing conclusions, presenting data graphically

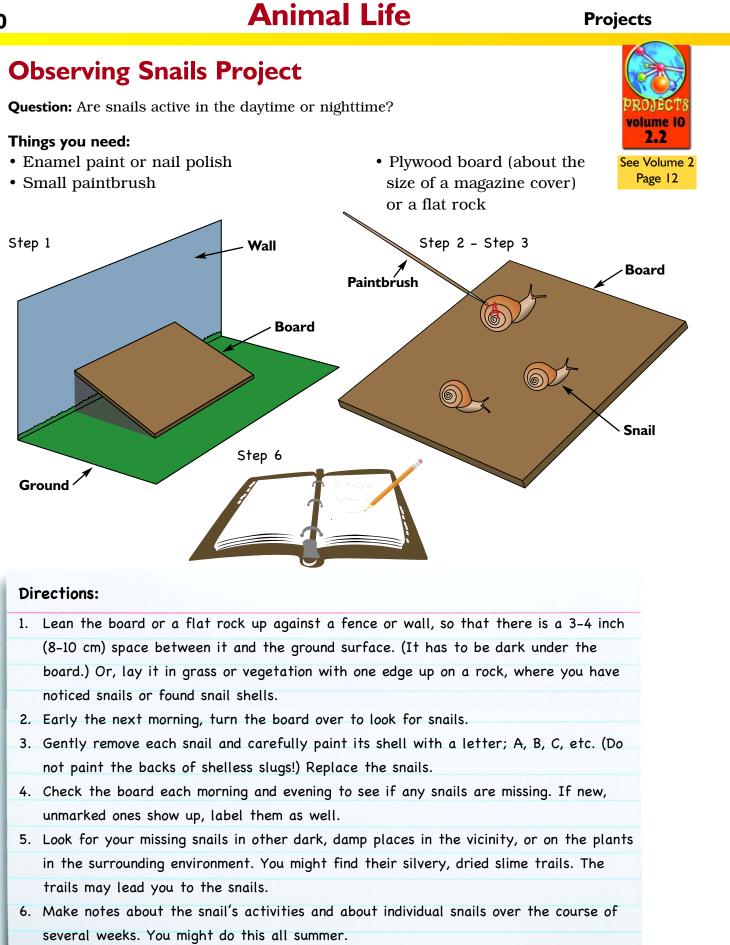
Animal Life



Page 6

- Small dish or paper plate
- Magnifying glass
- Field guides from the library

nool property. (If you do not have a pond near a lake, a stream, or a big puddle.) at the bottom of the pond. over it until it is free from mud. is that move. Swish the sieve or net in the iving things. plate or dish. guides to identify what you have found. nd. harmed if possible.



Scientific Process Elements: observation and description, collecting data, recording data and observations, drawing conclusions

Building a Fruit Fly Trap Project

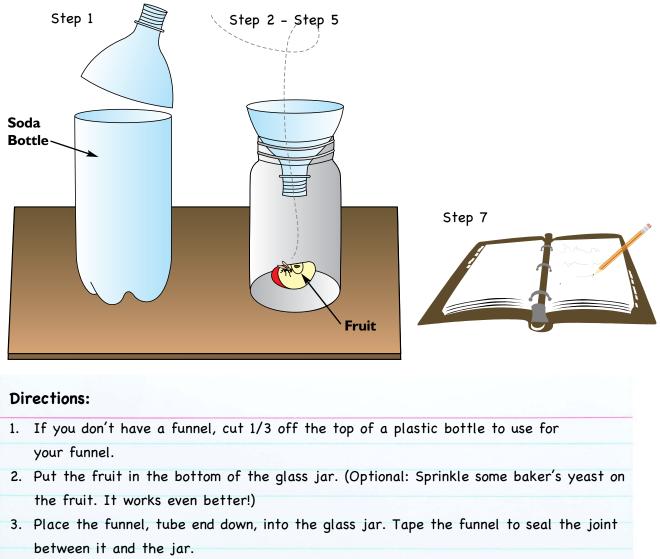
Question: How and where can you find fruit flies?

Things you need:

- Plastic drink bottle or a small funnel
- Scissors

Projects

- Masking or duct tape
- 1/2 banana or bruised and spoiled apple, pear, peach, grapes, or old fruit juice



- 4. Leave the jar out in your classroom or in your kitchen.
- 6. Using a magnifying glass, notice the color of the fruit flies' eyes.
- 7. Record observations about the flies and their behavior.

Scientific Process Elements: building a model to study a subject, observation and description, recording data and observations

Animal Life

- Glass jar
- Baker's yeast optional

- 5. Look for fruit flies in the trap over the next few days.



Page 14

11

Animal Life

Projects

Projects

Animal Hair Project

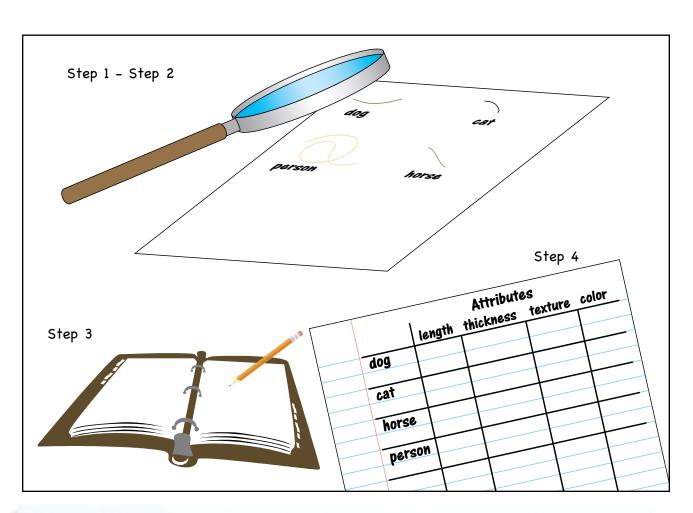
Question: Does animal hair vary with the species?

Things you need:

- Microscope or magnifying glass
- Hair samples from: people, dogs, cats, hamsters, rabbits, horses, sheep, etc.







Directions:

- 1. Never pluck hair samples from an animal. The best ways to collect samples are by brushing or combing the animal's hair or using tape to pick-up hairs an animal has shed onto furniture or floors. Label each sample.
- 2. Examine the hair specimens with the magnifying glass or microscope. Compare them for attributes such as: length, thickness, color, and texture.
- 3. Describe, or draw, your observations and comparisons.
- 4. Create a chart or table to present the data you collected (rows for the animals studied, and the columns for the attributes of their hair/fur.)

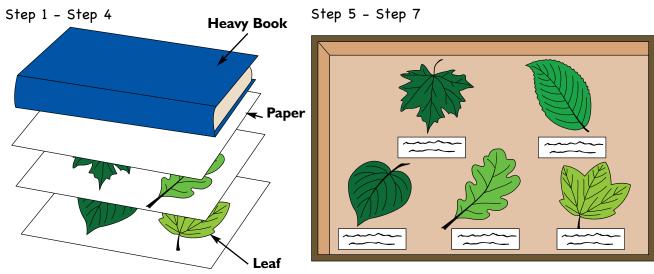
Scientific Process Elements: observation and description, collecting data, recording data and observations, analyzing data, drawing conclusions, presenting data graphically

Making a Leaf Display Project

Question: How can I preserve plant leaves to study and identify?

Things you need:

- Leaves
- Glue
- Tape
- Old newspaper or paper towels



Directions:

1.	Collect some interesting leaves from live plants, trees and shrubs.
2.	Lay the leaves out, a few at a time, on a paper towel or sheets of
	you know the name of the plant, write it down.
3.	Add another piece of newspaper and more leaves, and repeat until
	leaves between layers of paper.
4.	Place a heavy book on top of the pile and wait a few days until th
	and flat. (Some thick leaves may take longer.)
5.	When the leaves are dry, sort them according to vein patterns, col
	types, leaf surface texture, and other attributes.
6.	Arrange and glue the dried leaves to sheets of white, unlined paper
	stalks to the paper, as glue usually won't hold them.
7.	In the lower, right-hand corner of the paper, write the name of the
	the place that you collected it, and your name.
The local division in which the	

Scientific Process Elements: observation and description, collecting and recording data, analyzing data, presenting data graphically

Plant & Fungi Life

- Permanent marker
- White unlined paper
- A heavy book, or other flat weight
- Field guides to trees and plants

of old newspapers. If

you have all your

he leaves are dry

olors, leaf edge

er. Tape the leaf

he plant, the date,



See Volume 3 Page 14

13

Projects

olume I

3.2

See Volume 3

Page 17

Projects

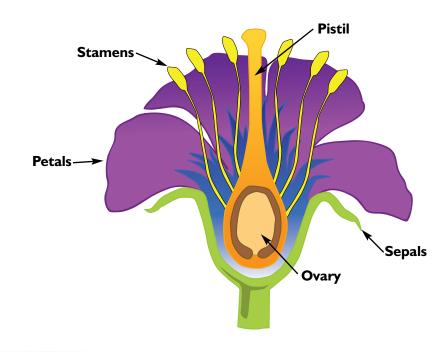
Parts of a Flower Project

Question: Can I locate and identify the parts of a flower?

Things you need:

14

- Flower blossoms (several kinds)
- Small knife or scalpel (CAUTION: Ask permission from an adult to use a knife or scalpel)
- Tweezers
- Magnifier
- Large sheet of white paper
- Notebook or journal



Directions:

- 1. Count and record the number of the greenish sepals at the base of a flower. Remove them and lay them on your work surface.
- 2. Next, count and record the colorful petals. Remove them and place them on your work surface. Compare the number of petals to the number of sepals.
- 3. You should now be able to see the thin-stemmed male stamens with little knob-like tops. Count and record the number of stamens. Remove these with tweezers and put them with the sepals and petals.
- 4. The last remaining structure at the center of the flower is the female pistil(s). Does it appear to be segmented? How many segments does it have?
- 5. Carefully, across the bottom part, find the ovary. Do you see tiny, whitish egg cells, or ovules? (Use your magnifier.) How many pistils did your flower have? Count and record.
- 6. Repeat the dissection of flower blossoms from other plants. Compare them to each other.

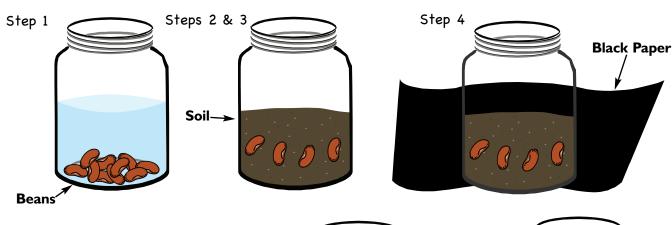
Scientific Process Elements: observation and description, demonstrating or verifying a scientific fact, collecting and recording data

Seed Germination Project

Question: What happens when a seed sprouts or germinates?

Things you need:

- Dry (uncooked) beans, corn, peas, or lentils
- Drinking glass or a wide-mouth jar







Directions:

- you notice.
- works, too).
- glass.
- Keep the jar in a warm (not hot), dark place.
- windowsill where they will have light and let them keep growing.

Scientific Process Elements: observation and description, experimenting, changing a variable in an experiment, collecting and recording data, analyzing data, drawing conclusions

Plant & Fungi Life

- Paper towels, soil or peat moss
- Black paper or cloth
- Rubber band



Page 20





1. Soak ten seeds of the same kind in water overnight and record any change that

2. Fill a glass or jar with damp soil, peat moss, or paper towels (sawdust or vermiculite

3. Place your seeds up against the inside of the glass or jar and push them down one inch (2.5 cm) into the soil or other material so that you can see them through the

4. Wrap the jar with the black paper or cloth and hold it in place with a rubber band.

5. Examine the seeds every day until they have grown roots, stems, and leaves. In a journal, record the date and then describe and draw the changes you see. 6. When the seeds have grown their leaves, you should place the container on a

Projects

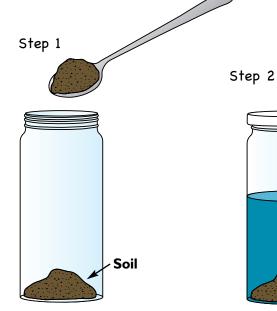


Soil Composition Project

Question: How can I find out what soil is made of?

Things you need:

- Spoon, or garden trowel
- Container of soil
- Tall and narrow jar (like the ones that olives come in)



Step 6



Directions:

- 1. Place a few spoonfuls of soil in the jar.
- 2. Fill up the jar with water, and put the cover on tightly.
- rise in a layer on top.
- 5. Mark the side of the jar showing the thickness of each layer of materials.
- your observations.

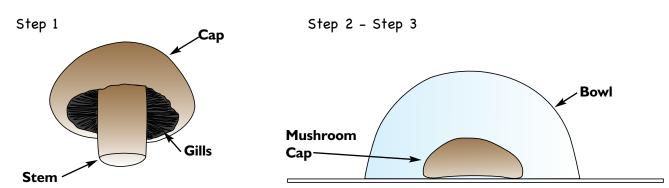
6. Examine each of the layers of soil materials with your magnifier and record Scientific Process Elements: building a model to understand how something works, observation and description, demonstrating or verifying a scientific fact, recording data and observations, drawing conclusions



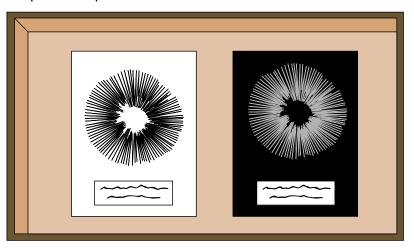
Question: Do mushrooms spores all look the same?

Things you need:

- Different kinds of mushrooms from the grocery store
- Paper: white, black (aluminum foil works, too)
- Bowl or jar that fits over a mushroom cap



Step 4 - Step 5



Directions:

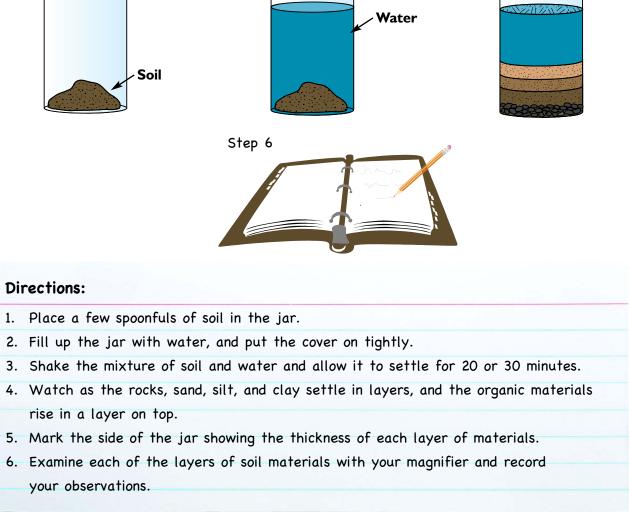
- 1. Select a mushroom with a fully formed cap, and detach its stem.
- 2. Place the cap, gills down, on a piece of paper. Use the white paper if the gills are dark, and the black paper if the gills are light.
- 3. Cover the mushroom cap with a bowl, and leave it undisturbed overnight.
- 4. Next day, carefully remove the cover, pick up the mushroom cap gently, and you should see a pattern on the paper. This is the spore print! Don't smudge it.
- 5. Compare the prints then cover the spore print with clear plastic wrap to preserve it. It will last for many years.

Scientific Process Elements: observation and description, demonstrating or verifying a scientific fact, presenting data graphically

Earth Science

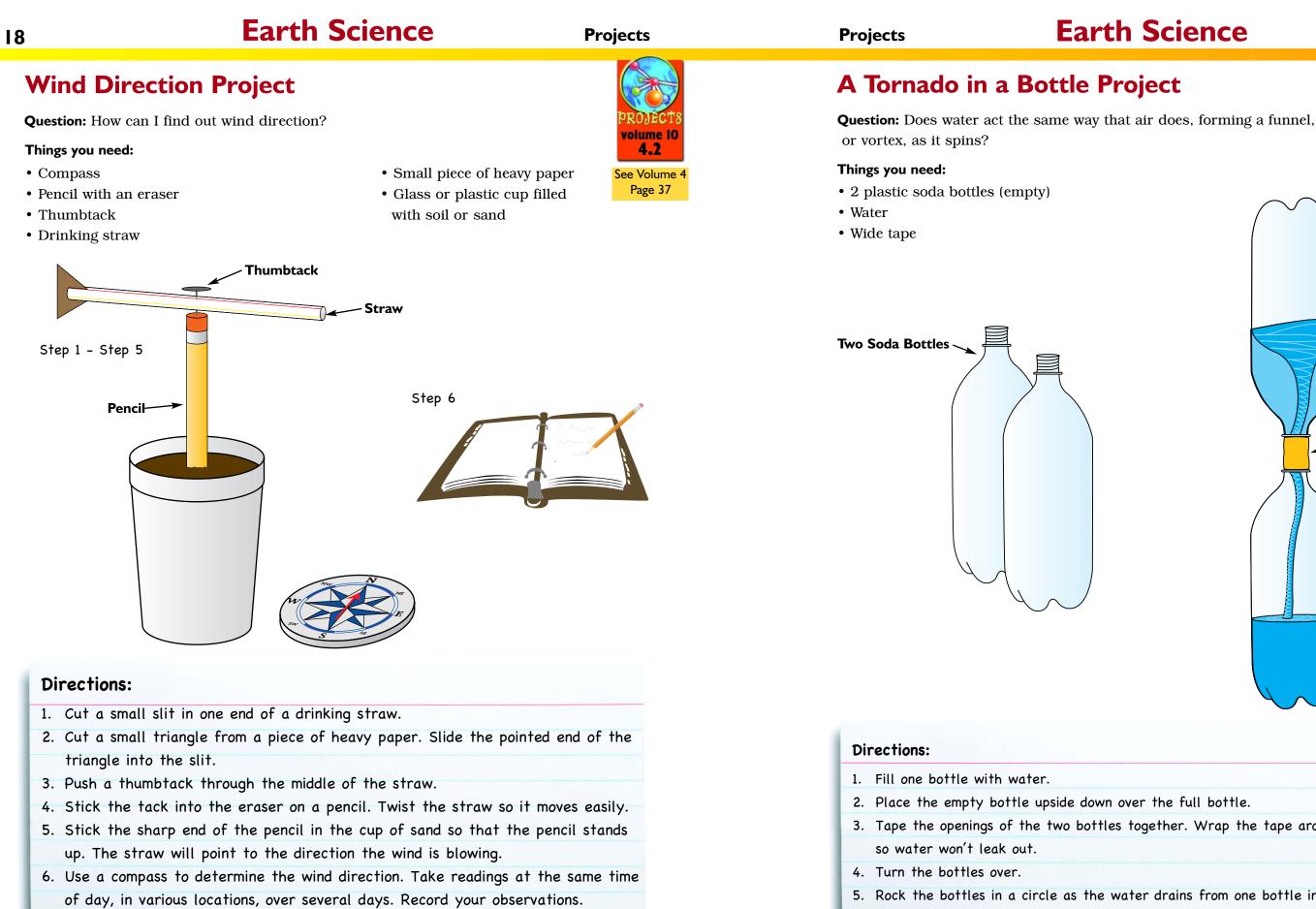
- Hand lens magnifier
- Water
- Permanent black marker

Step 3 - Step 5





Page 16



Scientific Process Elements: building a model to understand how something works, collecting data, recording data and observations, drawing conclusions, presenting data

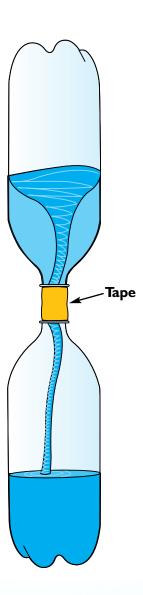
a variable, observation and description, drawing conclusions

Earth Science









3. Tape the openings of the two bottles together. Wrap the tape around several times

5. Rock the bottles in a circle as the water drains from one bottle into the other. 6. Watch the tornado-like water funnel that forms.

Scientific Process Elements: building a model to understand how something works, changing

Earth Science

of water

bottle on

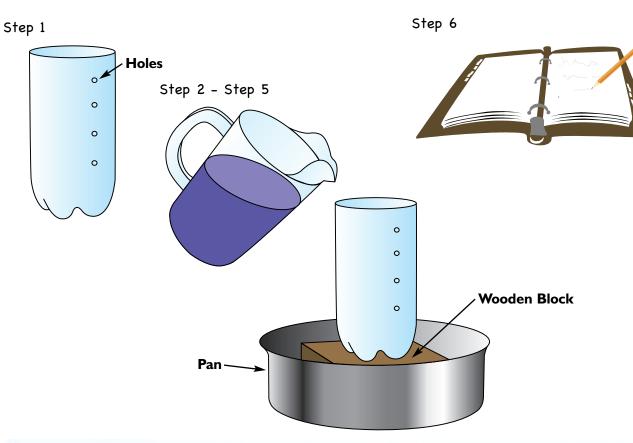
• A block of wood large enough to set the

Water Power and Pressure Project

Question: What relationship is there between the depth of water and the force it exerts?

Things you need:

- One-liter soda bottle with its tapered top part A pan large enough to hold a liter cut off
- Colored Water
- A nail



Directions:

- 1. With the nail, carefully puncture one side of the bottle at four different levels.
- 2. Place the bottle in the pan on the wooden block.
- 3. Cover (seal) the punctures with your fingers while a helper fills the soda bottle with colored water.
- 4. Release all your fingers at the same time.
- 5. Watch the water spurting out of each of the holes. Notice the distance each arc of water reaches.
- 6. Record your observations.

Scientific Process Elements: building a model to understand how something works, observation and description, recording data, demonstrating or verifying a scientific fact, drawing conclusions

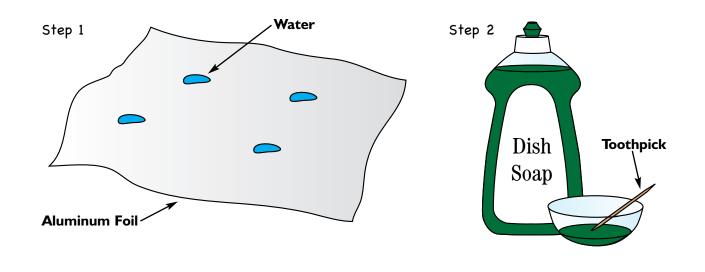
Surface Tension Project

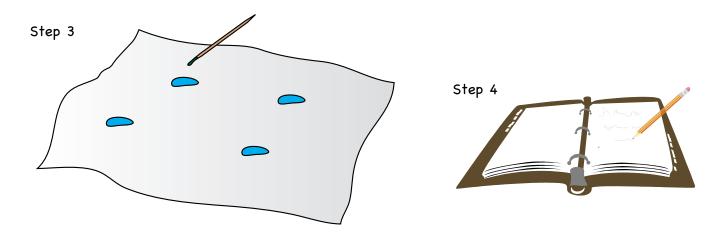
Question: Why do we use soap with water to wash dishes?

Things you need:

- 8-inch square of aluminum foil
- Water

Projects





Directions:

- foil sheet. Notice how they appear and behave as they move.
- 2. Dip the toothpick in the liquid soap.
- 3. Touch the end of the toothpick to one of the drops of water.
- 4. Record your observation and your conclusion.

observations, drawing conclusions



olume I

4.4

See Volume 4

Page 48

Projects





Page 30

- Teaspoon of liquid soap in a bottle top or small dish
- Toothpick or cotton swab

1. Place several drops of water on the square of foil. Move them around by tipping the

Chemistry

Projects

olume 5.2

See Volume 5

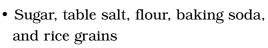
Page 37

Making a Solution Project

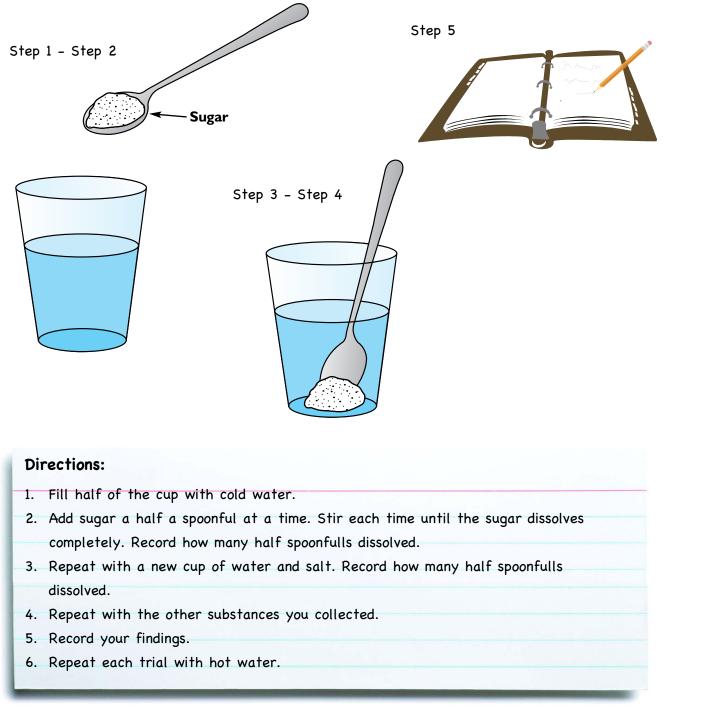
Question: What kinds of things dissolve in water?

Things you need:

- Glass or plastic cup
- Water at room temperature



• Small spoon or a half spoon measure

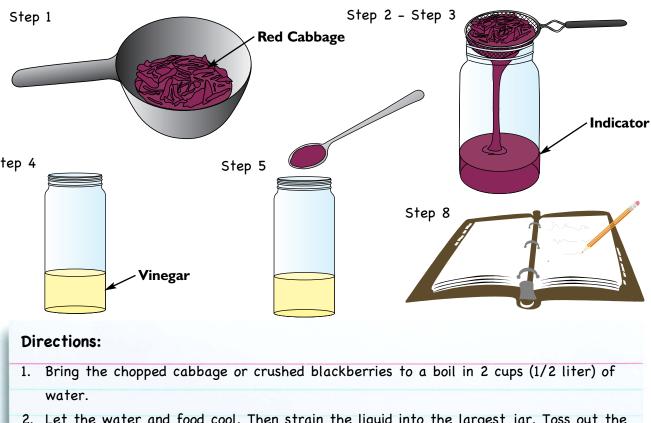


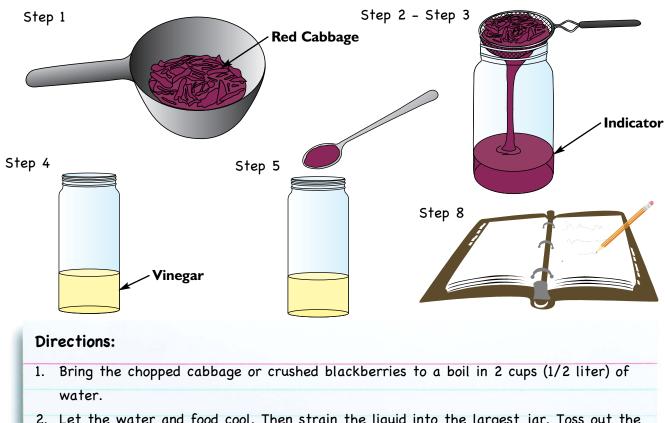
Scientific Process Elements: observation and description, demonstrating or verifying a scientific fact, collecting data, recording data and observations, changing a variable, drawing conclusions

Acid or Base Project

Things you need:

- Chunk of red cabbage, chopped into pieces, or 10 blackberries, crushed
- Bottled water
- Knife and chopping board
- Small cooking pot and stove
- Strainer





2. Let the water and food cool. Then strain the liquid into the largest jar. Toss out the remaining food in the strainer. 3. The liquid indicator should be dark red or purple. 4. Put a small amount of a substance you want to test into a clean jar. (If it is a powder, place some on a piece of aluminum foil or a dish.) 5. Carefully add a teaspoon of the indicator you made. 6. Note the color change. The indicator will turn red in the presence of an acid, and green in the presence of a base. 7. Repeat for all the substances you gathered. 8. Make a list of the substances that were acidic and the ones that were basic, and the neutral ones in between.

Scientific Process Elements: experimenting or testing, demonstrating or verifying a scientific fact, changing a variable, collecting data, recording data and observations



Question: What common liquids and powders are acidic and which ones are basic?

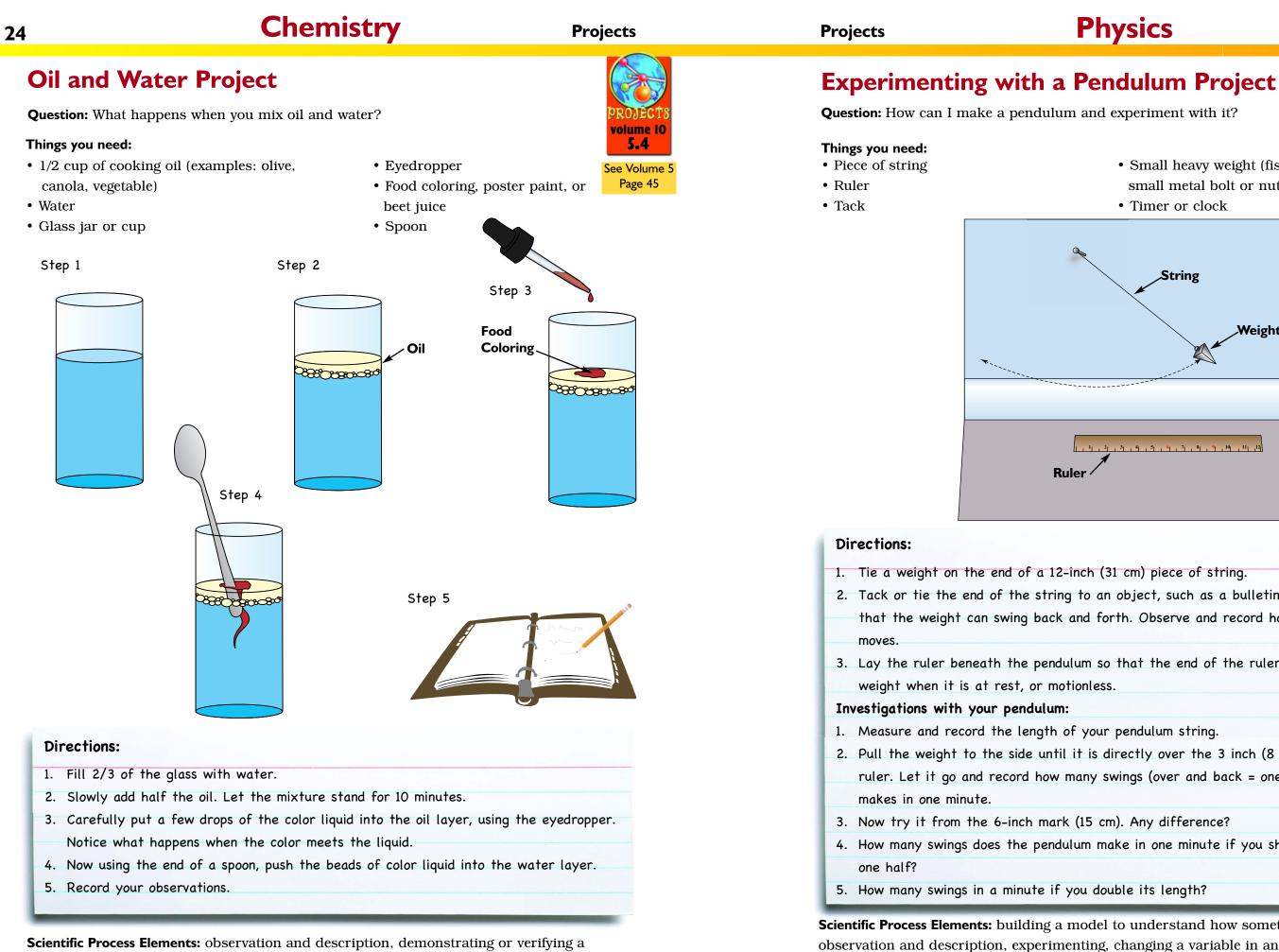
• 3–5 jars

• Collection of substances to test: (examples: vinegar, tap water, baking soda, table salt, sugar, dishwashing soap, ginger ale or any colorless soda, lemon, apple, or orange juice)



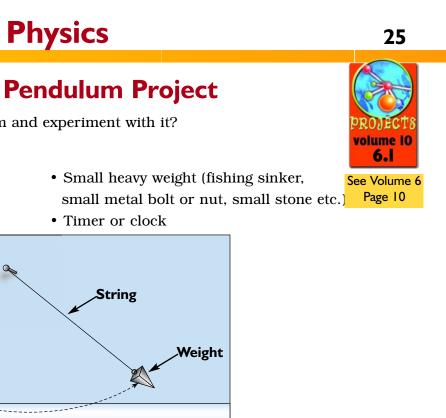
See Volume 5 Page 42

23



scientific fact, recording data, drawing conclusions

Scientific Process Elements: building a model to understand how something works, observation and description, experimenting, changing a variable in an experiment, collecting and recording data, analyzing data, drawing conclusions



3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11

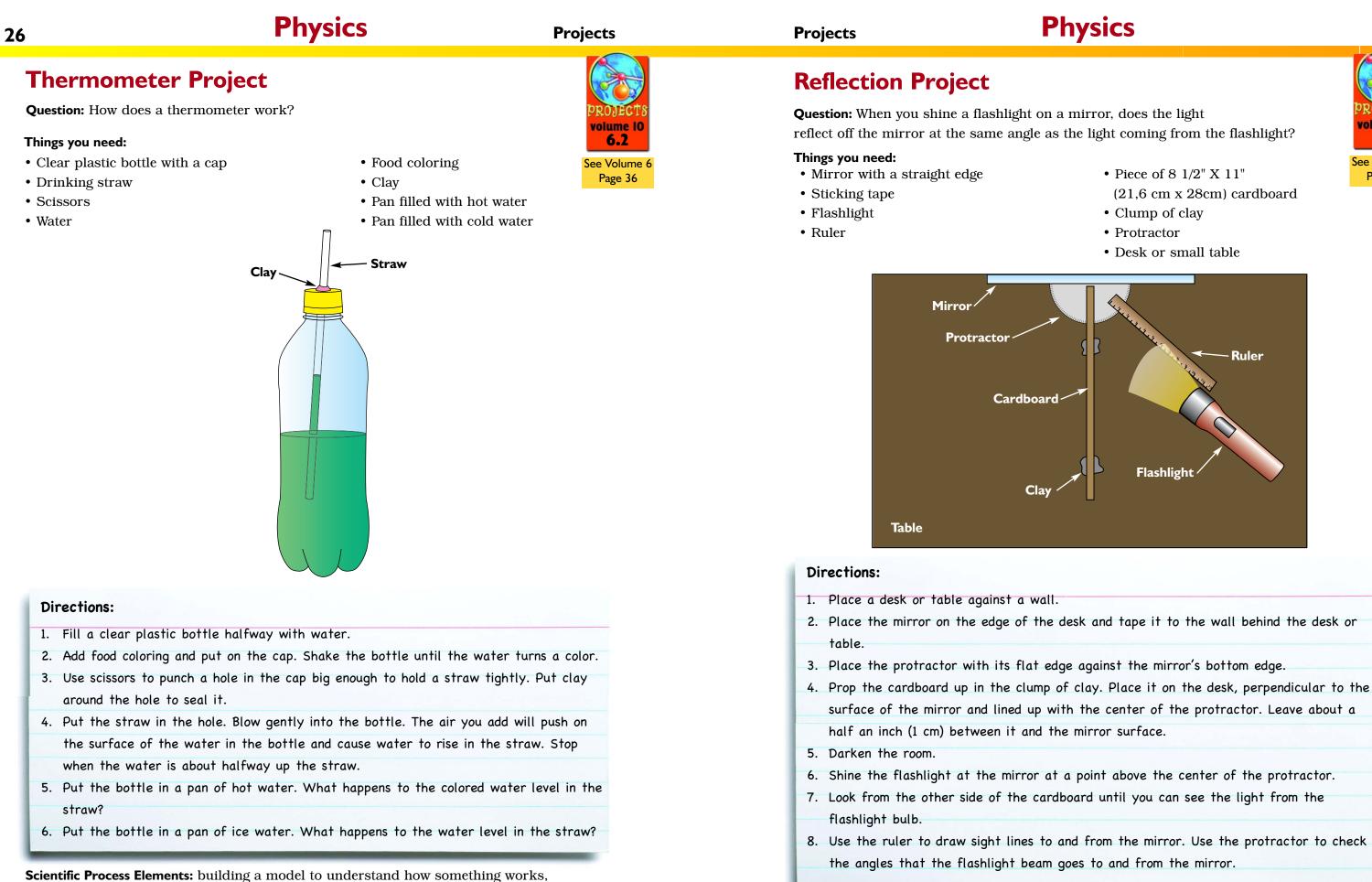
Rule

2. Tack or tie the end of the string to an object, such as a bulletin board or a handle so that the weight can swing back and forth. Observe and record how your pendulum

3. Lay the ruler beneath the pendulum so that the end of the ruler is directly under the

2. Pull the weight to the side until it is directly over the 3 inch (8 cm) mark on the ruler. Let it go and record how many swings (over and back = one swing) the pendulum

```
4. How many swings does the pendulum make in one minute if you shorten the string by
```

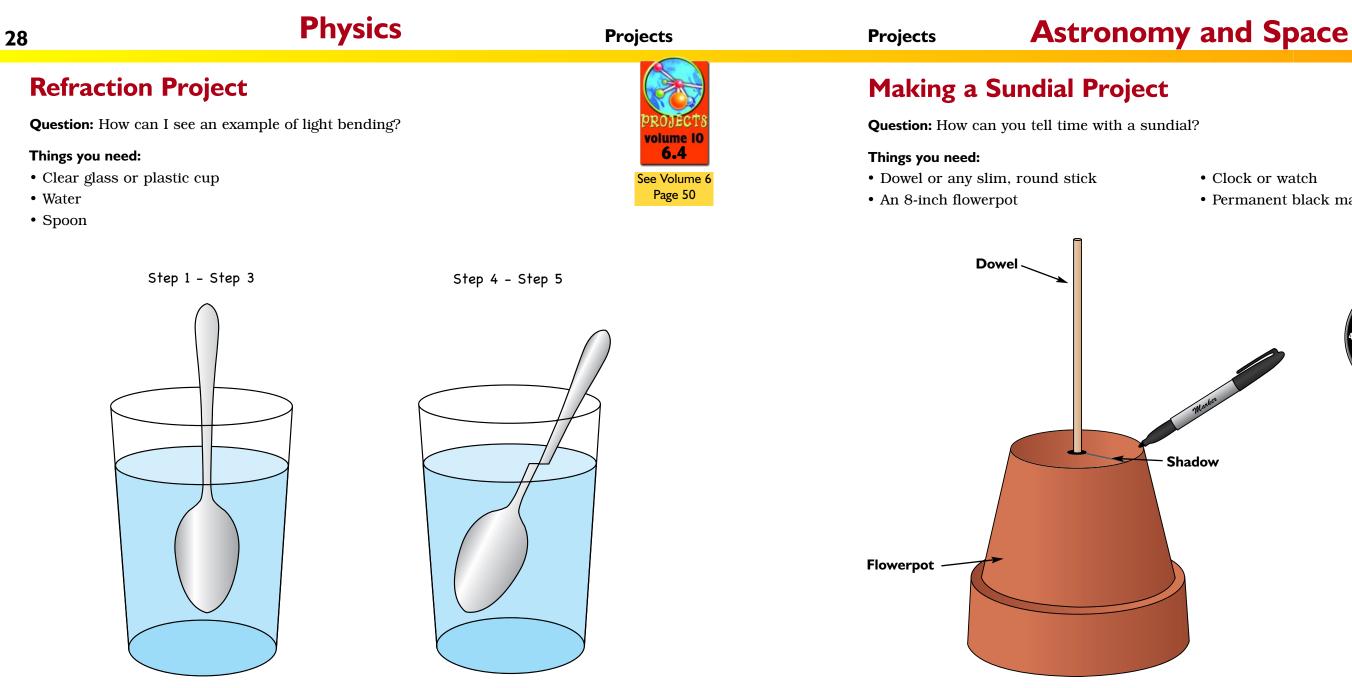


observation and description, experimenting or testing, changing a variable in an experiment, demonstrating or verifying a scientific fact, recording data and observations, drawing conclusions

scientific fact, drawing conclusions



See Volume 6 Page 48



Directions:

- 1. Select a site that is sunny all day long.
- 2. Turn the flowerpot upside down.
- 3. Place the stick inside the hole and into the ground beneath.
- shadow hits the edge of the pot bottom with a black mark. Write the hour at each mark.
- flowerpot, or the times won't be correct anymore.

Scientific Process Elements: building a model to understand how something works, observation and description, demonstrating or verifying a scientific fact, collecting and recording data, drawing conclusions

Directions:

- 1. Fill a cup 2/3 full of water.
- 2. Put a spoon into the cup and hold it up straight.
- 3. Hold the cup at eye level and look at it.
- 4. Move the spoon so it is at an angle.
- 5. Observe the change. The two halves of the spoon do not line up.

Scientific Process Elements: observation and description, demonstrating or verifying a scientific fact, recording data and observations

- Clock or watch
- Permanent black marker

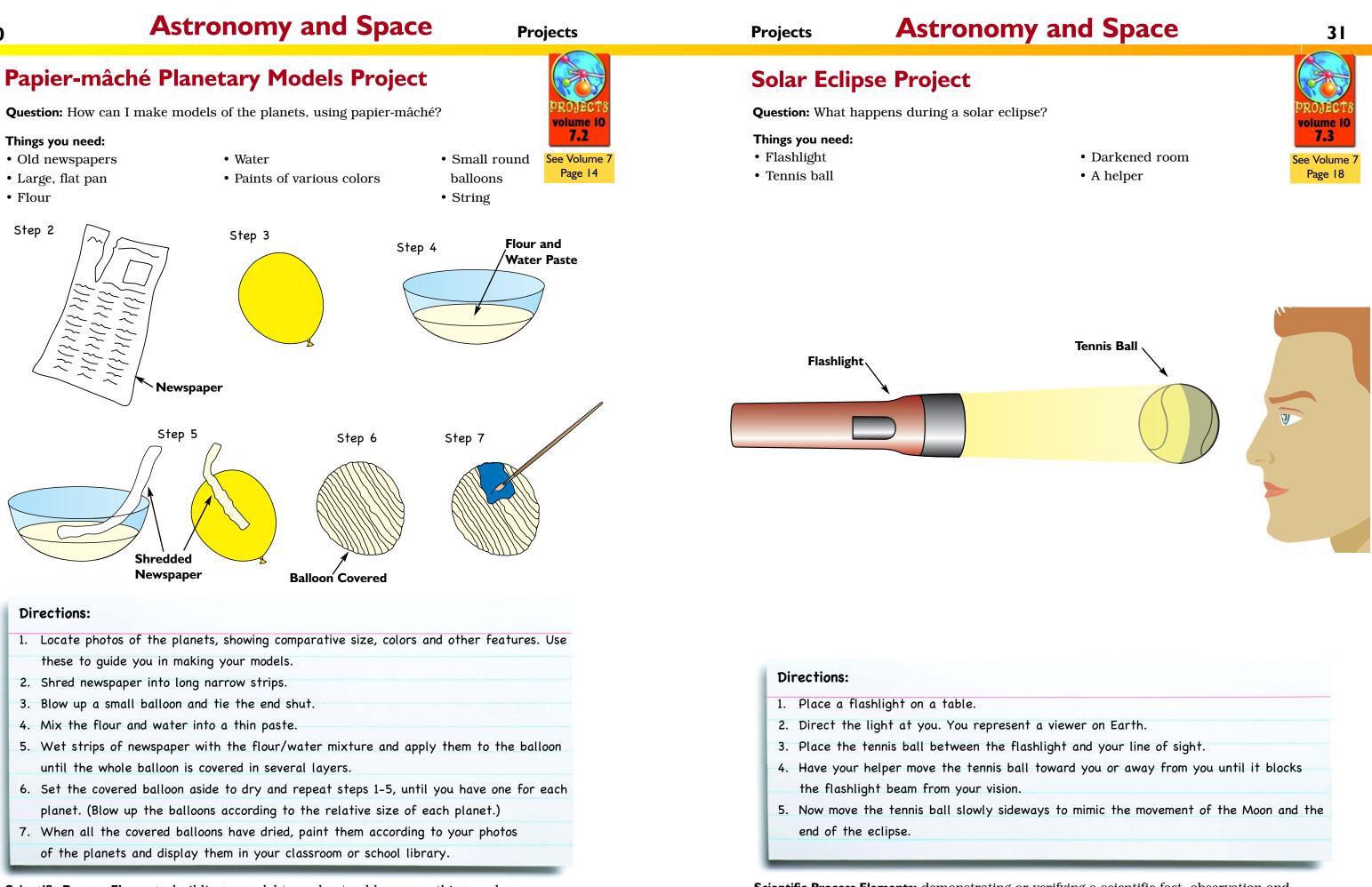


See Volume 7 Page 11



4. In a period of time, from dawn to dusk, and at the top of each hour, mark where the

5. On sunny days, use the sundial to tell the time. Make sure you don't move the



Scientific Process Elements: building a model to understand how something works, demonstrating or verifying a scientific fact, presenting data graphically

description, drawing conclusions



Astronomy and Space

Projects

Seed Germination:

Finding the North Star Project

Question: How do I find and identify the North Star?

Things you need:

32

- Clear night, away from street and city lights • Compass
- Constellation guide (school library or Internet)



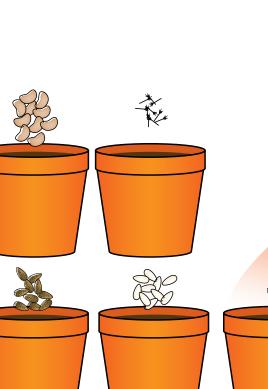
Directions:

- 1. Find a spot without too many electric lights, on a moonless night.
- 2. Look up into the northern sky. (Use the compass to locate the northern direction.)
- 3. See if you can identify a group of stars that is shaped like a big dipper.
- 4. Follow an imaginary line up from the two stars at the end of the Big Dipper's cup.
- 5. The first brightest star that you find is Polaris.

Scientific Process Elements: observation and description, demonstrating or verifying a scientific fact, recording data and observations







Directions:

- For each kind of seed:
- 1. Count the number of seeds out of 10 that fully sprouted after 6 days.

Scientific Process Elements: collecting data, analyzing data

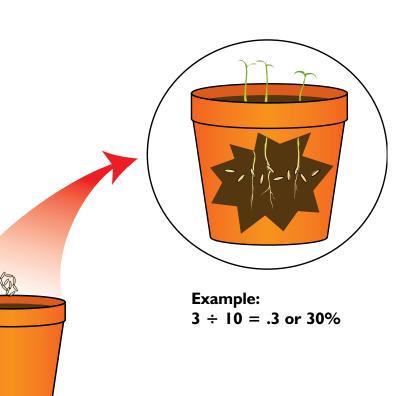
Mathematics

Analyzing Data: Seed Germinating Project

Question: What percent of the seeds germinated in the investigation?

Repeat the seed germination investigation (page 15) with 5 different kinds of seeds. Record the number of seeds (in each set of 10) that fully germinate (develop roots, stems, and small leaves).

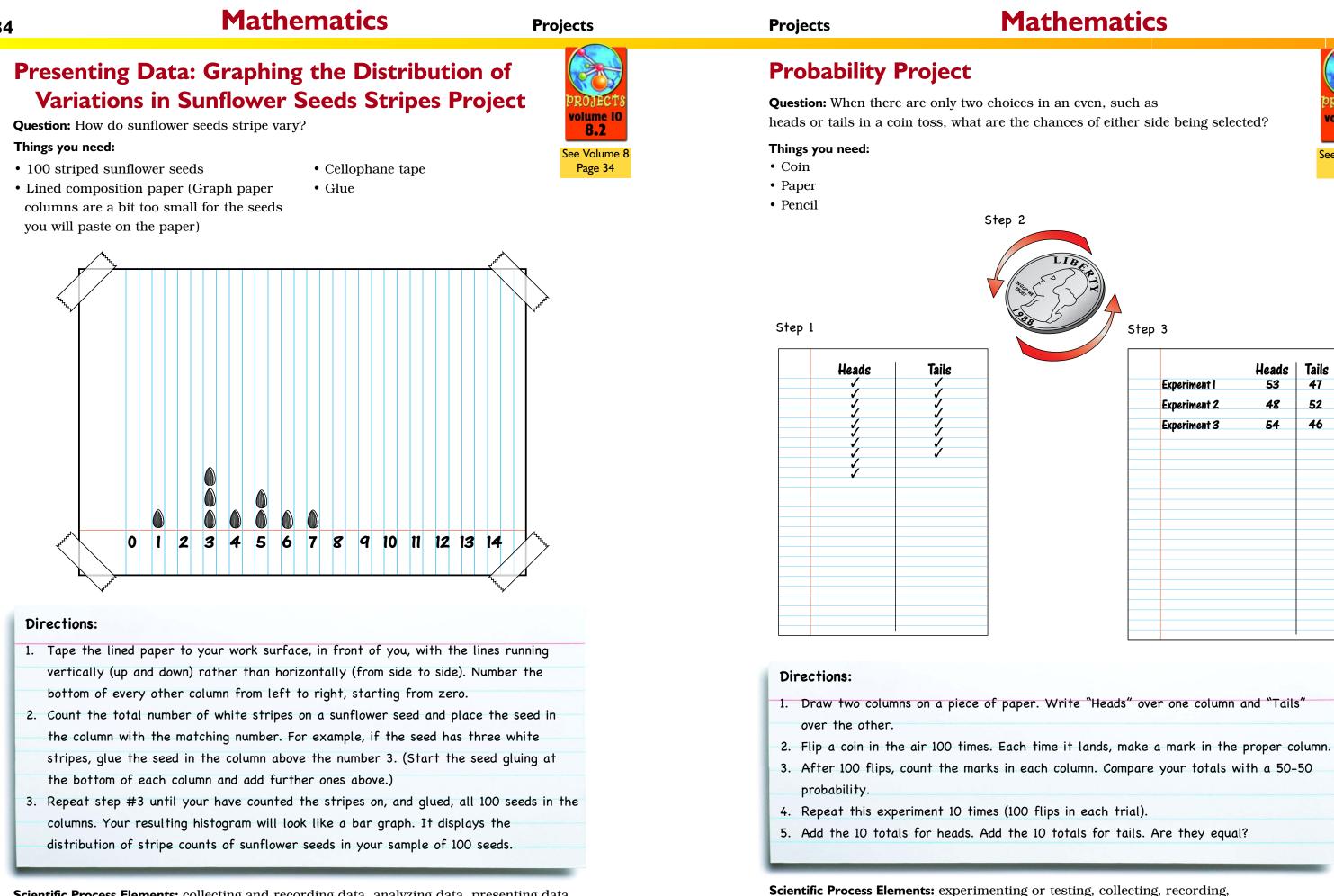
2. Divide the number of seeds that sprouted by the number of seeds you planted. If 5 seeds sprouted, divide 5 by 10. The answer (.50) can be expressed as 50 percent. 3. Use a calculator to find the percent of germination for each batch of seeds.





33

See Volume 8 Page 19



Scientific Process Elements: collecting and recording data, analyzing data, presenting data graphically

34

Mathematics





Step 3

	Heads	Tails
Experiment 1	53	47
Experiment 2	48	52
Experiment 3	54	46

and analyzing data

Mathematics

Presenting Data: Graphing the Pendulum Project

Question: How can I show the data from the Pendulum Investigation (page 25) in a graph?

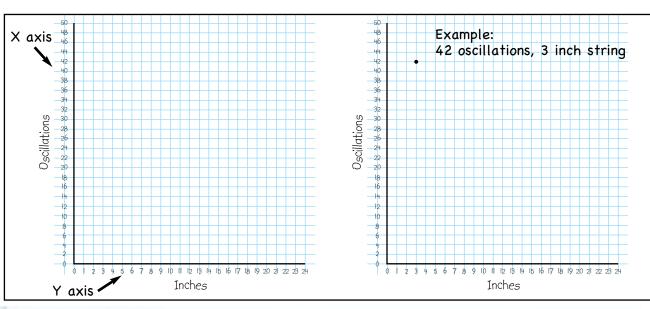
Things you need:

36

- Graph paper and pencil
- Data collected from the following pendulum investigations:
- Number of swings (over and back = one swing) the 12-inch (30 cm) string pendulum makes in one minute from a

3-inch (8 cm) starting point

- Same data using a 6-inch (15 cm) string pendulum from the 3-inch (8 cm) starting point
- Same data using an 18-inch (46 cm) string
- Same data using a 24-inch (61 cm) string



Directions:

- 1. Draw a vertical line up the left hand side of the graph paper for the X axis and a horizontal line across the bottom for the Y axis.
- 2. Number the X axis of the graph paper in even digits from 1-50. These numbers represent the number of swings, or oscillations, of the pendulums.
- 3. Label the Y axis with units of length. These numbers represent the differing lengths of the pendulum string. Label the lines from 1 to 24 inches (1 to 61 cm).
- 4. On each of the lines for a given length pendulum, place a dot on the horizontal line to indicate the number of oscillations you counted for that length. When you have entered all the data, connect the dots in a line from left to right.
- 5. Label or name your graph: The label tells what the graph shows.
- 6. Write your conclusion by answering this question: How does the length of a pendulum string affect the number of swings per minute?

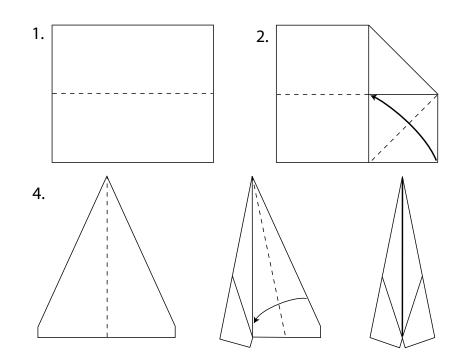
Scientific Process Elements: collecting and recording data, analyzing data, presenting data graphically, drawing conclusions

Making a Glider Project

Question: What is a good wing shape for a glider?

Things you need:

- Rectangular pieces of paper
- Paper clips



Directions:

- 1. Fold a piece of paper in half lengthw
- 2. Fold the two corners of the paper a
- 3. Fold the two corners at the top dow
- 4. Turn the paper over. Fold back wings
- 5. Place a paper clip at the nose of you
- 6. Throw your glider forward into the a
- 7. For each set of 5 trials or test fligh
- number of paper clips, change the fo
- change where you fly the planes in
- 8. Record your observations.

Scientific Process Elements: building a model to understand how something works, observation and description, collecting and recording data, changing a variable in an experiment, analyzing



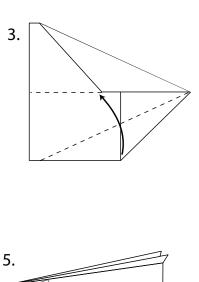
See Volume 8

Page 42

Projects

Technology





vise. Open it again.
t the top down to the center crease.
n to the center crease again.
s on both sides.
ur paper glider to hold the folds together.
air. Measure how far it travels. Repeat 5 times.
ts, change one variable: change the position or
olding patterns to get a different wing shape,
ndoors or out of doors.

Technology

Projects

Making a Rheostat Project

Question: How does a rheostat work?

Things you need:

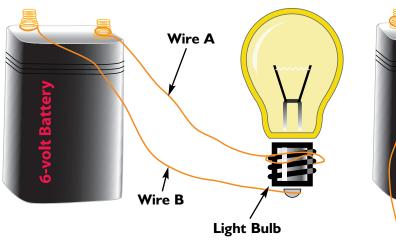
- 6-volt battery
- 3 light copper wires or leads, each about 4 inches long
- Flashlight bulb in a base or holder
- Wooden pencil

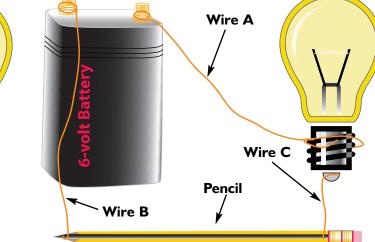


Page 26



Things you need: • Magnifying glass • Convex lens from a discarded disposable camera or a field biology lens





Directions:

- 1. Split a pencil in half, lengthwise, revealing the length of the pencil lead. The pencil lead is made of graphite, a form of carbon.
- 2. Create an open circuit as shown in the diagram:
- Attach one copper wire, A, to the positive terminal of the battery.
- Attach another copper wire, B, to the negative terminal of the battery.
- Fix the end of wire A to one of the flashlight bulb fixture's screws.
- Attach wire B to the contact point at the bottom of the light bulb screw.
- 3. Check if electricity flows in the circuit by connecting the ends of wires A and C. If the circuit is complete, the bulb will glow.
- 4. Now move wire B from the flashlight bulb contact point to the tip of the pencil lead. Attach one end of a third wire, wire C, to the flashlight bulb contact point. Attach the other end of wire C to the pencil lead near the eraser. Slide one wire at the tip and slide the other along the lead from the eraser end toward the tip.
- 5. Notice what happens to the light bulb's glow.
- 6. Try other pieces of materials in the circuit in place of the pencil lead. Try both metallic and non-metallic materials.

Scientific Process Elements: building a model to understand how something works, demonstrating or verifying a scientific fact, experimenting or testing, observation and description, changing a variable in an experiment, drawing conclusions

Directions:

- 1. Place the object on a sheet of white paper.
- 2. Hold the magnifying lens close to your eye.
- 3. Hold the other lens over the object.
- the object and presents the clearest view of it or brings it into focus.

Scientific Process Elements: building a model to understand how something works, experimenting or testing, observation and description

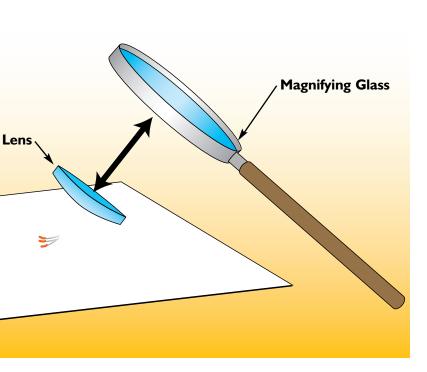
Technology

Making a Microscope Project

Question: Will a very simple model of a microscope work?



- Small object, such as a plant stamen See Volume 9 Page 31 or a hair, to examine
 - Sheet of white paper



4. Adjust the distance between the two lenses until you find the distance that enlarges

Technology

Projects

olume I(9.4

See Volume 9

Page 50

abdomen (AB-duh-men): the part of the body containing the stomach and intestines**absorb** (ab-SORB): to soak up liquid**action force** (AKT-shuhn, forss): the force that is acting on something, for example someone pulling on a rope

activist (AC-tiv-ist): a person who speaks or shows support for a causeacute (uh-kyoot): able to detect things easilyadaptation (ad-ap-TAY-shuhn): a change that a living thing goes through, so that it fits better into its environment

agar (AH-ger): a jelly-like substance produced by some algae
agriculture (AG-ruh-kul-chur): farming
amino acids (uh-meen-o ASS-ids): chemical compounds with which the body builds protein

amplitude (AM-pluh-tood): how tall waves are **ancient** (AYN-shunt): very old

antennae (an-TEN-uh): a feeler on the head of an insect
anther (ANN-thur): the male flower structure that produces pollen cells
antibiotic (an-ti-bye-OT-ik): a drug that kills bacteria
asexual (ay-SEX-you-uhl): reproduction without eggs and sperm
atmosphere (AT-muhss-fihr): the mixture of gasses that surround a planet
atom (AT-uhm): very small part of an element
auxin (AUX-in): plant substance that may speed up or slow down growth
axis (AK-siss): the imaginary line going through the middle of a planet or other object that it rotates around; a line at the side or bottom of a graph

- **axon** (AK-sohn): the usually long part the nerve cell body
- **bacteria** (bak-TIHR-ee-uh): microscop inside you

band (band): a narrow ring of material that goes around something
batch (bach): a group of things that arrive together or are made together
bay (bay): a portion of the ocean that is partly enclosed by land
botanist (BOT-uhn-ist): one who studies plants
by-product (bye-PROD-uhkt): something left over when another thing is produced
canyon (KAN-yuhn): a narrow, deep river valley with steep sides
capillary (KAP-uh-ler-ee): the smallest blood vessels in your body
carbohydrate (kar-boh-HYE-drait): a food substance produced by the plant process called photosynthesis

carbon dioxide (KAR-buhn dye-OK-side): a gaseous chemical compound of oxygen and carbon

carnivorous (kar-NIV-uhr-uhss): meat eating
cartilage (KAR-tuh-lij): a strong, elastic, fibrous tissue
cavity (KAV-uh-tee): a hole or hollow space in something solid
cell (sel): a basic, microscopic part of an animal or a plant
cellular (SEL-yuh-lur): made of or to do with cells
centrifugal force (sen-TRIF-yuh-guhl, forss): a force that pushes you away from the center

centripetal force (sen-TRIP-uh-tuhl, forss): a force that pulls you toward the center **chain reaction** (chayn, ree-AK-shuhn): when a change keeps happening over and

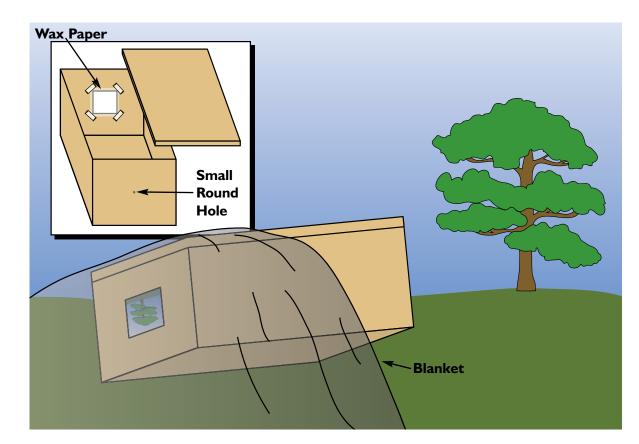
Making a Camera Project

Question: How can I show how an image forms in a pinhole camera?

Things you need:

- Shoebox or columnar oatmeal box
- Round toothpick or knitting needle
- Scissors

- Wax paperTape
- Blanket



Directions:

- 1. Poke a small, round hole in one end of the box. Cut a larger square in the other end (about 3 inches or 8 cm square).
- 2. Inside the box, tape a piece of wax paper over the square hole. Put the lid back on the box.
- 3. Cover your head and the box with a blanket. Allow only the pinhole in the box to stick out from underneath.
- 4. Point the `camera' at something bright and colorful. Look at the square for the upside-down image.
- 5. Try using your camera outside in the sunlight. Record your observations. Remember, never look directly at the Sun.

Scientific Process Elements: building a model to understand how something works, observation and description, experimenting or testing, collecting and recording data

axon (AK-sohn): the usually long part of a nerve fiber that carries signals away from

bacteria (bak-TIHR-ee-uh): microscopic living things that exist all around you and

4Z Glossary	Glossary
over again until it is controlled	diatom (DYE-uh-tahm): one-celled algae
chemistry (KEM-is-tree): the scientific study of substances	digit (DIJ-it): any Arabic numerals from
chlorophyll (KLOR-uh-fill): a green pigment used by plants to absorb sunlight	dimension (duh-MEN-shuhn): the dimen
energy during photosynthesis	its length, width, and height
chloroplast (KLOR-uh-plast): a plant cell structure that contains the green pigment,	distance (DISS-tuhnss): the amount of s
chlorophyll	domesticate (duh-MESS-tuh-kate): to ta
chromosome (KROH-muh-sohm): the part of the cell that contains the genes that	by humans
gives living things their characteristics	donor (DOH-nur): someone who gives so
chrysalis (KRISS-uh-liss): a butterfly at the stage of development between a	drag (drag): slowing something down
caterpillar and an adult	electromagnet (i-lek-tro-MAG-nit): a ma
circuit (SUR-kit): a group of electronic parts that are connected and make a circle	electromagnetic force (i-lek-tro-mag-NE
circulation (sur-kyuh-LAY-shun): the movement of blood in blood vessels through	magnetic forces that attract (push towa
the body	electromagnetic spectrum (i-lek-tro-ma
climate (KLYE-mit): the usual weather in a place	energy that travel as a wave
clot (klot): a solidified clump of blood cells and plasma	electron (i-LEK-tron): a particle that mo
colon (KOH-luhn): the last half of the large intestine	an atom
combine (kuhm-BINE): to join or mix two things together	ellipse (i-LIPS): an oval shape
commercial (kuh-MUR-shuhl): transporting passengers or cargo for profit	elliptical (i-LIP-tik-uhl): having an oval s
complete (kom-PLEET): all the parts needed or wanted	emit (i-MIT): to release or give off
complex (KOM-pleks): having a large number of parts	endangered (en-DAYN-jurd): put in a dat
component (kuhm-POH-nuhnt): a part of a system	energy (EN-ur-jee): the ability to do worl
composite (kom-POZ-it): made up of many parts from different sources	engineer (en-juh-NIHR): someone who is
composition (kom-puh-ZISH-uhn): combining of parts to form a whole	environment (en-VYE-ruhn-muhnt): the
compress (kuhm-PRESS): to press or squeeze something until it is smaller conduction (kuhn-DUHKT-shuhn): how heat moves through solids	enzyme (EN-zime): a chemical that caus living things
conductor (kuhn-DUK-tur): matter that allows heat to pass through it	8 8
conservation of energy (kon-sur-VAY-shuhn, EN-ur-jee): energy can be changed into	equation (i-KWAY-zhuhn): a mathematica values is equal to another set of values
another form, but cannot be created or destroyed	equator (i-KWAY-tur): an imaginary line
continent (KON-tuh-nuhnt): one of the seven large land masses of the Earth	erode (i-RODE): to wear away by water a
contract (kuhn-TRAKT): to get smaller	escape velocity (ess-KAPE, vuh-LOSS-u
control (kuhn-TROHL): to make something or someone do what you want	leave the Earth's gravity
convection (kuhn-VEK-shuhn): how heat moves through liquids and gases	ethanol (EH-than-all): an alcohol produc
cramp (kramp): pain caused by a muscle tightening suddenly	evergreen (EV-ur-green): a shrub or tree
culinary (KUH-lin-airy): having to do with cooking foods	evolution (ev-uh-LOO-shuhn): the gradu
culture (KUHL-chur): a growing population of an organism in a lab dish	of years
deciduous (di-SIJ-you-uhss): trees that shed their leaves every year	evolve (i-VOLV): to change slowly
decomposer (dee-cahm-POZ-er): an organism, such as a fungus, that digests dead	examine (eg-zam-uhn): to look carefully
material and absorbs nutrients to live	experiment (ek-SPER-uh-ment): a scient
deficient (di-FISH-uhnt): lacking something necessary	effect of something
dense (DENSS): crowded, or thick	expose (ek-SPOZE): to come in contact w
desert (DES-urt): a dry, often sandy area where hardly any plants grow because	extinct (ex-STINGKT): when a type of pl
there is so little rain	fatal (FAY-tuhl): causing death
diagnose (dye-ugh-NOHSS): to determine what disease a patient has or what	feces (FE-seez): excrement from bowels
physical or mental problem	fermentation (fur-men-TAY-shun): a cher
diameter (dye-AM-uh-tur): a line going straight through the center of a circle, from	fungi to digest sugars

Glossary

42

Glossary

ae that have shells of silica om 1 to 9, and sometimes 0 nensions of an object are the measurements of

of space from one place to another tame something so it can live with or be used

something

magnet made by an electric current NET-ik, forss): a combination of electrical and wards) or repel (push away) mag-NET-ik, SPEK-truhm): all the forms of

moves around the nucleus (center part) of

l shape

dangerous situation; threatened ork

b is trained to design and build structures he natural world of the land, sea, and air susses chemical reactions to occur in

tical statement that one set of numbers or nes or numbers ne around the middle of the Earth er and wind S-uh-tee): how fast something needs to travel to

luced by yeasts from the fermentation of sugar ree that has green leaves throughout the year idual change of living things over thousands

lly at entific test to try out a theory or to see the

ct with a disease organism plant or animal has died out

els hemical process used by some bacteria and

e joining, or union of and egg and a sperm cell

fertilize (FUR-tuh-lize): to begin reproduction in an egg by causin	ng sperm to join	about the cause or outcome of an ever
with the egg		ice cap (eyess kap): a mound of ice that
fertilizer (FUR-tuh-lize-ur): a substance, such as animal manure	, compost, or a	inactive (in-AK-tiv): a volcano that is no
chemical that promotes plant growth		incision (in-SIZH-uhn): the act of cuttin
fetus (FEE-tuhss): a baby or an animal before it is born, at the s	tage when it is	incisor (in-SIZH-ur): a front cutting too
developing in its mother's womb		incomplete (inn-cuhm-PLEET): not fini
fission (FISH-uhn): when an atom is split into two smaller atoms		inertia (in-UR-shuh): an object at rest v
flood plain (fluhd plane): an area of low land near a stream or r	iver that	stay in motion, unless acted on by an
easily floods		infection (in-FEK-shuhn): an illness cau
foliage (FOH-lee-ij): the leaves of a plant		inflatable (in-FLEY-tuh-buhl): an object
force (forss): any action that changes the shape or movement of a	an object	inherit (in-HER-it): passed down throug
frequency (FREE-kwuhn-see): the number of times something m	noves in a second	insulation (in-suh-LA-shuhn): material
friction (FRIK-shuhn): when things rub against each other, it cau slow down	uses them to	insulator (IN-suh-late-ur): a covering wind from escaping
frond (frahnd): the green leaf-like part of a fern		internal (in-TUR-nuhl): inside the body
fuel (FYOO-uhl): something that is used as a source of heat or en	nergy, such as coal,	International System of Units (in-tur-N
wood, gasoline, or natural gas		standard way of measuring something
fuse (fyooz): a device that stops electricity flowing when there is t	too much current	involuntary (in-VOL-uhn-ter-ee): done v
fusion (FYOO-zhuhn): when parts of two atoms join together to r	nake a new atom	irreparable (ihr-REP-er-uh-buhl): not al
gamete (gam-EET): the male (sperm) or female (egg) reproductiv	re cell of an	kinetic energy (ki-NET-ik, EN-ur-jee): e
organism		landscape (LAND-skape): a large area o
gel (gehl): a thick, jelly-like substance		larvae (LAR-vee): insects at the stage of
generation (jun-uh-RAY-shuhn): the time between the birth of pa	rents and the birth	when it looks like a worm
of their offspring		larynx (LA-ringks): the upper part of th
genetic material (juh-NET-ik muh-TIHR-ee-uhl): the cell parts the	hat carry the	vocal cords
biological instructions (chromosomes, genes, and DNA)		latex (LAY-teks): the milky juice of the r
genetics (juh-NET-iks): the study of the ways that personal chara	acteristics are	Latin (LAT-uhn): the language of the and
passed along from one generation to another by genes		length (lengkth): the distance from one
geologic (jee-o-LOJ-ik): having to do with the study of soil and r	ock	lens (lenz): a curved piece of glass or pl
geologist (jee-OL-uh-jist): a scientist who studies rocks and the l		lichen (LYE-kuhn): plant composed of a
gill (gil): the organ on a fish's side through which it breathes		light (lite): a form of energy
glacier (GLAY-shur): a huge sheet of ice found in mountain areas	and polar regions	lunar (LOO-nur): to do with moons
gravity (GRAV-uh-tee): a force that pulls things toward Earth	1 8	logic (LOJ-ik): thoughtful and accurate
grid (grid): a set of straight lines that cross each other to form a	regular pattern	lungs (LUHNGSS): a pair of bag-like or
of squares	8 1	use to breathe
habitat (HAB-uh-tat): a place or natural condition where a plant	or animal lives	lymph node (limf noad): small organs t
haze (hayz): smoke, dust, or moisture in the air that prevents yo		bathe your cells and tissues
very far	a nom scong	machine (muh-SHEEN): a device or too
hearing aid (HIHR-ing ayd): a device to help a person hear		magnet (MAG-nit): a metal object that p
hemisphere (HEM-uhss-fihr): one half of a sphere such as the Ea	arth or a planet	mass (mass): the amount of physical m
herbaceous (hur-BAY-shus): non-woody plants	and of a planet	mate (mate): to join together for reprod
herbivore (HER-buh-vor): a plant-eating organism		matter (MAT-ur): anything that takes up
hormone (HOR-mohn): a chemical substance produced in body s	plands that controls	measure (MEZH-ur): to find out the siz
growth and development		measurement (MEZH-ur-ment): saying
humanoid (HYOO-min-oyd): having human-like characteristics		or how hot it is
• 8	n or educated guass	
hypothesize (hye-POTH-uh-size): to make a temporary prediction	n or equivaled guess	membrane (MEM-brayn): a very thin lag

ent

- nat covers an area of land
- not currently active or erupting
- ting into the body for surgical purposes
- tooth
- inished or missing parts
- t will stay at rest and an object in motion will
- in outside force
- caused by bacteria or viruses
- ect that can be filled with air
- ough genes from parent to child
- al that keeps heat in or out
- which prevents heat or electricity

ly

- -NASH-uh-nuhl, SISS-tuhm, YOO-nitz): a
- ng
- e without a person's control
- able to be repaired
- energy caused by movement
- a of land that you can view from one place
- of development between the egg and the pupa,
- the trachea (windpipe) containing your
- e rubber tree ancient Romans ne end of something to the other plastic
- f a fungus and an algae
- te reasoning or thinking organs inside many animals' chests that they
- s that hold the colorless liquid lymph that
- tool that uses energy to make work easier t pulls iron or steel toward it matter that an object contains oduction up space and has mass size, capacity, weight, etc. of something ng how big something is, how much it weighs,
- layer of tissue that lines or covers organs

46	Glossary	Glossary
or cells		organism (OR-guh-niz-uhm): a living pl
merge (murj): to join together to become or	ne thing	ovary (OH-vur-ee): the female structure
meristem (MEH-reh-stem): plant cells at th	ne tips of roots and stems, and under the	oxygen (OK-suh-juhn): a colorless gas o
bark, where growth can occur		paleontologist (pay-lee-uhn-TOL-uh-jist
metabolism (muh-TAB-uh-liz-uhm): the pro	ocess of changing food, water, and oxygen	parasite (PAIR-uh-site): an animal or pl
into energy and body cells		another animal or plant
Metric System (MET-rik, SISS-tuhm): a sy	stem of measurement based on tens that	particle (PAR-tuh-kuhl): an extremely s
uses basic units such as the meter, liter, a		passive (PASS-iv): to let something hap
microscopic (mye-kruh-SKOP-ik): too sma	ll to be seen without a microscope	pesticide (PESS-tuh-side): a chemical
microwaves (MYE-kroh-waves): waves that	-	phenomenon (fe-NOM-uh-nom): an eve
mineral (MIN-ur-uhl): a natural substance,	8	phloem (FLOW-uhm): tubular cells in p
not a plant or animal		photons (FOH-tons): particles or small
mitochondria (mitt-oh-KAHN-dree-uh): a c	ell structure that takes energy from	physics (FIZ-iks): the study of matter a
nutrients and makes it available for other		pistil (PIS-tuhl): the female structure a
mixture (MIKS-chur): something consisting		plane (plane): a flat surface
moisture (MOIST-chyer): the amount of wa		planks (plangks): a piece of lumber that
molar (MOH-lur): a broad, flat grinding too		plankton (PLANK-tuhn): microscopic a
molecule (MOL-uh-kyool): the smallest par		poacher (POHCH-ur): a person who hu
characteristics of that substance		pole (pohl): one of the two points that a
momentum (moh-MEN-tuhm): the force of	something when it is moving	Pole or the South Pole
motion (MOH-shuhn): when something is r	8	pollen (PAH-lehn): the male cells of flow
mucus (myoo-kuhss): a slimy fluid that coa	0	pollinate (POL-uh-nate): to carry or tra
throat, and breathing passages	ats and protocols your mouth, nose,	the same flower or another flower
native (NAY-tiv): an animal or plant that or	iginally lived or grew in a certain place	pollination (pah-luhn-AY-shun): the tra
navigate (NAV-uh-gate): to travel using map		pollution (puh-LOO-shuhn): harmful n
negative charge (NEG-uh-tive, charj): one		water, and soil
negative charge (NDG-un-tive, charg), one negative, that go in opposite directions in	Ŭ -	population (pop-yuh-LAY-shuhn): the t
neutral (NU-trel): neither positive or negati		positive charge (POZ-uh-tive, charj): or
normal (NOR-muhl): usual or regular		negative, that go in opposite direction
nuclear (NOO-klee-ur): to do with the energy	av created by splitting atoms	potential energy (puh-TEN-shuhl, EN-1
nuclear energy (NOO-klee-ur, EN-ur-jee): e		preservation (pres-ur-VA-shuhn): to pre-
nuclear fusion (NOO-klee-ur FYOO-zhuhn)		original state
combined, or fused, together	. the release of energy when atoms are	pressure (PRESH-ur): the force of one
nucleus (NOO-klee-uhss): center section of	either an atom or cell	prism (PRIZ-uhm): a plastic or glass sh
number (NUHM-bur): a word or symbol us		the spectrum
	sed for counting and for adding	probe (prohb): a tool or robotic spacec
and subtracting	corresonts a number such as 4 or W	
numeral (NOO-mur-uhl): the symbol that r	epresents a number, such as 4 or 1v	properties (PROP-ur-tee): special qualit
nurture (NUR-chur): to take care of	stones found in foods	pupa (PYOO-puh): an insect at the stag
nutrient (NOO-tree-ehnt): a necessary subs		an adult
observation (ob-zur-VAY-shuhn): when scie	nusts watch what they are studying very	quantity (KWAHN-tuh-tee): an amount
carefully and write down what they see	institute the telescore and other	rabies (RAY-beez): a viral disease that a
observatory (uhb-ZUR-vuh-tor-ee): a buildi	S -	bite of an infected bat, dog, raccoon, o
instruments astronomers use to study the		radiation (ray-dee-AY-shuhn): the send
organ (OR-guhn): a part of the body that do		radioactive decay (ray-dee-oh-AK-tiv, d
organic (or-GAN-ick): carbon-containing su	ibstance remaining after a living thing	breaks apart
has died		rain forest (RAYN FOR-est): a lush, m
		and animals

plant re that contains egg cells s component of air ist): a scientist who studies fossils plant that gets its food by living on or inside

y small piece or amount of something appen without a fight or resistance al used to kill pests, such as harmful insects event or a fact that can be seen or felt n plants that carry food from leaves to roots all pieces of light energy r and energy at the center of a flower

hat is cut thicker than a board algae and protozoa that live in the ocean hunts or fishes illegally t are farthest away from the equator, the North

lowering plants ransfer pollen from the stamen to the pistil of

ransfer of pollen from one flower to another materials that damage or contaminate the air,

e total number of people who live in a place one of the two kinds of charges, positive and ons in an electrical current N-ur-jee): stored energy protect something so that it stays in its

e object pushing on another shape that separates light into the colors of

ecraft used to explore something lities or characteristics of something age of development between a larva and

at or number t attacks the nervous system transmitted by the t, or such

nding out of rays of light, heat, or particles , di-KAY): when the center of an atom

moist forest with many kinds of plants

48	Glossary	Glossary
reaction force (ree-AK-shuhn, forss): a force that reacts	against a force being	axon to another, or from an axon to a
put on it		synthetic (sin-THET-ik): something that
recessive (ree-SESS-iv): tending to recede, to stay in the		temperature (TEM-pu-uh-chur): the de
reflect (ri-FLEKT): when light bounces or bends off a su		terminal (TUR-muh-nuhl): ending
reflex (ree-FLEKS): an automatic action without a perso		tetanus (TET-nuhss): a bacterial diseas
refract (ri-FRAKT): when light is bent as it passes throu		It can be fatal.
regular (REG-yuh-lur): happening or reoccurring at the	same time	theory (THIHR-ee): an idea that explain
resistant (re-ZIS-tent): having the ability to withstand		thorax (THOR-aks): the part of an inse
resource (REE-sorss): something valuable to a place or	a person	threatened (THRET-uhnd): animals and
respond (ri-SPOND): to react to something	-	near future
revolve (ri-VOLV): to orbit around an object		topiary (TOH-pee-air-ee): a hedge that i
rhizoid (RYE-zoyd): tiny, hair-like structures that hold n	nosses, ferns, and liverworts	or animal
to the rocks, logs, or soil that they grow on		topsoil (TOP-soil): the top or surface la
ridge (rij): a narrow raised strip		toxin (TOK-sin): a poisonous substance
rotate (ROH-tate): an object turning around and around	its center point or axis: to	trait (trate): a quality or characteristic
turn around and around like a wheel		from another
salt (sawlt): a chemical compound formed from an acid	and a base	transmitted (trans-MIT-ted): to send for
satellite (SAT-uh-lite): a moon or other heavenly body th		transplant (TRANSS-plant): to surgical
orbits, a larger heavenly body		healthy one
science (SYE-uhnss): studying nature and the physical	vorld by testing	trench (trench): a long, narrow ditch
experimenting, and measuring	world by itisting,	tropisms (TROP-izmz): plant growth me
segment (SEG-muhnt): a part or section of something		turbine (TUR-bine): a machine that use
	a or pollon colla	
sexual (SEX-you-uhl): reproduction with eggs and sperm	i, or polien cens	often used in jet engines
shed (shed): to fall out, to give off		undesirable (uhn-di-ZYE-ruh-buhl): no
solar (SOH-lur): to do with the Sun		Universe (YOO-nuh-vurss): everything t
specimen (SPESS-uh-muhn): a sample or an example u	sed to stand for the	and planets
whole group		vacuum (VAK-yuhm): a sealed place fro
sphere (sfihr): a symmetrical geometric shape like a bal	I, all points on the shape are	valley (VAL-ee): an area of low ground
the same distance from the center		vapor (VAY-pur): fine particles of mist o
stable (STAY-buhl): firm and steady		varied (VAIR-eed): changed or altered
stamen (STAY-mehn): the male flower structure that is o	composed of an anther at the	vascular (VASS-kyoo-lur): having a net
tip of a long, thin filament		venom (VEN-uhm): a poison produced
static electricity (STAT-ik, i-lek-TRISS-uh-tee): electricit	y that builds up on an object	vertebrae (VUR-tuh-bray): the individua
and does not flow		vertebrate (VUR-tuh-brate): any animal
strain (strayn): a variety or kind		via (vye-uh): by way of
strand (strand): something that looks like a thread or st	0	vinyl (VAYHN-l): a type of plastic
subatomic particles (suhb-a-TOM-ik, PART-tuh-kuhls):	the smaller parts of an atom	visible spectrum (VIZ-uh-buhl, SPEK-t
including the protons, neutrons, and electrons		the rainbow (red, orange, yellow, green
successive (suhk-SESS-iv): following in a logical or sequ	iential order	volt (vohlt): a unit used to measure the
suffer (SUHF-ur): to experience pain, discomfort, or sor	row	wild (WILDE): natural or not tamed by
supersonic (soo-per-SON-ik): traveling through air faste	r than the speed of sound	wind resistance (wind ri-ZISS-tuhnss):
surface (SUR-fiss): the outside or outermost layer of some	nething	work (wurk): a force acting on an objec
surgical instruments (SUR-ji-kuhl IN-stre-ment): tools	0	xylem (ZIE-luhm): tubular cells in plan
medical purposes		to leaves
symbol (SIM-buhl): a design or object that represents so	omething else	
synapse (SIN-apse): the junction across which a nerve in		
	· ·	

a muscle cell nat is man-made degree of heat or cold in something

ase that causes your muscles to become rigid.

ains how or why something happens sect's body between its head and its abdomen and plants likely to become endangered in the

t is trimmed in the shape of some object

layer of soil nee ic that makes one person or thing different

forward, to pass on or communicate ally replace a diseased organ with a

movements uses steam, water, or gas to create energy and is

not wanted, not pleasant g that is in space including the Earth, stars,

From which air has been emptied d between two hills or mountains t or steam

etwork of blood vessels ed by some snakes and insects lual bones of the spine nal that has a backbone

K-truhm): the colors you can see; the colors of een, blue, indigo, and violet) he electrical force in a battery by humans s): a force that pushes against another object ect to move it across a distance ants that carry water and nutrients from roots

50	Index	Index
abacus 8 -5, 12	angles 8 -5, 45, 46, 48, 49, 50, 51	axis 4- 7, 8; 7 -13, 16, 19, 21, 27, 31,
abdomen 2 -14, 15, 16	annual plants 3 -28	33, 35, 37; 8 -42
absorb 1 -14, 29	answering machine 9 -39	bacteria 1 -14, 47, 50, 62; 2 -11; 4 -18
acceleration 6 -8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15	antennas 2 -15, 16	bacterial infections 1 -47
acid 4- 50, 58, 59	anther 3 -18, 23	bald eagle 2 -6
acid rain 4- 58, 59	antibiotics 1 -18, 47, 61	balloons 6 -29, 37; 9 -10, 21
acne 1 -40	antibodies 1 -50, 51	bamboo 3 -47, 53
action force 6 -11	antigens 1 -50, 54, 55	band(s) 7 -29, 31, 32, 33, 39
active 4- 29	ants 2 -5, 7, 16, 36	bark 3 -10, 13, 14, 20, 26, 27, 28, 31,
active immunity 1 -50	apes 2 -7, 35, 36, 39	35, 43, 44, 46
acute angles 8 -45, 46	Apgar, Dr. Virginia 1 -35	barley 3 -47
adaptation(s) 2 -8, 9, 23, 31, 50, 51;	Apollo II 7 -7, 23	barometer 4- 37
3 -49, 50	Arabic numerals 8 -9, 13	Barringer crater 7 -16
addends 8 -13, 14	arachnids 2 -14	basalt 4- 16, 17
addition 8 -11, 12, 13, 14, 16	Archimedes 8 -52	base ten system 8 -8
adolescence 1 -39, 40	area 8 -34, 47, 49, 52, 62	bats 2 -5
adulthood 1 -38, 39, 41	arithmetic 8 -11, 37, 41, 62	batteries 6 -31; 9 -26, 44, 19
adults 1 -33, 40, 41, 43, 55	aroma-therapists 3 -60	bay leaf 3 -46
aerobic exercise 1 -17	aromatherapy 3 -47	bears 2 -6, 7, 28, 29, 34
aerobraking 6 -12, 13	array 8 -16	beaver 2 -41
agar 3 -29,56	arson 4- 56	bees 2 -16, 47, 54
aggregates 3 -19	artificial selection 2 -9	beetle 2 -16
agricultural 3 -62; 4- 57, 60	asexual 3 -22, 24	behavior 2 -27, 39, 44, 50, 57, 62
agriculture 9 -5	ash 4- 22, 24, 28, 29	Bell, Alexander Graham 9 -39
air 1 -4, 12, 22, 26, 27, 49, 50, 54	asteroid belt 7 -14, 15, 39, 40	belly button 1 -36, 37
aircraft carriers 9- 14	asteroid(s) 4- 9; 7 -5, 6, 7, 13, 14, 19,	berries 3 -19
airplanes 9 -9, 22, 43, 61	25, 26, 39, 40, 62	Big Dipper 7 -43
Aldrin, Edwin "Buzz" 7 -7, 23, 61	asthma 1 -12, 27, 55	binary numbers 8-8
algae 3 -5, 9, 16, 27, 28, 29, 56	astronaut 7 -23, 24, 60, 61, 62	biosphere 4- 6
algebra 8 -6, 37, 41, 42, 48, 49, 53, 62		birds 2 -5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 21, 24, 25, 26,
allergies 1 -54, 58	37, 38, 39, 41, 44, 54, 59, 62	27, 44, 46, 52, 53, 54, 56, 58, 60, 62
allergy 1 -54, 55, 56	astronomical unit(s) 7 -22, 28	birth 1 -20, 34, 36, 37, 38, 53
alligator 2 -20	astronomy 7 -4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 58, 59, 62	Bjerknes, Vilhelm 4- 44
altitude(s) 4- 55	astrophysics 7 -62	blackbody 6 -49
amino acids 1 -28, 29	atmosphere 4- 13, 22, 23, 37, 38, 41,	bladder 1 -18
ammonia 7 -29, 34	44, 62; 7 -5, 17, 18, 19, 21, 22, 26, 29,	blimp 9 -21, 22
amoebas 2 -11	31, 32, 34, 36, 37, 40, 60, 61	blood 1 -8, 10, 11, 17, 18, 19, 24, 25,
amphibians 2 -10, 19, 46, 47, 62	atom(s) 7 -16, 46, 47	26, 35, 39, 40, 42, 46, 50, 53, 59
amplifier 9 -45	atomic bomb 6 -56	blood cells 1 -11, 12, 14, 24, 30, 46,
$\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{b} + $	attraction 67816	50 53 54

amplitude **6**-43, 44 Amundsen, Ronald **4-**12 anatomy **1**-57 Andes mountains **4-**26, 27 anemometer **4-**38 angiosperms **3**-8, 20

attraction **6-**7, 8, 16 Audobon, John James **2**-27 automobiles **9-**19

auxins **3**-50

avalanche **4-**42

averages 8-35

50, 53, 54 blood vessels **1**-10, 11, 12, 21, 37,

46 boats **9-**20

bombs **6**-56

bones **1**-6, 14, 16, 17, 22, 29, 38, 45, 46, 53, 60, 61

1,	bonsai 3 -42
1,	botanist 3 -45
18	botany 3 -7, 27, 58, 60
10	bracket fungi 3 -30, 32
	brain 1 -6, 7, 8, 9, 14, 17, 21, 22, 25,
	38, 42, 44, 53, 59
	branches 3 -38, 39, 40, 44, 45 breach birth 1 -37
0.1	
31,	breasts 1 -20, 40, 53
	breathing 1 -9, 12, 17, 26, 35, 50,
	54, 55
	broken bones 1-45
	bronchioles 1 -12, 26, 55
	brown dwarf 7 -28, 45
	browser 9 -58
	bruises 1-44
	brush 3 -38, 39
	bryologist 3 -60
	bud 3 -20
	building materials 3 -53
	bulbs 3 -14
	buses 9 -18, 20
	bushes 3 -38, 39, 51
	butterfly 2 -4, 47, 56
	calculators 9 -59
	calculus 8 -62
	camels 2 -33, 57
	cameras 9 -21, 44, 50, 51, 52, 61, 62
	cancer 1 -27, 53, 59, 61
26,	canoe 9 -12
62	Cantor, Georg 8-22
	capacitors 9 -26
	capillaries 1 -11, 12
	carbohydrates 1 -17, 29
	carbon dioxide 1 -8, 11, 12, 24, 26;
	4- 54, 60; 7 -21, 26
25,	8
	carnivorous 3 -49, 50, 52
З,	cars 9 -43, 45, 46, 54, 59, 60, 61
	Carson, Rachel 9 -10
44,	cartilage 1 -14, 46; 2 -18
	Carver, George Washington 3 -58
	cassette tapes 9 -44
	CAT scan 9 -33
41,	caterpillar 2 -47
	cathode ray tube 9 -59

52	Index	Index
cats 2 -28, 29, 30, 44, 49, 53, 56	comet(s) 7 -5, 6, 7, 12, 13, 19, 25, 34,	crust 4- 13, 14, 28, 30, 61
cave(s) 4- 33, 34, 35, 48	40, 41, 62	crustaceans 2 -14, 58
CD-ROM 9 -55	commensalism 2 -55	crystal(s) 4- 41
cell 2 -11, 12, 45	common denominator 8 -31	cube 8 -38, 39, 40, 43, 50, 51
cellular telephones 9 -39	communications 9 -35, 41, 46, 56	cube root 8 -39
Celsius $8-61$	commutative 8 -14, 16, 17, 20	culinary 3 -45
Celsius scale 6 -36, 39	compact discs $9-44, 45, 55$	cultivation $3-61$
centimeter 8 -52, 55, 56, 60 centrifugal force 6 -13, 14	compass 6 -33, 34, 35; 7 -11 complete flowers 3 -37, 38	cumulus cloud(s) 4- 39 current(s) 6 -29, 30, 31, 33, 34, 39, 40,
centripetal force 6 -13, 14	computers 9 -53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 61, 60	42; 9 -25, 26, 27, 28, 35, 49
Ceres 7 -6, 7 -14, 38, 39	conduction 6 -40, 41	42, 9-23, 20, 27, 20, 33, 49 curves $8-53$
chain reaction 6 -54, 55, 56	cones 3 -6, 8, 12, 16, 17, 20, 44	cyclone 4- 44
chameleon 2 -4, 21	conifers 3 -16, 44	cylinder 8 -43, 53
chance $8-36$	conservation of energy 6 -23, 26	cystic fibrosis 1 -52
Chaos theory 8 -62	conservation of momentum 6 -26	dark reaction $3-25, 26$
charges 6 -27, 28, 29, 30, 32, 35	constellation(s) 7 -42, 43, 45	Darwin, Charles 2 -8, 9
chemicals 3 -50, 52, 58, 61	contagious infections 1 -49	data 7 -31, 53, 55
chemotherapy 1 -53	continent 4 -12, 25, 26, 52	Davis, John 7 -11
chimpanzees 2 -36, 39	continental drift 4- 26, 27, 30	DDT 9 -10
chlorophyll 3 -4, 6, 10, 13, 14, 15, 16,	contraction 6 -37	death 1 -37, 42, 43, 61
25, 26, 30, 33, 52	convection 6 -40, 41	decay 4- 50; 6 -8
chromosome(s) 1 -30, 32, 52; 3 -55, 56	coordinates 8 -41, 42	deciduous 3 -15, 42, 43, 45
chromosphere 7 -17	Copernicus, Nicolaus 7 -6, 7, 8	decimals 8 -21, 32, 33, 34
cinnamon 3 -46	copiers 9 -40	decomposer 3 -32
circle(s) 6 -6, 13, 14, 16, 30, 43; 8 -25,	copper 6 -30	deforestation 4- 57, 60
26, 43, 51, 53, 61	coral 4- 21, 35, 47, 48	Deimos 7 -6, 26
circuit 6 -30, 31; 9 -26, 27, 28, 53, 54	core 4- 13, 15; 7 -15, 17, 28, 47, 49	denominator 8 -29, 30, 31, 32
circular 7 -20, 25, 26	corn 3 -6, 15, 20, 23, 47, 55, 57, 58	dentist 1 -58
circular motion 6 -13	corona 7 -17, 18	dermatologist 1 -58
circulation 1 -10, 11, 24	cosmonaut 7 -60, 62	desert plants 3 -6, 13, 51
circumference 8 -52	cosmos 7 -9, 52	diameter 7 -17, 18, 20, 22, 24, 25, 28,
cirrus cloud(s) 4- 39	cotton 9 -5, 7, 8	29, 30, 31, 34, 36, 38, 39; 8 -51, 52
citrus 3 -19, 43	cotton gin 9 -7, 8	diaphragm 1 -26, 27
clam 2 -5, 12, 42, 58	cotyledon 3 -20	diarrhea 1 -14, 48
classification 1 -4, 5; 2 -7, 62	counting 8 -5, 9, 10, 11	difference 8 -14, 15
claws 2 -14, 15, 26, 28, 29, 35, 40	Cousteau, Jacques 4 -48	digestive system 1 -7, 13, 59
climate 4- 37, 49, 52, 54, 57, 59	coyote 2 -5, 31	digital 9 -45, 46, 48, 49, 50, 51, 54
clot 1 -11, 46, 54 cloud(c) 7 15, 21, 20, 22, 26, 46, 48	CPU 9 -53, 54	digits $8-8, 9$
cloud(s) 7 -15, 21, 29, 32, 36, 46, 48,	crab 2 -7, 13, 15, 42, 58 crater(a) 4 28, 44, 7 6, 10, 20, 24, 25	dinosaur(s) $2-24$; $4-19$, 59 dinosaur(s) 111 , 12, 27, 40, 42, 46, 40
49, 50, 51, 55 cold-blooded 2 -10, 17, 19, 20	crater(s) 4 -28, 44; 7 -6, 19, 20, 24, 25, $30, 32, 35$	disease(s) 1 -11, 12, 27, 40, 42, 46, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 55, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61;
collisions 6 -26	30, 32, 35 crawl 2 -5, 15, 16, 42, 48	3 -30, 31, 61
colon 1 -13, 28, 53, 54	crocodile $2-5, 20$	3 -30, 31, 61 disjoint set 8 -25
colonies $2-11, 45, 54$	crops 9 -5, 6, 7, 8, 9	dividend 8 -19, 20
COLUMICS 4 -11, 40, 04	trops $3-3, 0, 1, 0, 3$	

2-11, 45, 54 colonies column 8-19

crops **9**-5, 6, 7, 8, 9 cross-pollination **3**-54

divisor **8**-19, 20 DNA **2**-8 dodecahedron 8-50 dogs 2-7, 28, 31, 40, 49, 50, 53, 56, 57, 62 dolphin **2**-43, 62 dormant **3**-45, 51; **4**-29 drag **6**-12, 14 0, drupes **3**-19 ducks **2**-7, 26, 27 dust **7**-5, 15, 16 DVD(s) **9**-49, 55 DVR **9-**49 dwarf planet **7**-13, 12, 14, 38, 39 dyes **3**-58 $E = mc^2$ **6**-52 Earth **6**-6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 25, 34, 35, 36, 40, 43, 46 earthquake(s) **4-**13, 21, 22, 24, 25, 29, 30, 31, 62 earthworm **2**-4, 13 echinacea **3**-46 ecosystems **3**-5, 44 edible fungi **3**-31 Edison, Thomas Alva 9-28, 52 Einstein, Albert **6**-52; **8**-40, 42 El niño **4-**49 electric cars **9**-19 electricity **6**-27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 33, 35, 58,60 electromagnetic force **6**-7, 8, 27 electromagnetic spectrum 6-46, 47 electromagnets **6**-34 electron microscope **9**-32 electronics **9**-18, 25 electrons **6**-8, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 48 element **8**-22, 23, 24, 25, 44 element(s) **7**-16, 45 elephants **2**-32, 33, 41, 43, 48, 49, 9, 57, 61 ellipse **8**-43, 53 elliptical orbit **7**-18, 26, 38 E-mail **9**-51, 54, 58 embryo **1**-19, 35, 36 division **8**-11, 12, 13, 19, 20, 21, 32

emit **4-**57, 58 empty set **8**-24, 26 endangered 4-56, 59 endangered species **2**-29, 32, 60, 61 endocrinologist **1**-58 endoscope **9**-34 energy **1**-4, 8, 25, 26, 29; **3**-4, 6, 9, 10, 11, 14, 16, 25, 26, 28, 39; **4-**4, 21, 30, 36; 6-4, 5, 17, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 31, 35, 36, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 60; 7-9, 15, 16, 17, 46, 47, 53, 55 energy sources 6-25 engineer(s) **9**-11, 15, 20, 30 entertainment **9**-44, 46, 48, 61 environment **2**-6, 10, 11, 50, 60, 61; **4-**11, 37, 47, 50, 56, 57, 62; **7**-22, 23 environmentalist **4-**62 enzymes **3**-52 epicotyl **3**-12 epiphytes **3**-51 equal sign 8-14, 15, 17, 19, 28, 41 equation **8**-6, 13, 16, 17, 20, 28, 32, 37, 40, 41, 42, 48, 52, 53, 54 equator 4-7, 8, 44, 46, 54, 55 equilateral triangles **8**-46 era **4-**10, 18, 19 Eris **7**-14, 38, 39, 62 erosion **4-**5, 18, 33, 34 eruption **4-**28, 29 escape velocity **6**-8, 9; **9**-24 esophagus **1**-13, 28 estrogen **1**-40, 41 ethanol **3**-58 ether **6**-47 Euclid **8**-5, 44 evaporation **4-**11 evergreen trees **3**-6, 20, 43, 44 evolve **2**-8, 9 evolved **4-**19, 20 exercise **1**-17, 41, 44 exosphere **4-**23 expansion **6**-37, 39 exploration **7**-19, 21, 23, 27, 30, 33, 35, 37, 57

explorer **4-**12 explosion **7**-15, 47, 53, 55 exponents **8**-38, 39 extinct **4-**19, 29, 56 extinction **2**-9, 32, 61 eye(s) **1**-6, 7, 9, 21, 27, 29, 31, 41, 47, 55,60 Fahrenheit **8**-61 Fahrenheit scale 6-36, 39 fallopian tube **1**-19, 34, 35 farmers **3**-56, 58, 61, 62 farming **9**-5, 6, 9 fat **1**-8, 29, 40, 53 fatty acids **1**-28, 29 fault(s) **4-**30 fax machines **9**-40, 61 feces **1**-13, 14, 29 femoral artery **1**-25 fermentation **3**-31, 32 ferns **3**-6, 8, 12, 16, 22, 27, 30, 35, 51, 53 fertilization **3**-23, 24 fertilized **1**-19, 20, 34 fertilizer(s) **3**-53, 56; **4**-52, 60, 61; **9**-8. 9 fetus **1**-19, 35, 36, 50 Fibonacci, Leonardo **8**-5, 13, 43 fiddleheads **3**-35 filament **3**-18. 23 finite **8**-23 fins **2**-17, 43, 48 first law of motion 6-10, 54, 55, 56, 61 fish **2**-5, 6, 7, 10, 17, 18, 19, 20, 25, 28, 41, 42, 43, 46, 48, 52, 55, 56, 58, 60, 61 fission **6**-54, 55, 56, 61 Fleming, Dr. Alexander **1**-62 flood plains(s) **7**-27 flood(s) **4-**41, 51 florists **3**-62 flowers **3**-6, 12, 14, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 28, 36, 37, 38, 45, 47, 51, 53, 54, 56, 57, 52 fluoroscopy **9**-33 fly **2**-5, 16, 24, 25, 26, 27, 46, 54

foliage **3**-40; **4**-57 genetic disease 1-52, 53 food **3**-4, 5, 6, 10, 14, 16, 18, 21, 24, genus **1**-5, 6 25, 26, 28, 30, 31, 43, 47, 51, 52, 53, geocentric view **7**-8, 24, 33 geology **4-**4 56, 59 food poisoning **1**-14, 47 geometry 8-43, 44, 49, 53, 62 force(s) **4-**10, 13, 20, 24, 27, 35, 43, geotropism **3**-49 62; **6**-6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, germinate **3**-12, 20 16, 17, 19, 23, 26, 27, 30, 31, 32, 33, germs **1**-11, 18, 21, 49, 51 41, 43, 52, 60; 7-15, 17, 18, 24, 28 gestation **2**-48, 49 gibbons **2**-36, 38 formation **4-**9, 15, 44, 46 Fossev, Dian **2**-39 gills **2**-17, 18, 19, 48 fossil(s) **4-**5, 18, 60, 61; **2**-8, 24, giraffes **2**-33 glacier(s) **4-**4, 32, 33, 59, 61 39, 60 foxes **2**-31, 50 glaciology **4-**4 fraction(s) **8**-5, 21, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, glider **9**-22, 23 global warming **4-**59, 60, 61 33, 34, 58 Goodall, Jane **2**-39 fracture **1**-45 gorillas **2**-36, 38, 39 Franklin, Benjamin **6**-28 free fall **6**-15, 16 GPS **9**-61 frequency **6**-43, 44, 48, 49 gram 8-54, 56, 57, 58, 60 friction **6**-12, 13, 14, 29 granite **4-**16 frog **2**-19, 46, 48, 60 grasses **3**-8, 15, 27, 47, 48, 53 fruit **3**-18, 19, 20, 31, 42, 43, 54, 56 gravitational force **6**-7, 9, 16 Fujita scale **4-**43 gravitational pull **7**-24, 33 Fulton, Robert **9**-15 gravity **4-**13, 20, 21; **6-**7, 8, 9, 10, 11, fundamental forces 6-7, 8 13, 14, 15, 16, 52; **7**-6, 13, 15, 17, 18, fungi **3**-4, 5, 7, 9, 16, 22, 30, 31 24, 38, 46, 47, 48, 51, 55 fungus **1**-49, 54, 62 Gregorian calendar **7**-6, 10 funnel **4-**43 grids **8**-41 fuse **6**-30, 31, 52 growers **3**-61 fusion **6**-54, 55 growth 1-20, 32, 36, 38, 39, 40 galaxies **7**-5, 6, 7, 9, 48, 49 growth rings **3**-13 Galdikas, Birute **2**-39 gust **4-**38 Galilei, Galileo **7**-6, 7, 18, 29, 33 gymnosperms **3**-20 habitat(s) **2**-6, 10, 22, 23, 27 30, 31, gallon **8**-54, 58, 59 Ganymede **7**-29, 30 32, 39, 60; **4**-47, 50, 52, 53, 54, 55, gardeners **3**-22, 62 56.59 gas **7**-14-19, 22, 28-31, 42, 46, 48 hair **1**-8, 20, 22, 31, 39, 40, 41, 53, 54 gas giant(s) **7**-14, 28, 31, 34, 35, 36, 37 Hale-Bopp **7**-41 gases 4-9, 22, 24, 48, 58, 60, 61 Halley's Comet **7**-6, 41 Gauss, Carl Friedrich 8-49 hard drives **9**-54, 55 geese **2**-27 hardware **9**-53 Gemini **7**-43 harvesting **9**-5, 7 gene **1**-31, 52 Hawking, Stephen **7**-57 generation **2**-8, 9, 50 HDTV **9**-49

Index

health 1-17, 18, 29, 35, 40, 44, 51, 54 inch 8-27, 54, 55, 56 hearing **1**-21, 22, 41, 43 heart 1-7, 10, 14, 17, 24, 25, 42, 53, 58.61 heat **6**-13, 23, 24, 25, 30, 36, 37, 38, 40, 41, 42, 47, 48; 7-15, 16, 17, 19, 22, 41hedges **3**-38, 39 helicopter **9**-9, 22, 23, 61 heliocentric view **7**-8, 9 helium **7**-29, 32, 34, 36, 42, 45, 47 hematologist **1**-59 hemisphere 4-7, 8, 46; 7-26, 27, 50 herbaceous **3**-12, 16, 27, 45 herbalists **3**-44 herbicides **9**-9 herbivores **3**-51 herbs **3**-45, 46, 47, 60, 62 Himalayas **4-**26, 27 hippos **2**-41 histamine **1**-35 holograms **9**-30 Hooke, Robert **3**-10 hormones **1**-20, 39, 40, 58 horticulturist **3**-60 Hubble Space Telescope **7**-5, 7, 35, 59 Hubble, Edwin Powell 7-59 humans **1**-4, 6, 25; **2**-9, 10, 18, 28, 31. 35. 39. 56. 57. 59. 60. 62 hundreds 8-33 hundredths 8-33 hunting **2**-26, 52, 53, 57, 61 hurricane **4-**22, 44, 45 Huygens, Christiaan 6-47 hydro **4-**6 hydrogen 3-25; 7-29, 32, 34, 36, 42, 45.47 hydrosphere **4-**6 igneous rock(s) 4-16, 25IM **9**-58 imaginary numbers 8-39 imaging **9**-32, 33, 62 immune system **1**-50, 51, 54 impact **7**-16, 19 inactive **7**-20, 21

incisor **1**-38, 39 inertia **6**-10, 11, 13, 14, 26, 62 infection(s) **1**-11, 18, 22, 29, 47, 48, 49, 50, 52, 61 infinite **8**-5, 23, 44 infinity **8**-9, 23 infrared light **6**-46 inner planet(s) 7-14, 40insects **2**-4,5, 7, 10, 14, 16, 19, 21, 25, 28, 37, 44, 45, 47, 52, 54 insulation **6**-31, 41, 42 integers 8-10 integrated circuits 9-27 International System **6**-6 Internet **9**-56, 57, 58 intersecting lines 8-45 intersection 8-25 interstellar cloud(s) **7**-49 intestines 1-13, 14, 17, 28, 29, 53 invention **9**-4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 22, 28, 39, 47.52 invertebrates **2**-10, 12, 14, 19 iris **1**-21 iron **4-**15 isosceles triangles 8-47 jellyfish **2**-10, 45 Jenner, Dr. Edward **1**-51 iets **9**-11. 22. 23 joints **1**-6, 16, 60, 61 Jupiter **7**-4, 6, 7, 12, 14, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 34, 37, 40 kangaroos **2**-28, 34 kayak **9**-12, 13 kelp **3**-29, 50 Kelvin scale **6**-36, 39 keyboard **9**-55, 56, 62 kidneys **1**-18, 25, 29 killer whale **2**-10, 43 kilogram **8**-38, 57, 58, 60 kilometer **8**-55, 56, 60 kinetic energy **6**-24, 26 koalas **2**-34, 48 Kola Peninsula **4-**15 Kuiper belt **7**-38, 39

La niña **4-**49 lungs 1-7, 12, 14, 17, 24, 26, 27, 47, lake(s) **4-**5, 10, 11, 18, 32, 36, 41, 42, 52, 53, 55; **2**-18, 19 49, 50, 58 Magellan probe **7**-21 magnetic field **6**-32, 33, 34, 35; **7**-19, landscaping **3**-47, 60 laparoscopy **9**-34 20.29 larvae **2**-19, 45, 47, 48, 55 magnetism **6**-27, 32, 35, 60 larvnx **1**-20, 39, 40 magnets **6**-32, 33, 34, 35 lasers **9**-28, 29, 30, 34, 55, 56 magnitude **4-**31 lava **4-**6, 14, 15, 16, 24, 28, 29 mammals 1-4, 6; 2-7, 10, 13, 16, 28, laws of motion **6**-10, 11 29, 31, 33, 34, 35, 40, 41, 44, 48, 53, laver(s) **4-**13, 15, 18, 23, 28, 33, 42; 54, 56, 62 **7**-17, 29, 30, 32, 34, 36 manned **7**-23, 29, 57, 61 lemurs **2**-35, 37, 38 mantle **4-**13, 14, 15, 16 length 8-37, 43, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 54, Marconi, Guglielmo 9-47 55, 56, 60 Mariner **7**-10, 19, 21, 27 lens **6**-50; **9**-31, 50, 51 marrow **1**-14 lenticels **3**-13 marsupials **2**-34, 48 leopard **2**-30, 53 mass **6**-5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 15, 16, lichens **3**-29 26, 52, 56; 7-28, 47, 54; 8-38, 40, 56, life cycle **3**-21, 28, 33, 34, 51 57.60 life expectancy **1**-42, 61 massive **7**-28, 35, 46 ligaments **1**-16, 27, 45 mathematics **8**-4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 22, light **6**-5, 10, 11, 23, 35, 43, 45, 46, 34, 37, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 49, 62 47. 48. 49. 50. 51. 52. 60: 7-6. 16. 17. mating **2**-44, 46, 52, 54 matter **7**-9, 28, 52, 53, 54, 55, 62 40, 42, 44, 45, 46, 47, 49, 50, 54, 55.58 Maxwell, James Clerk 6-35 light bulb **9**-26, 27, 52 McClintock, Barbara **3**-55 light reaction **3**-25, 26 mean **8**-10, 11, 17, 29, 35, 40 light year **7**- 44, 49, 51, 54 measurement **8**-15, 43, 48, 54, 59, 60 line segments 8-44 measurements **6**-4, 5, 6, 39 lines 8-37, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, median **8**-35 50.51 medical technology **1**-61 lion **2**-10, 30, 50, 53 medicine **1**-57, 61, 62; **3**-27, 55, 58; **9**liquid **7**-29, 30 4.31 Meitner, Lise **6**-56, 61 liter **8**-54, 58, 59, 60 lithosphere **4-**6, 25 membrane **1**-8, 23, 54 liver **1**-13, 28, 29, 53 Mendel, Gregor **3**-54 liverworts **3**-8, 22, 27, 33, 34, 35 menstruation 1-19, 40 lizards **2**-10, 19, 20, 21, 46, 56 Mercalli, Giuseppe **4-**31 lobster **2**-7, 15, 58 mercury **6**-38, 39 locomotive **9**-10, 16, 17 Mercury **7**-4, 7, 12, 14, 18, 19, 29, logic **8**-6, 7, 26, 44 30.47 long division 8-21 meristem **3**-26, 27 lottery **8**-34, 36 mesosphere **4-**23 lunar calendar **7**-9 metabolism **1**-24, 25, 26

metal(s) **4-**15, 62; **6**-30 metamorphic rock(s) **4-**16, 17 metamorphosis **2**-47, 48 meteor(s) **4-**23; **7-**16, 25, 40, 41 meteorite(s) **7**-25, 40 meteoroid(s) **7**-12, 40 meteorology 4-4, 5, 27, 44 meter 8-37, 38, 51, 54, 55, 56, 60 methane **7**-32, 34, 36 Metric System **6**-6 microchips **9**-27 microgravity 6-16 microphone **9-**37 microscope **1**-7, 37, 57; **9**-31, 32, 34 microscopic **2**-4, 11 microwaves **6**- 47, 62 migrate **4-**49 mile **8**-55, 56 Milky Way **7**-49, 50, 51, 55, 54 milligram **8**-57 milliliter **8**-59 mineral(s) **4-**4, 16, 17, 19, 20, 34, 35 minuend **8**-15 minus 8-10, 15, 16, 38 mission(s) **7**-7, 22, 23, 24, 29, 59, 61 moisture **4-**37, 38, 45, 46, 51 molar **1**-38, 39 mold(s) **1**-4, 32, 47, 49, 54, 62; **3**-5, 9, 30 molecule(s) **3**-25; **4**-58 Molina, Mario **4-**58 mollusks **2**-12, 41, 58 molten **4-**9, 14 momentum **6**-13, 26 monitor **9**-55, 56 monkeys 2-35, 37, 38, 61 monorail **9**-17 monotremes **2**-48 Moon **6**-9, 10, 15, 16, 47 moon(s) **7**-5,16, 18, 19, 21, 23-33, 35, 37, 39, 40, 58, 60, 61 Morse code **9**-18, 36, 37, 47 Morse, Samuel F.B. 9-36 mosses **3**-5, 6, 8, 16, 22, 27, 30, 33, 34, 35, 51, 60 motion **6**-6, 10, 11, 13, 27, 47

motorboat **9-13** Mount St. Helens **4-**29 mountain range **4-**27 mountain(s) **4-**11, 14, 25, 26, 27, 29, 32, 33, 35, 38, 42, 49, 55, 61 mouse **9**-53, 56, 57, 62 mouth **1**-12, 13, 22, 26, 28, 38, 39, 49, 50 movies **9**-44, 50, 51, 52, 60, 61 MP3 players **9**-45, 44 MRI **9**-33 Mt. Rushmore **4-**35 mudslide **4-**41 multiplication **8**-5, 11, 12, 13, 16, 17, 18. 19. 20 muscles **1**-9, 13, 14, 16, 17, 21, 24, 26, 28, 29, 36, 38, 41, 44, 46 mushrooms **3**-4, 9, 30, 31 mutations **2**-8 mutualism **2**-55 native **2**-34, 35, 60 natural selection **2**-8, 9 nature **2**-8. 27 nebula **7**-6, 46, 47, 59 nectar **2**-4. 25 negative charge **6**-28, 29, 30 negative numbers 8-10, 41 Neptune **7**-6, 13, 14, 28, 36, 37, 38.39 nerve(s) **1**-8, 9, 21, 22, 38 nervous system **1**-8, 14, 59 nesting **2**-6 network 9-16, 38, 39, 56, 58 neurologist **1**-59 neuron(s) **1**-8, 9, 38 neutron star **7**-47 nickel **4-**15 nimbus cloud(s) **4-**40 Noether, Emmy **8**-42 nuclear **7**-15, 16, 17 nuclear energy **6**-23, 52, 53, 54, 55 nuclear weapons 6-56, 61 nucleus **1**-11, 30, 32; **2**-11, 45; **6**-8, 27. 29. 54. 60 number line 8-41

numbers **8**-4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, ovster **2**-12, 58 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 19, 20, 22, 23, 24, pain **1**-14, 23, 27, 35, 44, 46, 48, 53 25, 26, 28, 31, 32, 33, 35, 36, 37, 38, paleobotanist **3**-61 39, 40, 41, 43 palm trees **3**-15, 43, 44 palmate pattern **3**-15 numerator **8**-29, 30, 31, 32 pancreas **1**-13, 28, 31 nutrients **1**-8, 11, 29, 53; **3**-4, 9, 10, 11, 14, 21, 27, 32, 47, 52, 53, 57 pandas **2**-29 nuts **3**-18, 20, 43, 59 Pangaea **4-**9, 26 observation(s) **7**-18, 37 parallel lines 8-44, 45 observatory **7**-6, 7, 8, 9, 45, 59 parallel pattern **3**-15 obsidian **4-**16 parallelograms 8-49 parasite **2**-13, 14, 55; **3**-52 obtuse angle **8**-45, 46 obtuse triangles 8-47 parasitism **2**-55 oceanography 4-4, 5 parenthesis 8-17 odds **8**-34, 36 particle(s) **7**-5, 33, 41, 40, 46, 47, 51 offspring **1**-19, 30, 52; **2**-8, 9, 18, 21, Pasteur, Louis 1-49 28, 34, 40, 44, 45, 48, 50, 52, 53 patent 9-4, 8, 15, 47 oil tankers **9**-14 PC **9-**54 omnivores **1**-6 peacock **2**-26, 44 oncologist **1**-59 Peary, Robert E. **4-**12 ones **8**-10, 33 pediatrician **1**-60 ophthalmologist **1**-60 penguin **2**-5, 7, 26 opossums 2-34 penicillin **1**-62 orangutans **2**-37, 38, 39 penis **1**-19, 40 orbit(s) **4-**9, 23, 46; **7**-7, 9, 13, 14, 16percentages **8**-34, 35 26, 28, 29, 31, 32, 34-38, 40, 41, 47perennial plants **3**-28 50, 58-61 perpendicular lines 8-45, 46 orbital path **7**-38 pesticides **3**-61; **9**-9, 10 petals **3**-17, 36, 37, 38 organ(s) **1**-7, 8, 9, 10, 13, 18, 19, 20, 21, 23, 26, 27, 28, 35, 42, 47, 49, pets **2**-17, 40, 56, 62 54,57, 59, 60 phonograph **9**-44, 52 photocopiers **9**-40 organelles **3**-9 photograph **9**-30, 32, 33, 44, 50 organic **3**-30, 31 organisms **1**-4, 7, 11, 47, 49; **2**-4, 11, photons 6-46 13, 45, 55; **4-**10, 11, 18 photosphere **7**-17 origin **8**-41 photosynthesis **3**-11, 13, 14, 15, 16, origins(s) **7**-7, 10, 15, 53, 62 21, 24, 25, 26, 43 Orion **7**-43, 45 photosynthetic **3**-28 osteoporosis **1**-41 physics **6**-4, 5, 6, 9, 17, 19, 35, 49, ounces 8-54, 57, 58, 59 52, 56, 58, 60, 61, 62 outer planet(s) 7-14, 28pi **8**-52 outer space **7**-4, 5, 46, 50, 54, 58, 59, pigments **3**-14, 15, 18, 28 61.62 pinnate pattern **3**-15 pint **8**-58, 59 ovaries **1**-19, 20, 40 pistils **3**-36, 54 ovary **3**-17, 18, 23 pixels **9**-50 oxygen **1**-4, 8, 11, 12, 17, 23, 24, 25, placenta **1**-35, 37 26, 35; **3**- 4, 6, 24, 25, 29, 43; **4**-22, 23, 50, 53, 54, 60 placentals 2-48

Planck, Max 6-49 planet(s) **4-**13, 14, 20, 22, 24, 32, 54, 56, 59, 62; **7**-18-23, 25-40, 52, 53, 58, 60.62 planetary day **7**-20, 21, 22, 27, 31, 33, 35, 37 planetary year **7**-20, 21, 22, 27, 31, 33, 35, 37 planetoid(s) **7**-40 plankton **3**-28, 29 plant products 3-58, 59 planting **3**-61 plasma **1**-11, 54 plow **9**-6 plus sign 8-14 Pluto 7-4, 7, 13, 14, 38, 39 plutonium **6**-56 pneumonia **1**-47, 48 poaching **2**-32, 61 point **8**-13, 28, 32, 33, 34, 39, 41, 42, 44, 45, 48, 51, 53, 62 polar bear **2-**6, 28, 29 polar ice cap(s) **7**-6, 25, 26 Polaris **7**-10, 11 pole(s) **4-**7, 8, 12, 46; **6**-32; **7**-11, 24, 26pollen **3**-16, 17, 18, 21, 22, 23, 24, 35, 36, 37, 38, 54 pollinate **3**-23, 38, 54 pollination **3**-23, 24, 36, 38, 54 pollution **4-**54, 57, 62 polygons **8**-49, 50 polyhedrons 8-50 polynomial equations 8-41 pomologist **3**-61 population **4-**56, 60 porous **4-**16 positive charge **6**-28, 29, 30 potential energy **6**-24, 26, 48 pound **8**-54, 56, 57, 58 power 8-4, 38, 41, 42, 60 prairie(s) **3**-48; **4**-11, 52, 53 precipitation **4-**38, 39, 40 predator(s) **2**-10, 13, 17, 18, 31, 49, 51, 52, 53, 54; **4-**53 pregnancy **1**-6, 34, 35, 36 pressure **4-**15, 16, 20, 24, 28, 37; **7**-15, 17, 21, 28, 29

prev **2**-10, 13, 14, 19, 22, 25, 26, 30, 52, 53, 57 primates **2**-35, 37, 48 printer **9**-29, 54, 56 prism **6**-50, 51 probability 8-36 probe **7**-7, 20, 21, 27, 31, 32, 33, 35, 37, 40, 53, 58, 60, 62 proboscis **2**-4, 16 product 8-16, 17, 19, 28, 38 projector **9**-52 proofs 8-6 propellers **9**-13, 14, 22, 23 proportions 8-28 proteins 1-8, 50; 3-9, 27 protista **3**-7, 9, 28 protozoa **2**-11 protractor **8**-45 Ptolemaeus, Claudius **7**-8 puberty **1**-39, 40 pulse **1**-10, 35 pumice **4-**16 pyramid **8**-43, 48 Pythagorean theorem 8-48 quadrilaterals 8-51 quantum mechanics 6-49 quart **8**-50, 54, 58, 59 quotient **8**-19, 20, 21 radar **9**-43 radiation **6**-40, 41, 49, 56, 60; **7**-22, 54, 57 radio **9**-26, 38, 41, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48.61 radio waves 6-47; 9-38, 43, 46, 47, 48 radioactive decay 6-8 radius **8**-51, 52, 53, 54 rain forest(s) **3**-27, 40; **4**-53, 54, 57 rain storm **4-**40 rainbows 6-51 RAM 9-28, 53, 54 ratios 8-5, 26, 27, 28, 35 ravs **8**-44 reaction force **6**-11 reaction(s) **7**-15, 17 real numbers 8-39 reaper **9**-7 receiver **9**-35, 37, 39 rectangles 8-43, 48, 49

rectum **1**-13, 28, 29 saliva **1**-28, 49 red blood cells **1**-12, 24, 30 San Andreas Fault **4-**30 red dwarf **7**-44, 45 sap **3**- 43 reflection **6**- 48, 49 saprophytes **3**-30 satellite(s) **6**-13; **7**-6, 7, 23, 28, 29, 38, refraction **6**-48, 50 refractor telescope **7**-57 53, 58, 60; **9**-24, 41, 42, 45, 46, 48 region **4-**55 Saturn 7-4, 6, 7, 10, 12, 14, 28, 31, remainders 8-20 32, 33, 34, 37 reproduce **2**-9, 40, 45, 46 scab **1**-46 reproduction **1**-41; **2**-44, 45, 46, 47, scales **2**-5, 17, 19, 20, 23 48, 49; **3**-16, 22, 24 scanner **9**-29, 40 scar **1**-46 reptiles **2**-10, 19, 20, 21, 23, 24, 46, 49, 56, 62 scientific notation 8-38 repulsion **6**-8, 54 scientists 1-4, 5, 6, 9, 32, 33, 50, 57, resistors 9-26 61, 62; **3**-7, 10, 20, 54, 55, 59, 60, 61 resources **4-**56, 62 scorpions **2**-7, 14 respiration 1-26 Scott, Robert **4-**13 retrograde **7**-20, 37 scrub **3**-38, 39 revolution **7**-13, 21, 27, 31, 33, 35, 37 sea lion **2**-42 revolve(s) **7**-6, 8, 9, 13, 16, 18, 22, 24, seals **2**-10, 28, 42 28, 31 season(s) **4-**7, 46; **7**-34 seaweed **3**-29, 56 rhinos **2**-32, 33, 61 rhizoids **3**-33, 34 second law of motion 6-10, 11 rhizomes **3**-12, 35 sedimentary rock(s) **4-**16, 18, 19, 33 rhombuses 8-51 seeds **3**-6, 8, 12, 14, 16, 17, 18, 19, Richter Scale **4-**30, 31 20, 21, 24, 35, 44, 45, 49, 51, 54, right angle **8**-5, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 51 56.57 right triangles 8-47, 48 segments **2**-13, 14, 15 river(s) **4-**5, 10, 11, 18, 28, 32, 33. seismologist(s) 4-30, 6236, 41, 49, 50 senses **1**-21, 22, 23, 41 robots **9**-59, 60 sensory organs 1-21 rockets **6**-26; **9**-11, 24, 25 sepals **3**-17, 36, 37, 38 set theory 8-22 rodents **2**-7, 40, 41, 52 ROM **9**-28, 53, 54, 55 sets 8-5, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26 Roman numerals 8-9, 13 shark **2**-18, 55 roosting **2**-6 sheep **2**-9, 33, 59 roots **3**-10, 11, 14, 21, 22, 26, 27, 28, shells **2**-11, 12, 14, 15, 20, 23, 25, 41, 0, 45, 47, 49, 52, 54, 56, 57; **8**-39, 40 46, 51 rotate (s) **4-**7, 8, 46; **7**-13, 16, 18, 20, ships **9**-12, 14, 15, 37, 47 22, 25, 28, 31, 34 short-wave radio 9-48 rotation **7**-13, 19, 20, 21, 27, 31, 33, shrimp **2**-7, 15, 58 35.37 shrubs **3**-27, 38, 39 router **9**-56 simple flowers **3**-36 row **8**-16, 19, 36 skeletal muscles **1**-16. 24 Rowland, Sherwood F. skeleton **1**-14. 15 **4-**58 rye **3**-31, 47 skin 1-8, 21, 23, 29, 31, 36, 40, 44, sage **3**-45, 47 45, 46, 48, 53, 54, 58 sailboat 9-13 skull **1**-6, 14, 15

Index

4-39, 40, 42 sleet smell **1**-9, 21, 22, 41 smog **4-**57 snake **2**-5, 10, 19, 20, 21, 22, 46, 49.56 sneezes **1**-27, 49 snow **4-**32, 33, 38, 40, 41, 42, 46, 49, 55.62 software **9**-53, 54 solar calendar **7**-6, 9 solar eclipse **7**-18 solar energy **7**-17 Solar System **4-**4, 8, 9, 20; **7**-19, 27, 28, 30, 31, 33, 34, 36, 37, 39, 40, 44, 49,60 sonar **9**-43 sound **6**-5, 23, 24, 34, 43, 44, 45, 60 space mission(s) **7**-24, 29, 59 Space Shuttle 9-11, 25 space station **6**-16 spacecraft v27, 30, 33, 57, 58, 59 spaceships **6**-12, 13 speakers **9**-45, 46, 48 specialists **1**-57, 58, 59, 60 species **2**-7, 8, 9, 24, 27, 29, 32, 43, 44, 45, 50, 54, 55, 60, 61; **4-**47, 52, 54, 56, 57, 56, 59 spectrum **6**-46, 47, 50, 51 speed **6**-6, 8, 9, 10, 15, 16, 26, 35, 43, 44, 45, 46, 50, 51, 52, 54 speed of light 6-35, 45, 46, 52 speed of sound **6**-44 speedboat **9-13** sperm(s) **1**-19, 20, 30, 31, 32, 34, 40, 42; **3**-16 sphere(s) **4-**6, 8; **7**-16, 18, 27, 39, 48; **8**-6, 43, 52, 53 spices **3**-45, 46 spider **2**-5, 7, 14, 44 spine **1**-6, 9, 14, 16, 17, 18, 41 sponges **2**-12 spores **3**-16, 21, 22, 27, 30, 32, 33, 35 superset **8**-23, 24, 25 sprout **3**-12, 20, 22, 35, 45 square 8-39, 40, 42, 43, 48, 49, 51, 62square root **8**-39, 40 squared numbers 8-38

squid **2**-12, 51, 58 squirrels **2**-4, 40 stalactite **4-**34 stalagmite **4-**34 stamens **3**-17, 22, 36, 37 star(s) **7**-5, 6, 8-12, 15, 16, 21, 28, 35, 40-53, 55, 62 starfish **2**-12, 13, 45, 61 static electricity **6**-29 statistics 8-34, 35, 49 steamboat **9**-14, 15 stems **3**-11, 12, 13, 14, 22, 24, 27, 28, 35, 40, 45, 34, 47, 51, 52, 56, 57 stereo 9-44, 45, 46 stigma **3**-17, 23 stomach 1-13, 14, 28, 48, 53 storm(s) **7**- 26, 29, 30, 32, 37 strata **4-**18 stratosphere **4-**23 stratus cloud(s) **4-**40 streetcar **9**-16 strong nuclear force 6-7, 8 structural tissue **3**-27 submarine **9**-11, 15, 43 subset 8-23, 24, 25, 26 substance(s) **4-**20 subtraction 8-11, 12, 14, 15, 16 subtrahend 8-15 subway **9**-16, 17 succulent **3**-51 sugar(s) **3**-25, 26, 27, 31, 32 sulfur **4-**15, 57, 58 sum **8**-13, 14, 35, 46, 48, 51, 53 Sun **6**-5, 6, 7, 15, 16, 25, 31, 34, 35, 36, 40, 43, 46, 51, 52, 53, 55; **7**-4-19, 21-28, 31, 33-42, 44, 45, 47, 49 sunspot(s) **7**-17 superconductors 6-42 supercontinent **4-**9 supergiant(s) **7**-45 supernova **7**-6, 15, 47 surface **4-**7, 9, 10, 13, 14, 16, 18, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 28, 30, 31, 33, 35, 38, 42, 49, 60; 7-7, 17-21, 23, 25-27, 30-33, 35, 37, 58, 60 surgery **9**-29, 33, 34

swan **2**-26, 27 swim **2**-5, 15, 17, 20, 21, 22, 26, 27, 42symbiosis **2**-55 symbols 8-5, 6, 14, 15, 17, 20, 24 system(s) **1**-5, 7, 8, 12, 13, 14, 19, 23, 24, 29, 40, 50, 51, 54, 57, 58, 59,60 tally marks 8-11 taproots **3**-11 taste 1-9, 21, 22, 23, 41 tea(s) **3**-47 technology **9**-4, 5, 10, 21, 22, 25, 29 31, 32, 34, 35, 44, 46, 49, 54, 61, 6 tectonic plate **4-**25, 30 teeth 1-6, 28, 29, 38, 39 telegraph **9**-18, 35, 36, 37, 39, 47, telephones 9-4, 5, 18, 36, 37, 38, 3 40, 41, 58, 61 telescope **7**-5-9, 20, 25, 30, 31, 35, 38, 41, 42, 44, 54, 57, 58, 59 television **9**-21, 26, 33, 41, 42, 44, 49, 51, 53, 54, 55, 58, 61 temperature **4-**14, 15, 20, 32, 37, 4 46, 49, 55, 59, 60; **6**-4, 25, 36, 37, 39, 40, 42, 44; 7-17-20, 22, 23, 26, 32, 34, 36, 37, 44, 45; 8-54, 61 temperature scale **6**-36, 39 tendons **1**-16, 17, 45 tendrils **3**-12, 40, 49 tens **8**-11, 33 tenths **8**-33 terrapin **2**-20, 23 Tesla. Nikola **9**-28 testicles (testes) **1**-19, 20, 40 testosterone **1**-20, 39 tetanus **1**-45, 46, 47, 51 texture **4-**16 theorems 8-6 theory **7**-53, 54, 55, 62 thermodynamics **6**-36, 41 thermometers **6**-38, 39 thermosphere **4-**23 thermostats 6-38 thickets **3**-38, 39 thigmotropism **3**-49 third law of motion **6**-11

	thorax 2 -16
	thousandths 8 -33
	thread 3 -30, 33, 58
	throat 1 -12, 28, 47, 48, 50
	thrust 6 -26
21,	thundercloud(s) 4- 39
,	thunderstorm 4- 37, 40
	ticks 2 -14, 55
	tide pool 4- 47
	tide(s) 4- 20, 21, 47; 6 -16, 25
	tigers 2 -18, 29, 30, 53
	time 8 -5, 8, 10, 11, 13, 15, 16, 17, 19,
9,	20, 21, 35, 36, 37, 38, 40, 47, 49, 52,
52	54, 60, 61
	tines 3 -5, 27, 38, 39, 40
	tissue(s) 1 -7, 14, 16, 20, 23, 33, 35,
52	40, 46, 49, 53, 54
9,	Titan 7 -6, 32, 33
	Tombaugh, Clyde 7 -7, 38
36,	ton 8 -57
	tongue 1 -21, 22, 28
48,	
	tornados(s) 4- 43
42,	trachea 1 -12, 26
38,	tractor 9 -5, 6
28,	trains 9 -11, 16, 17, 18, 20
	transistors 9 -26
	transportation 9 -10, 12, 16, 17
	trees 3 -5, 6, 8, 11, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17,
	18, 20, 24, 27, 28, 29, 31, 32, 35, 38,
	39, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 48, 49, 51,
	52, 53, 58, 60, 61, 62
	trenches 4- 25, 26
	triangles 8 -43, 46, 47, 48
	trigonometry 8 -6, 48
	trolley 9 -16, 17, 18
	tropical storm 4- 44
	tropisms $3-49, 50$
	troposphere 4 -23
	trucks 9 -18, 20, 21, 22, 48
	trunks 3 -13, 42, 43, 45 tsunami 4 -22
	tubers 3 -12 turtles 2 20 22 22 40 51
	turtles 2 -20, 22, 23, 49, 51 Tuskegee Institute 3 -58
	twigs $3-13, 20$
	two-dimensional shapes 8 -43
	two-unitensional shapes 0-40

ultrasound **9**-33 ultraviolet light **6**-46 umbilical cord **1**-35, 37 underwater **2**-12, 15, 17, 19, 41 Universe **7**-8, 9, 52-60, 62 uranium **6**-56 Uranus **7**-4, 6, 7, 12, 14, 28, 34, 35, 36.37 urethra **1**-18, 19 urine **1**-18, 29 Ursa Major **7**-43 USB port **9**-54, 55 uterus **1**-19, 35, 36, 40 vagina **1**-19 vapor **4-**9, 22, 23 variables 8-37, 38, 41, 42 VCR **9**-49, 51 Vega **7**-11 vehicle(s) **9**-11, 18, 19, 21, 43, 62 velocity **6**-8, 9, 26 Venn diagrams 8-24, 25, 26 Venn, John 8-26 ventricle(s) **1**-10, 24 Venus **7**-12, 14, 20, 21, 47 vertebrae 1-5, 6, 14, 16, 17, 41 vertebrates **2**-10, 12, 13, 14, 17, 19, 20, 25, 28, 37 veterinarian **2**-62 video cameras **9-**51 virtual reality **9**-62 viruses 1-4, 47, 49, 50 viruses (in computers) 9-32, 56 visible light 6-46, 47 visible spectrum 6-46, 51 VoIP **9**-58 volcanology **4-**6 volts **6**-31 volume 8-6, 52, 58, 59, 60 Von Nageli, Karl **3**-27 Voyager1 **7**-7, 30, 33, 60 Wallis, John 8-9 warm-blooded **2**-10, 14, 25, 28 water plants **3**-50 water table **4-**34 water vapor 7-29

4-13, 21; **6**-35, 40, 43, 44, wave(s) 45, 47, 51 wavelengths **6**-48, 49, 51 weak nuclear force 6-7, 8 weather **4-**5, 7, 20, 23, 33, 37, 38, 39, 43, 44, 46, 49, 52, 55, 60, 62 weather vane **4-**38 weathering **4-**5, 18, 33 websites **9**-9 Wegener, Alfred **4-**27 weight 6-4, 5, 15; 8-5, 54, 56, 57 weightless **7**-62 whale **2**-4, 7, 43, 59, 61 wheat **3**-6, 15, 31, 47, 57 white blood cell **1**-11, 50, 53 white dwarf **7**-45, 47 Whitney, Eli **9**-8 whole numbers 8-8, 10, 22, 23, 32, 33 Wi-Fi 9-56, 57, 58 wild **2**-29, 31, 33, 36, 40, 53, 57, 62 Williams, Dr. Daniel Hale **1-**61 wind resistance 6-12, 14 windsock **4-**38 wings **2**-5, 16, 24, 25, 26, 27, 47 wisdom teeth **1**-39 wolves **2**-31, 53 Woods, Granville T. 9-18 work **6**-4, 5, 6, 8, 17, 19, 23, 28, 36, 39, 40, 43, 49, 52, 56, 60, 61 World Wide Web **9-58** worms **2**-10, 12, 13, 42, 47, 52, 59 x-axis 8-41, 42 xylem **3**-10 vard **8**-55, 56 y-axis 8-41, 42 yeasts **3**-9, 30, 31 zebra **2**-10, 33, 51, 61 zero **8**-5, 6, 8, 10, 11, 12, 14, 16, 17, 20. 21. 41 zoology **2**-62