The Web of Life

Ecology and Ecosystems

Advanced Regents Living Environment

What is a Species?

A species is a group of organisms that share the most common characteristics and are capable of reproducing fertile offspring.



Population

A population is comprised of all the members of a single species in a given location.



Community

A community is made up of all the interacting populations in a given location.





Ecosystem

An ecosystem is comprised of the community and the physical environment in which they live.



Biosphere

The biosphere is made up of all the ecosystems that exist on Earth. Essentially the biosphere is the zone of life on Earth. It includes the living and nonliving parts of ecosystems.

Characteristics of an Ecosystem

Species within an ecosystem compete for limited resources.

 Community members interact within and among their species.

There also is an interdependence between the community and the physical environment.

Survivial of an Ecosystem

Ecosystems are stable and self-sustaining

✓ there is a constant source of energy

if:





 There is a cycling of materials between the community members and the physical environment

Ecosystem: Abiotic Factors

- Abiotic factors are the non-living parts of the ecosystem.
 Such factors include:
 - Substratum soil and rock
 - -pH: acid rain can make soil pH too low for plant growth -texture of soil and clay content: determines the quantity
 - of water the soil can hold
 - --minerals such as nitrates & phosphates determine what vegetation can grow in a given area
 - --humus quality: determined by the amount of decaying plant and animal life in the soil
 - Sunlight: serves as the ultimate source of energy most living organisms
 - Water: essential to all life and a major component of all living organisms
 - Salinity: the relative saltiness of a given body of water
 - Oxygen Supply
 - ✓ Temperature

Properties of Populations

Size: the total number of individuals in a population. Limited by:

- number of births & number of deaths
- immigration & emigration
- Density: number of individuals per unit area or volume. Difficult to count the number of organisms in a given area.

Mark and recapture: organisms are captured, tagged, and released. The process is repeated at a later date, and the density of the population is then calculated by mathematical formula.

Carrying Capacity of an Ecosystem

Carrying Capacity: the maximum number of organisms a ecosystem can support.



Initial exponential growth followed by overproduction too large for the environment to sustain. In an effort to maintain *dynamic* equilibrium with the environment, the population fluctuates around the *carrying* capacity.

Competition Limits Population Size

In any ecosystem, resources such as oxygen, carbon dioxide, water, nutrients, space, and sunlight are limited in supply.

 Since resources are finite, organisms must compete with one another for survival.

Interspecies Competition



Intraspecies Competition



Competition and Niche

- Niche: the role of the organism in its environment (the way it relates to and uses the environment in which it lives).
- Competitive Exclusion Principle: Two species cannot co-exist together if they share the same niche.



Limiting Population Size

Other factors that limit the size of a given population include:

abiotic factors such as temperature range, intensity of light, mineral availability, water, type of rock/soil, pH of soil.

 One of the most important biotic factors that limits the size of a population is the relationship between predator and prey.

 Predators kill their prey, reducing their numbers. When there are too few prey, predators begin to die off. With few predators to feed on them, the prey begin to repopulate.



Prey populations peak before predator populations so there is enough food to support the increase in predators.

Lynx and the Snowshoe Rabbit

- For over 300 years, the Hudson Bay Company has been involved in the fur trade in Canada.
- Detailed company records list the number of snowshoe hare and lynx pelts collected by hunters and trappers every year since the late 1700s.
 - The data they collected demonstrates a cyclical pattern of population changes between the showshoe hare and lynx populations.



Predation and Adaptation

- Many plants and animals have defenses against predation.
- Plants have evolved spines, thorns, and chemical poisons such as strychnine, mescaline, morphine, and nicotine to fend off attack by animals.
- Some animals have ACTIVE defenses such as hiding, fleeing, or defending themselves. These defenses are costly in terms of energy.

Passive defenses such as camouflage to fend off predators without a large expenditure of energy.

Aposematic Coloration

The very bright coloration is a signal of special defenses and is a warning to would be predators to stay away.

Regal Ring-Necked Snake





Poison Dart Frogs

Batesian Mimicry

Otherwise known as copycat coloration, where one harmless animal mimics the coloration of another that is poisonous.



Mullerian Mimicry

Two or more poisonous species resemble each other and gain an advantage from their combined numbers.

Predators learn quickly to avoid any prey with that coloration.



Helliconius butterflies, tropics of the Western Hemisphere

Symbiosis: Mutualism

Both organisms
 benefit (+,+) from the association.

Examples include nitrogen fixers and legumes, termites and protozoa, rhino and tick bird (oxpecker), crocodile and Egyptian plover (crocodile bird)





Symbiosis: Commensualism

One organism benefits and the other is not helped or harmed (+.0). Eamples include barnacles on a whale, ramora fish and sharks, and orchids and tropical trees.





Symbiosis: Parasitism

One organism, the parasite, benefits while the other organism, the host, is harmed (+,-). Examples include a tapeworm and humans, athlete's foot and humans, heartworm and dogs.





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Community Structure

 Producers: convert light energy (sun) into chemical bond energy of food. Autotrophs are producers.
 ✓ Producers are the FOUNDATION of any community, passing their energy to other organisms.

 Terrestrial Environments: green plants and photosynthetic bacteria are producers (autotrophs)

 Aquatic Environments: algae and phytoplankton are the producers

Consumers: must obtain nutrients from the environment. Heterotrophs are consumers.

- Herbivores: plant eaters (primary consumers)
- Carnivores: meat eaters (secondary or tertiary consumers)

Omnivores: eat both plants and meat (secondary or tertiary consumers)

Community Structure (cont'd)

- Scavengers: eat left over remains of dead organisms killed by other predators, helping to clean carcasses of their flesh.
 - Examples of scavengers include hyenas and vultures.
- Organisms of Decay: also known as saprophytes or decomposers (detrivores)
 - Decompose dead organisms and recycle materials such as carbon dioxide, nitrogen, phosphorous, and other inogranic compounds back into the environment.
 - Bacteria and fungi are the primary decomposers in most communities.

Food Chains

Simply, food chains show what organisms eat.
The arrows indicate the flow of energy through the food chain.



In this food chain, the grass, the producer, is being eaten by the grasshopper (herbivore and primary consumer), which is eaten by the shrew (carnivore and secondary consumer), which is then eaten by the owl (carnivore and tertiary or third level consumer.

Food Webs

 In stable ecosystems, most organisms have more than one kind of food source.
 Food webs help to maintain the stability of an ecosystem.

If one population declines, organisms that feed on that declining population will then rely more heavily on other food sources until the declining population recovers.



Energy Flow through an Ecosystem

- Much of the energy producers absorb from the sun is either used to "fuel" their metabolic life processes.
- As producers maintain their metabolic processes, some of the energy is converted to heat and lost to the environment.
- In fact, only 10% of the solar energy absorbed by producers is available to primary consumers for their life activities.
- As energy moves through the food chain, only 10% of the energy taken in by the primary consumers is available to the secondary consumers.
- Since most of the available stored energy is lost in a few steps, most food chains are usually very short.

Pyramid of Energy

 Food chains can be arranged into pyramids to illustrate the loss of energy at each consumer level (known as trophic levels).



Pyramid of Biomass

Each trophic level provides less energy to the level above it.

- Therefore, each succeeding level of the food chain has to have less mass than the level below it in order to survive.
 - In other words, a large mass of producers is needed at the based of the pyramid to support a few connivers at the top of the pyramid.



Water Cycle

Physical Changes

- Evaporation
- ✓ Transpiration
- ✓ condendation
- Chemical Changes
 - photosynthesis
 cellular respiration



When water falls on land, it will often infiltrate the soil and eventually enter a body of water through the process of percolation (the downward movement of water through saturated or nearly saturated water.

Carbon Oxygen Cycle

- Photosynthesis releases oxygen to the environment which is used during Respiration, releasing carbon dioxide to the atmosphere.
- Oxygen is also used during industrial and residential Combustion (burning of fuel) releasing Carbon Dioxide to the atmosphere.
- Carbon Dioxide is used by autotrophic organisms during Photosynthesis.
- When living organisms die, Decomposers break down chemicals in the tissues, releasing Carbon Dioxide into the environment.



Nitrogen Cycle

- Animals and plants die
- Decomposers (break down dead organisms, NH₃ into the soil
- Nitrifying bacteria in the soil converts ammonia into nitrates.
- Denitrifying bacteria in the soil takes some of the nitrates, breaks them down and releases free nitrogen (N₂) into the air.
- Nitrogen fixing bacteria found in the soil and in the nodules on the roots of legumes (peas, beans, clover, peanuts, soy) takes free nitrogen from the air and converts it into nitrates that plants can absorb and use to make proteins and DNA.



Biodiversity

- The measure of the degree to which species vary within an ecosystem
- Can be subdivided into 3 different levels:
 - Genetic Diversity: deals with the variations among inherited biological traits (genes) of each species.
 - --important to the survival of a species
 - Species Diversity: the greater the biodiversity of an ecosystem, the more stable the ecosystem is.
 - -- Serves as a barrier to the spread of disease.
 - Ecosystem Diversity: deals with the variety of species in natural communities which are interdependent on one another.

Threats to Biodiversity Physical alteration of habit areas **Introduction of alien species** Exploitation for human consumption Air, water, and land pollution **Continual increase in human population** Wasteful consumption and management of limited resources.

Why Should We Care?

Maintenance of soil quality
Maintenance of air quality
Pest control
Diversity of food resources
Sources of Medicines



Biodiversity

Biomagnification

- Biomagnification is the increase in concentration of a pollutant from one link in a food chain to another.
- Pesticides, fertilizers, and other pollutants enter aquatic ecosystems as a result of *RUNOFF*.
- These pollutants pass up the food chain, becoming more concentrated at each trophic level.
 - The top level consumer has the greatest concentration of pesticide, which can cause a variety of reproductive problems, resulting in a decrease in its population.



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Ecological Succession

- Series of changes where one community is replaced by another until a stabile stage is reached.
- Pioneer Organisms: first organisms to populate a give area or location.
- Climax Community: self-perpetuating community in which populations remain stable and exist in balance with the environment.
- Producers determine what animals can live in a given location.
 Each communitymodifies its environment making it more favorable for another community to move in.



Freshwater Succession of a Pond

Pond A



Pond B



Pond C



Pond D



Secondary Succession





Ash layer Buried seeds Deposition of minerals



