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What sound does an elephant make

Air, like all matter, consists of molecules. Even a small air zone contains a large number of air molecules. Molecules are moving continuously, moving randomly and at high speeds. They constantly collide and bounce back from each other and attack and recover from objects exposed to air. A vibrating object creates sound waves in the air. For example, when the head of a drum is pressed with a mallet, the drumhead vibrates and produces sound waves. The vibrating drum head produces sound waves as it moves alternately outwards and inwards, pushes back, then moves away, the air next to it. Air molecules that attack the empty head while it is moving out recover from it with more energy and their normal speed, received a push from the empty head. These faster-moving molecules move into the surrounding air. For a moment, therefore, the area next to the empty head has a larger concentration of air molecules than usual - it becomes a compression zone. As molecules move faster past air molecules in the surrounding air, they collide with them and transmit more of their energy. The compression area moves outwards as the energy from the top of the vibration drum is shifted to groups of molecules further and further away. Air molecules attack the empty head while it is moving in to recover from it with less energy and their normal speed. For a moment, so the area next to the empty head had fewer air molecules than usual - it became an area of rarefaction. Molecules that collide with these slower-moving molecules also recover at less than normal speeds, and the rarefaction area goes out. The wave nature of sound becomes apparent when a graph is drawn to show changes in the concentration of air molecules at some point as the alternating pulses of compression and rarefaction pass that point. The graph gives a single pure tone, such as that created by an adjustable fork. The curve shows changes in concentration. It begins, arbitrarily, at some point when the concentration is normal and a compression pulse only arrives. The distance of each point on the curve from the horizontal axis shows how much the concentration varies from normal. Each compression and the following rarefaction make up a cycle. (A cycle can also be measured from any point on the curve to the next corresponding point.) The frequency of sound is measured in cycles per second, or hertz (abbreviated as Hz). The margin is the largest amount by which the concentration of air molecules differs from normal. The wavelength of sound is the distance that the disturbance moves in a cycle. It is related to the speed and frequency of sound according to the speed / frequency formula = wavelength. This means that high-frequency sounds have short wavelengths and long wavelengths of low-frequency sound. The In static air at room temperature, sounds with these frequencies have wavelengths of 75 feet (23 m) and 0.68 inches (1.7 cm) in turn. Intensity refers to the amount of energy transmitted through disturbance. It is proportional to the normality of the margin. Strength is measured in watts per square centimeter or in decibels (db). The decibel scale is defined as follows: The intensity of 10-16 watts per square centimeter is equal to 0 db. (Written as a tithing, 10-16 appears as 0.0 billion.) Each tenfold increase in watts per square centimeter means a 10 db increase. Therefore the intensity of 10-15 watts per square centimeter can also be expressed in the form of 10 db and a strength of 10-4 (or 0.0001) watts per square centimeter of 120 db. The sound intensity decreases rapidly with increasing distance from the source. For a small audio source that radiates energy evenly in all directions, the intensity varies in reverse with the square the distance from the source. That is, at a distance of two feet from the source the intensity is a great quarter as it is at a distance of one foot; at three feet it's only a ninth as great as at one foot, etc. PitchPitch depends on frequency; in general, an increase in the frequency causes a feeling of surge. However, the ability to distinguish between two sounds with close frequencies together decreases in the upper and lower parts of the audio frequency range. There is also a change from person to person in the ability to distinguish between two sounds of very almost the same frequency. Some trained musicians can detect frequency differences as small as 1 or 2 Hz.Because of the way in which the listening mechanism functions, the perception of the pitch is also affected by the intensity. So when a vibrating adjustable fork at 440 Hz (the frequency of A on the middle C on the piano) is brought closer to the ear, a slightly lower tone, as if the fork vibrates more slowly, is heard. When the origin of a sound is moving at a relatively high speed, a radio office listener hears a higher sound in the yard when the source is moving towards him or her, and a lower sound in the yard when the source is moving away. This phenomenon, known as the Doppler effect, is caused by the wave nature of sound. Great in general, an increase in intensity will cause a feeling of increased great intensity. But the great length does not increase in direct proportion to the intensity. A sound of 50 dB has ten times the intensity of a sound of 40 dB, but is only twice as loud. The noise level doubles with each increase of 10 dB. Noise levels are also affected by frequency, because the human ear is more sensitive to some frequencies than others. The listening threshold — the lowest sound intensity that creates a sense of listening for most people — is about 0 dB in the next 2,000 For the frequencies below and above this range, the sound must have a greater intensity to listen to. So, for example, a sound of 100 Hz is almost impossible to hear at 30 dB; a sound of 10,000 Hz is almost impossible to hear at 20 dB. At 120 to 140 dB most people experience physical discomfort or actual pain, and this intensity level is called the pain threshold. Advertising elephant calves are cared for by their aunts, sisters and mothers, with the mother responsible for providing breast milk while the aunts and sisters protect and babyfeed the newborn. Because elephant calves are born only once every five years, this practice allows young female elephants, known as allomothers, to learn to take care of their young in the future. According to PBS, calves are often born into extended families led by a matriarch. Adult male elephants leave the herd when they are 14 years old, traveling alone or in a single herd rejo join the female herd during the 2016 arising season. Calves can walk and follow herds within half an hour after birth. In the first year, they depend entirely on their mother for milk. At about four months old, elephant calves begin experimenting with their trunks and mimicking the behavior of adults around them, slowly learning to capture grass and solid food and forage among vegetation. After five years, calves should be completely weaned while their mother prepares for another newborn. Conservation ambassador Canisius said that females rarely leave their mothers, staying in the same herd until death, but the young leave when they are six. A herd of elephants is called a parade. Elephants naturally live in herds with linear and established social orders. They require large areas for family feeding, breeding, tourism, forage and living. The climate of Asia and Africa is ideal for these activities. Female elephants and male elephants live very different lives. The women live their lives in tightly knit groups with other women including sisters, aunts, daughters and mothers. These groups are led by a matriarch, who is usually the older female. The males live socially active lives, interacting with other males on the borders of groups and their offspring from other flocks. Elephants are considered the strongest mammals and the strongest land animals, as they can carry up to 9,000 kg, thus equal to the weight of approximately 130 adult humans. The elephant body consists of more than 100,000 muscles. The trunk of an elephant is very strong, it is capable of uprooting trees. Elephants also use their stems to collect roots, bathe, cool themselves, detect scents and communicate with other elephants. The sense of smell of an elephant is 100 times better than one, due to the fact that there are sensory bodies located in its entire trunk. Adult elephants can weigh up to 7,500 and typically consumes between 220 and 440 pounds of vegetation per day. Sure, everyone is familiar with North American Mastodon and Woolly Mammoth–but how much do you know about the ancestor pachyderms of the Mesotheatic Era, some of which pre-modern elephants of tens of millions of years? In this slideshow, you'll track the slow, majestic progress of elephant evolution over 60 million years, starting with pig-sized Phosphatherium and ending with the immediate foreate of modern pachyderms, Primelephas. DagdaMor / Wikimedia Commons / CC BY-SA 4.0 Just five million years after the dinosaurs went extinct, mammals have evolutioned in impressive size. The three-foot-long, 30-pound phosphatherium (phosphate monster) is not as large as a modern elephant, and it looks like a tapir or a small pig, but the various characteristics of its head, teeth and skull confirm its identity as an early proboscid. Phosphatherium probably led an amphibious lifestyle, stalking the wetlands of the Paleocene in northern Africa for delicious vegetation. LadyofHats / Wikimedia Commons / Public Domain If you go back in time and get a glimpse of Phosphatherium (previous slide), you probably won't know if it's destined to grow into a pig, elephant or hippo. The same can't be said of Phiomia, a ten-foot-long, half-ton first eoboscid elephant that resides unmistakable on the elephant family tree. The gift, of course, is Phiomia's long incisis and flexible snout, which adumbrated the ivory and stems of modern elephants. Nobumichi Tamura/Stocktrek Images/Getty Images Despite its evocative name, Palaeomastodon is not a direct descendant of North American Mastodon, arriving at the scene tens of millions of years later. Instead, this rough contemporary of Phiomia is an impressively sized ancestor proboscid –about twelve feet long and two tons– which stomped through the swamps of northern Africa and dredged up vegetation with tusks under its spoon shape (in addition to the shorter pairs, the tusks were straighter in its upper jaws). Warpaintcobra/Getty Images Third in our North African proboscis trio- after Phiomia and Palaeomastodon (see previous slides)- Moeritherium is much smaller (only about eight feet long and 300 pounds long), with tusks and smaller stems respectively. What makes this Proboscid Eocene unique is that it has led a hippo-like lifestyle, basking half submerged in rivers to protect itself against the fierce African sun. As you might expect, Moeritherium occupies a branch above the pachyderm evolutionary tree and is not directly the ancestor of modern elephants. Nobumichi Tamura / Stocktrek Images / Getty Images The tusks in the shape of a spoon of Palaeomastodon clearly conscover an evolution advantage; witness the even larger shovel-shaped tusks of totality Gomphotherium, 20 million years from now. In the intervening EONs, ancestor elephants actively migrated through the continents of the world, with the result that the oldest Gomphotherium specimens had been found since the early North American Miocene, with other species, later native to Africa and Eurasia. DEA PICTURE LIBRARY/Getty Images Not for nothing Deinotherium joined by the same Greek descent as this terrible dinosaur-mammal is one of the largest proboscides ever to walk the earth, competing in size only by long-extinct thunder beasts like Brontotherium. Amazingly, different species of this five-ton proboscid existed for almost ten million years, until the last breed was slaughtered by humans early before the last ice age. (It is even possible that Deinotherium inspired ancient myths about giants, although this theory is not proven.) Warpaintcobra/Getty Images Who can fight a pre-historic elephant named Stegotetrabelodon? This seven-syymed giant (its Greek origin is translated as four roofing tusks) is derived from, in all places, the Arabian Peninsula, and a flock leaving a set of footprints, discovered in 2012, representing individuals of different ages. There is still a lot we don't know about this four-tusk proboscid, but at least it suggests that much of Saudi Arabia was a lush habitat in the later Miocene and not today's arid desert. Warpaintcobra/Getty Images The only animal ever equipped with its own spores, Platybelodon is the right climax of the evolution line starting with Palaeomastodon and Gomphotherium. So erbing and flattening are the lower tusks of Platybelodon that they resemble a piece of modern construction equipment; apparently, this proboscid spent the day scooping up damp vegetation and shoveling it into its giant mouth. (Platybelodon, by the way, is related to another elephant, Amebelodon.) Ghedo / Wikimedia Commons / Public Domain One usually does not associate the South American continent with elephants. That's what makes Cuvieronius special; this relatively petite proboscid (only about 10 feet long and one ton) colony of South America in the Great American Interchange, facilitated a few million years ago by the arrival of the Central American land bridge. The giant tusk Cuvieronius (named after naturalist Georges Cuvier) persisted to the brink of the historical period when it was hunted to death by the first settlers of the Argentine Pampas. A.C Tatarinov / Wikimedia Commons / CC BY-SA 3.0 With Primelephas, the first elephant, we have finally reached the immediate evolution of modern elephants. Technically, Primelephas was the last common ancestor (or concestor, as Richard Dawkins calls it) of both the long-living African and Eurasian elephants and the recently extinct woolly mammoth. A non-police observer difficulty distinguishing Primelephas from modern pachyderm; giveaway is the small shovel tusk protruding from its lower jaw, a return to its distant ancestors. ancestors.

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