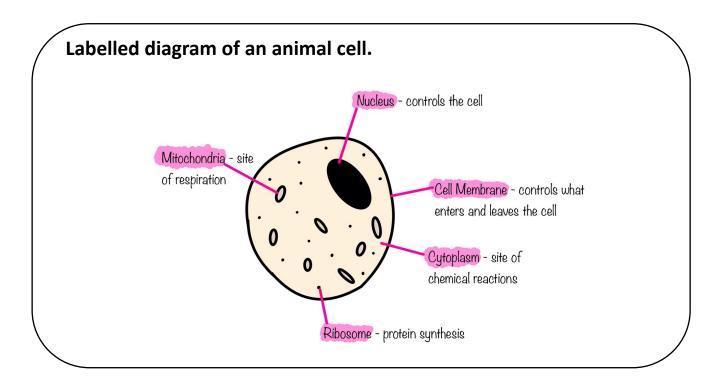
Revision Guide

AQA GSCE Triple
Biology Paper 1
Foundation

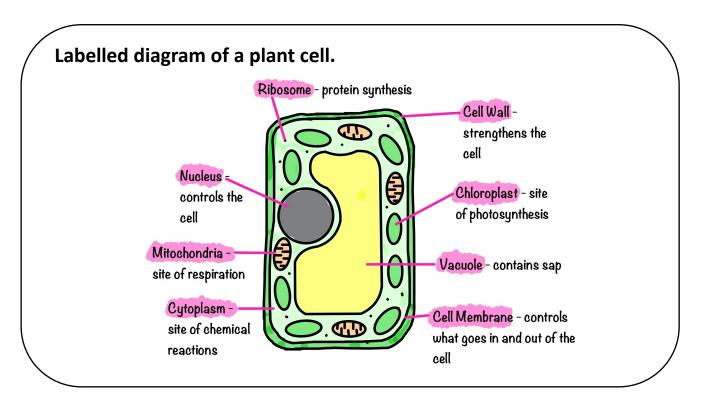
Name: Class:

Animal Cells



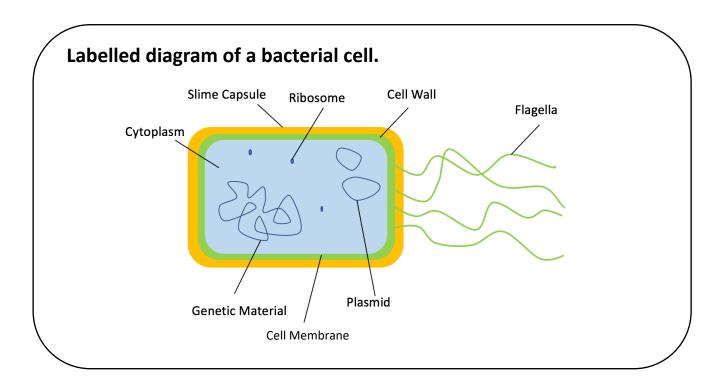
| Cell Part | Function |
|---------------|---|
| Nucleus | Controls the cell |
| Cytoplasm | Site of chemical reactions |
| Cell Membrane | Controls what enters and leaves the cell. |
| Mitochondria | Respiration |
| Ribosome | Protein Synthesis |

Plant Cells



| Cell Part | Function |
|---------------|---|
| Nucleus | Controls the cell |
| Cytoplasm | Site of chemical reactions |
| Cell Membrane | Controls what enters and leaves the cell. |
| Mitochondria | Respiration |
| Ribosome | Protein Synthesis |
| Vacuole | Contains Sap |
| Cell Wall | Strengthens the Cell |
| Chloroplast | Photosynthesis |

Bacterial Cells



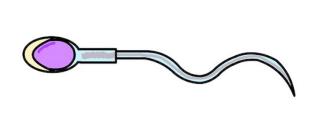
| Cell Part | Function |
|------------------|---|
| Cytoplasm | Site of chemical reactions |
| Slime Capsule | Protects the cell |
| Ribosome | Protein Synthesis |
| Cell Wall | Support the cell |
| Flagella | Rotate to bring about movement |
| Plasmid | Small section of DNA that often provides a genetic advantage to the cell. |
| Genetic Material | Controls the cell. |
| Cell Membrane | Controls what enters and leaves the cell |

Specialised Animal Cells

oerm Ce

Muscle Cell

Diagram



Function

Transport genetic material from the father and fertilise an egg cell.

Adaptations

A tail which whips from side to side for movement.

Lots of mitochondria to provide energy for the movement of the tail.

Streamlined shape.

Diagram



Function

To contract and relax to bring about movement.

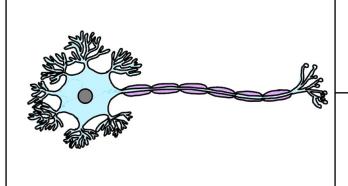
Adaptations

Have lots of mitochondria to transfer energy required for contraction.

They can store glycogen.

Have special proteins that can slide over each other making fibres contract.

Diagram



Function

Carry electrical impulses around the body.

Adaptations

Lots of dendrites to connect to other cells. A long axon to carry the nerve impulses. Myelin sheath for insulation.

Specialised Plant Cells

Diagram

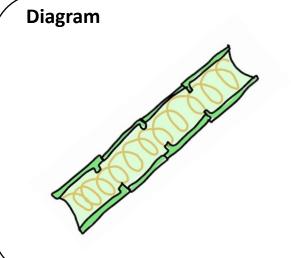
Function

Absorb water and dissolved mineral ions.

Adaptations

Large surface area for increased absorption.

Lots of mitochondria to provide energy for active transport



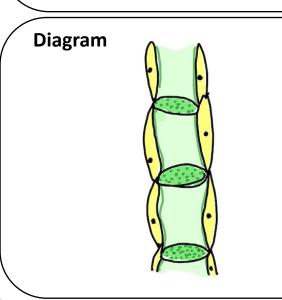
Function

Transports water

Adaptations

Hollow tube to allow more water to travel through.

Spirals of lignin to make it strong to withstand the pressure of water moving through.



Function

Transports sugars

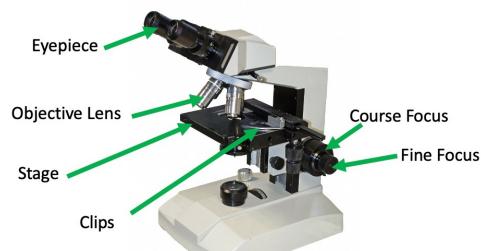
Adaptations

Have sieve plates to allow water carrying dissolved sugars to move freely. Lose internal structure for more space.

Have companion cells to help keep them alive.

Microscope RP

Diagram of a Microscope



How to set up a microscope to observe a sample on a slide

- 1. Add a drop of water to the microscope slide.
- 2. Place a thin layer of tissue on the slide. It is thin so that light can penetrate through the layers.
- 3. Stain the tissue with a couple of drops of iodine solution so that cell parts are visible.
- 4. Lower the cover slip at an angle to prevent air bubbles
- 5. Place the slide on the stage and use the lowest power objective lens.
- 6. Turn the course focus wheel to bring the image into focus.
- 7. Increase the power of the objective lens to increase magnification.
- 8. Turn the fine focus wheel to bring the image into clearer focus.

| Hazard | Risk | Plan to Minimise Risk |
|-----------------------------------|---|---|
| Iodine Solution is an Irritant | May cause allergic reaction or skin rash. | Wash skin immediately Wear gloves Clean up spills |
| Sharp Knife | Cuts | Cut away from the body Cut on chopping board Cover blade when not in use. |

Microscopy

| Type of Microscope | Advantages | Disadvantages |
|------------------------|--|---|
| Light Microscope | Can look at live speculums under the microscope. Cheap Easy to set up Portable | Low resolution Low magnification |
| Electron Microscope | High resolution High magnification | Can't look at live speculums under the microscope. Expensive Difficult to set up Large Have to be kept in rooms with temperature pressure and humidity controlled |

| Key Term | Definition |
|---------------|--|
| Magnification | The ability of a microscope to produce an image of an object at a scale larger than its actual size. |
| Resolution | The ability to distinguish between two separate points. |

Magnification

Equation for Magnification

Magnification = Size of Image / Size of Real Object

Converting Units

1km = 1000m 1m = 100cm 1cm = 10mm 1mm = 1000µm 1µm = 1000nm 1nm = 1 x 10⁻⁹m

Example Calculations

- 1. A microscope has a magnification of x1000 and the image of a cell that is observed has a width of 2.5mm. What is the actual size of the cell? Give your answer in micrometres. 2.5mm = 2500μm (2500 / actual size, 2500/1000 = actual size) Actual size = 2.5μm
- 2. A microscope has a magnification of x400 and the image of a cell that is observed has a width of 5mm. What is the actual size of the cell? Give your answer in micrometres. 5mm = $5000\mu m$ (Actual Size = 5000 / 400) = $12.5\mu m$
- 3. A microscope has a magnification of x400 and the image of a cell that and the cell that is being observed has an actual size of 25 micrometres. How large will the size of the image appear? Give your answer in millimetres. Size of Image = Mag x Size of Object = $400 \times 25 = 10000 \mu m = 10 \mu m$

Magnification

Equation for Magnification

Magnification = Size of Image / Size of Real Object

| | The average diameter of a red blood cell is 0.008mm. On a photograph, the diameter of the red blood cell is 10cm. Calculate the magnification. | A drawn cell is 125mm. The real length of the cell was 0.015625mm. Calculate the magnification of the drawing. | A drawn cell is 3.5cm. The real length of the cell was 0.02916mm. Calculate the magnification of the drawing to 2s.f. | A drawn cell is 112mm. The real length of the cell was 280 micrometres (μm). Calculate the magnification of the drawing. |
|---|--|--|---|--|
| Write the equation for Magnification | Magnification = Size of Image / Size of Real Object | Magnification = Size of Image / Size of Real Object | Magnification = Size of Image / Size of Real Object | Magnification = Size of Image / Size of Real Object |
| Identify the size of image Identify the real size of Object | Size of Image = 10cm Read Size of Object = 0.008mm | Size of Image = 125mm Read Size of Object = 0.015625mm | Size of Image = 3.5cm Read Size of Object = 0.02916mm | Size of Image = 112mm Read Size of Object = 280µm |
| Ensure that the values for size and real size of are the same units | Size of Image = 10cm = 100mm Read Size of Object = 0.008mm | Size of Image = 125mm Read Size of Object = 0.015625mm | Size of Image = 35mm Read Size of Object = 0.02916mm | Size of Image = 112,000μm Read Size of Object = 280μm |
| Substitute values into equation | Magnification = 100 / 0.008 | Magnification = 125/0.015625 | Magnification = 35 / 0.02916 | Magnification = 112,000 / 280 |
| Complete equation | Magnification = 12,500 | Magnification = 8000 | Magnification = 1200 | Magnification = 400 |
| State the final answer | The magnification of the photograph is x 12,500. | The magnification of the photograph is x 8000 | The magnification of the photograph is x 1200 | The magnification of the photograph is x 400 |

Culturing Microorganisms

| Step | Justification |
|--|---|
| Heat the inoculating loop using a Bunsen Burner | Sterilise it. |
| Dip the sterilised loop in a suspension of the bacteria you want to grow and make zigzag streaks across the agar surface | Ensures an even spread of the microbes. |
| Relace the lid quickly | Reduces the chance of other microbes from the air landing on the agar. |
| Fix the lid with adhesive tape. Do not seal all the way around. | Keeps the lid in place without preventing air getting into the dish. Air is needed to prevent harmful anaerobic bacteria growing. |
| Store and incubate upside down. | Prevents condensation falling on the agar. |

How the method above could be changed to investigate the effect of antibiotics and disinfectants on bacterial growth.

After setting up the dish you could then add some pieces of filter paper that have been soaked in different antibiotics or disinfectants. After allowing time for the bacteria to incubate and grow you could then measure the clear area around the discs. The larger the clear area (area of inhibition) the more effective that substance is at preventing the growth of that bacterium.

Mitosis

| Key Term | Definition |
|------------|---|
| Chromosome | A structure found in the nucleus that is made up of DNA and carries genetic information in the form of genes. |
| Mitosis | A type of cell division that results in two identical daughter cells. |

Stages during the cell cycle.

During the cell cycle the genetic material is doubled and then divided into two identical cells.

- 1. The DNA replicates to form two copies of each chromosome.
- 2. In mitosis one set of chromosomes is pulled to each end of the cell.
- 3. The nucleus divides.
- 4. The cytoplasm and cell membranes divide to form two identical cells.
- 5. The set of chromosomes in each new cell is identical.

What needs to happen before a cell divides

Before a cell can divide it needs to grow and increase the number of subcellular structures such as ribosomes and mitochondria. The DNA replicates to form two copies of each chromosome.

Stem Cells

| Key Term | Definition |
|-----------------------|--|
| Stem Cell | Undifferentiated cell with the potential to form a wide variety of different cell types. |
| Undifferentiated Cell | A cell that does not yet have a specialised internal structure or a function. |

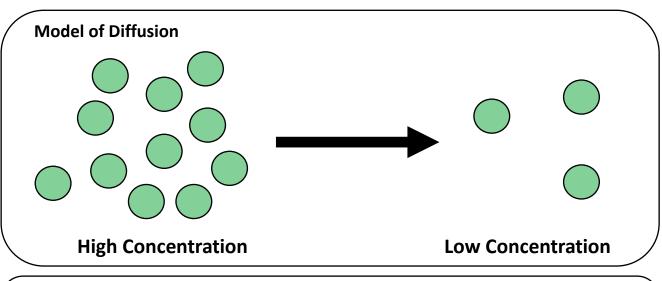
| Type of Stem Cell | Description |
|---------------------|--|
| Meristem | Meristems make unspecialised cells that have the potential to become any type of specialised cell. They are only found is certain parts of the plant such as the tip of roots. |
| Embryonic Stem Cell | Cells at the early stages in the development of the embryo are stem cells. They have the potential to become any type of cell from that animal. |
| Adult Stem Cell | A type of stem cell found in specific locations in adults. Adult stem cells can only differentiate into a limited number of related cell types. They can be found is some areas of the body including bone marrow. |

Comparing adult and embryonic stem cells.

Embryos are made from embryonic stem cells which can develop into any cell type. Adult stem cells are found only in specific areas of the body and can only develop into a limited number of cell types.

Diffusion

| Key Term | Definition |
|-----------|--|
| Diffusion | The spreading out of particles from an area of high concentration to low concentration. It is a passive process. |



Examples of Diffusion

Movement of oxygen in and out of red blood cells.

Movement of carbon dioxide in and out of red blood cells.

Movement of water and oxygen out of the leaf through stomata.

| Factors That Affect Diffusion | Description |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| Temperature | The higher the temperature the faster the rate of diffusion. The particles have more kinetic energy and so are moving faster. |
| Concentration | The steeper the concentration gradient the greater the rate of diffusion. |
| Surface Area (Within an Organism) | The larger the surface area the greater the rate of diffusion. |

Osmosis

| Key Term | Definition |
|-----------------------|---|
| Diffusion | The movement of particles from an area of high concentration to low concentration. |
| Osmosis | The movement of water from a dilute to concentration solution across a semi permeable membrane. |
| Dilute Solution | A solution with little solute dissolved in the solvent. |
| Concentrated Solution | A solution with lots of solute dissolved in the solvent. |
| Isotonic Solution | A solution with the same solute concentration as in normal body cells and blood. |
| Hypertonic Solution | A solution with a higher solute concentration than in normal body cells and blood. |
| Hypotonic Solution | A solution with a higher solute concentration than in normal body cells and blood. |

What will happen to a cell if it is placed in a hypertonic solution.

Water will move by osmosis across the partially permeable membrane from inside the cell to outside of the cell. This is because the hypertonic solution has a lower water potential than inside the cell and water will move along this concentration gradient.

What will happen to a cell if it is placed in a hypertonic solution.

Water will move by osmosis across the partially permeable membrane from inside the cell to outside of the cell. This is because the hypertonic solution has a lower water potential than inside the cell and water will move along this concentration gradient.

Osmosis RP

| Step | Image |
|--|--|
| Cut a tube of potato using a cork borer. | |
| Trim the potato to 5cm in length. | |
| Weigh the potato piece. | ON TARE 12.31 g |
| Place the potato in 25cm ³ of 0M solution and leave for 1 hour. | |
| Remove the potato and blot dry. | |
| Reweigh the potato. | OM TARE 15.02 g |
| Calculate the change in mass. | |
| Calculate the percentage change in mass. | ROW IN THE PROPERTY OF THE PRO |
| | |

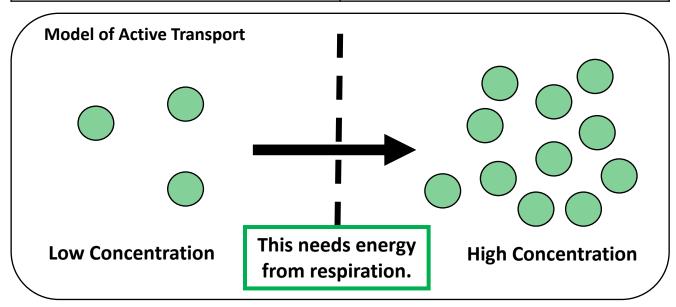
Repeat for 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8 and 1M solutions

Plot a graph to show the percentage change in mass for each concentration and draw a line of best fit.

To determine the concentration, find the point that the line crosses the x axis and there is no change in mass

Active Transport

| Key Term | Definition |
|------------------|--|
| Active Transport | Transport of particles from a low to high concentration (against the concentration gradient) across a cell membrane. |



Examples of Active Transport

Mineral ions from the soil absorbed by the roots.

Glucose absorbed in the small intestine.

Comparing active transport to diffusion.

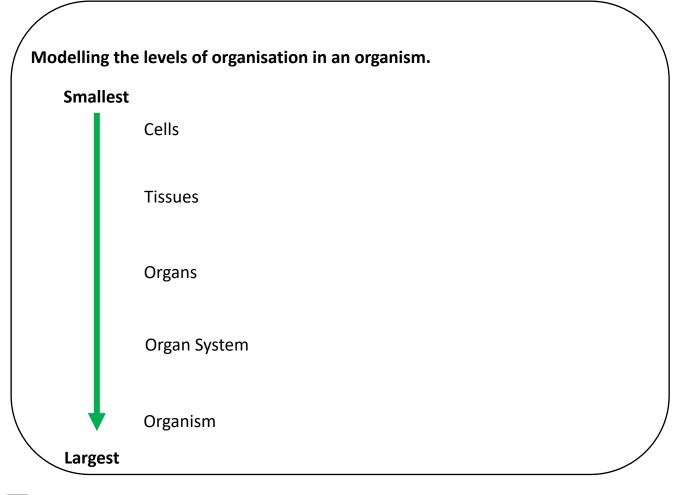
Active transport requires energy while diffusion is passive.

Active transport takes place across a membrane, diffusion does not require a membrane.

Across transport is the movement of substances from a low to high concentration while diffusion is the movement of substances from a high to low concentration.

Organisation

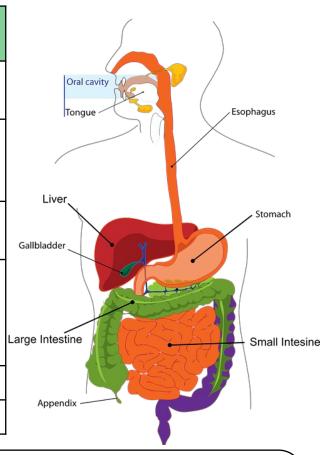
| Key Term | Definition | Example |
|--------------|--|---|
| Cell | Basic building blocks of all living organisms. | Blood cells, nerve cells, muscle cells. |
| Tissue | A group of cells with a similar structure and function. | Muscle tissue, glandular tissue. |
| Organ | Groups of tissues performing specific functions. | Stomach, liver, small intestine, large intestine. |
| Organ System | A group of organs which work together to form organisms. | Digestive system, circulatory system. |
| Organisms | An individual animal, plant or single celled life form. | Human, Beetle, Tomato Plant |



Digestive System

| Key Term | Definition |
|------------------|---|
| Digestive System | An example of an organ system in which several organs work together to digest and absorb food. |
| Enzyme | Enzymes are biological catalysts. They are proteins with a specific shape and active site that speed up chemical reactions. |

| Part | Function |
|--------------------|--|
| Teeth | Mechanically break down food. |
| Stomach | Churns and mixes the food up with enzymes to start digestion of proteins. |
| Pancreas | Secretes digestive enzymes into the small intestine. |
| Small Intestine | Large insoluble molecules are broken down into smaller soluble ones and absorbed. |
| Liver | Produces bile. |
| Gall Bladder | Stores bile. |



How organs in the digestive system work together for digestion.

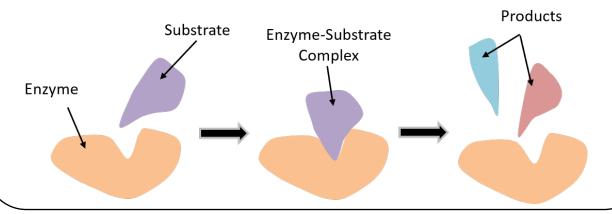
The function of the digestive system is to break down large insoluble substances in our food into smaller soluble ones. These smaller substances can then be absorbed by diffusion in the small intestine into our blood stream and used by the body. Different organs in the body work to break down the food.

Enzymes

Lock and key model

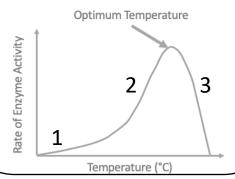
The lock and key model is a theory about how enzymes work. In the model we can see that we have an enzyme with an active site with a specific shape. A substrate has a complimentary shape to the active site and so is able to bind to it.

Model of how enzymes work.



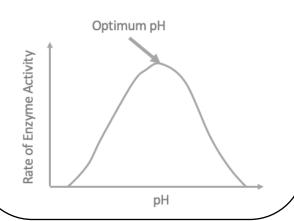
The effect of temperature on enzyme activity.

- At low temperatures enzyme activity is low. The enzyme is moving slower and so there are fewer collisions with the substrate.
- As temperature increases, the enzyme and substrate move faster, there are more collisions and so enzyme activity increases.
- 3. Once the optimum temperature has been passed enzyme activity begins to decrease as the enzyme is denatured.



The effect of pH on enzyme activity.

The enzyme is a chain of amino acids that is folded in a particular way to give its protein shape. The folds in the chain are held together by forces. A change in the pH affects these forces which affects the shape of the protein. When the shape of the active site changes the enzyme becomes denatured and stops working. The optimum pH is the pH at which the enzyme works best and has the highest activity. Different enzymes have different optimum pH's.



Digestive Enzymes

| Enzyme | Site of Production | What it Does |
|--------------|--|---|
| Carbohydrase | Salivary Glands Pancreas Small Intestine | Breaks down carbohydrates into simple sugars. |
| Protease | Stomach Pancreas Small Intestine | Breaks down proteins into amino acids. |
| Lipase | Pancreas Small Intestine | Breaks down lipids into fatty acids and glycerol. |

Why carbohydrase does not work in the stomach.

Chemical digestion of starch stops in the stomach because of how acidic the stomach is. The enzyme is denatured and so unable to continue to work.

How bile aids digestion

Bile is made in the liver and stored in the gall bladder. It is alkaline to neutralise hydrochloric acid from the stomach. It also emulsifies fat to form small droplets which increases the surface area. The alkaline conditions and large surface area increase the rate of fat breakdown by lipase.

Food Tests RP

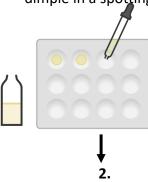
If there is protein the sample turns purple.

Enzymes RP

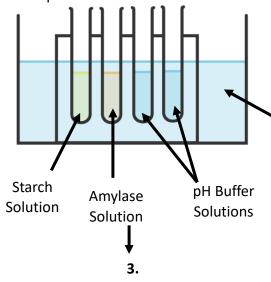
A method to investigate the effect that pH has on enzyme activity.

1.

Add a few drops of iodine solution to each dimple in a spotting tile.



Add a fixed volume of starch, amylase and pH buffer solutions to a water bath at a set temperature. Leave for 5 minutes.



Mix the starch solution and amylase solution together.



Every 30 seconds add a few drops to the spotting tile. Repeat until the iodine does not turn blue/black.

5.

Repeat for different pH's or different temperatures.

Why Use a Water Bath?

All the solutions we use are put into a water bath to start so that everything has a chance to equilibrate and get to the same temperature

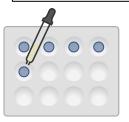
Problems of the Method

The results of this experiment are <u>subjective</u> because it is someone's opinion when they think the colour has started to change blue/black. To improve the experiment you would ideally want <u>quantitative data</u> (numbers measured by a piece of equipment) to make the results more accurate. One piece of equipment that could be used instead is a colorimeter which measures the amount of percentage of light that can pass through the solution.

Water bath at set temperature

Finding Exact pH/ Temperature

Once you have collected your results you should repeat your experiment in smaller intervals around the optimum pH/temperature that you found in your previous experiment.



Heart and Blood Vessels

| Key Term | Definition |
|------------------|---|
| Heart | An organ that pumps blood around the body in a double circulatory system. |
| Aorta | Large blood vessel that transports oxygen rich blood from the heart to body. |
| Vena Cava | Vein that returns deoxygenated blood back to the heart. |
| Pulmonary Artery | Transports deoxygenated blood from the heart to the lungs. |
| Pulmonary Vein | Transports oxygenated blood from the lungs to the heart. |
| Coronary Artery | Blood vessels that supply the heart muscles with oxygen and glucose. |
| Trachea | Major airway otherwise known as the windpipe. |
| Bronchi | Tube that connects between the trachea and the lungs. |
| Alveoli | Tiny air sacs in the lungs where gas is exchanged. |
| Pacemaker | Group of specialised cells that generates electrical impulses that pass through the heart muscle and make the heart contract. |

What artificial pacemakers are used for.

Electrical devices used to correct irregularities in the heart rate

Blood and Blood Vessels

| Blood Vessel | Function | Adaptations |
|--------------|---|--|
| Arteries | Transport oxygenated blood away from the heart under high pressure. | Thick elastic walls to withstand pressure. |
| Veins | Transport deoxygenated blood towards the heart under low pressure. | Wide lumen, valves to prevent backflow. |
| Capillaries | Transports oxygen to cells and transports carbon dioxide away from cells. | Narrow so that red blood cells pass through one at a time, thin walls for a short diffusion pathway. |

| Key Term | Definition |
|----------|---|
| Blood | A tissue consisting of plasma, in which the red blood cells, white blood cells and platelets are suspended. |

| Blood Component | Function |
|-------------------|---|
| Red Blood Cells | Transport Oxygen |
| White Blood Cells | Phagocytosis, Produce Antibodies, Produce Antitoxins |
| Platelets | Blood Clotting |
| Plasma | Transport carbon dioxide, urea and hormones. |

Coronary Heart Disease

| Treatment | Description | Advantages | Disadvantages | |
|-------------------|---|---|---|--|
| Statins | Drugs used to reduce blood cholesterol | Slows down the rate of the deposit of fatty material | Muscle aches and pains, muscle weakness. | |
| Artificial Hearts | A device used to keep patients alive whilst waiting for a heart transplant, or to allow the heart to rest for recovery. | Allows a patient to get stronger and healthier so they can have a heart transplant. | Can cause blood clots and infection. | |
| Heart Transplant | An operation to replace a damaged or faulty heart. | Better quality of life and will live longer. | Will need to take immunosuppressan ts for life. | |
| Mechanical Valve | Can be used to replace faulty hear valves. | Durable | Can cause blood clots. | |

What coronary heart disease is.

In coronary heart disease layers of fatty material build up inside the coronary arteries, narrowing them. This reduces the flow of blood through the coronary arteries, resulting in a lack of oxygen for the heart muscle.

Health Issues

| Key Term | Definition | |
|--------------------------|--|--|
| Health | A state of physical and metal well being. | |
| Pathogen | A microbe that causes disease | |
| Cancer | The result of changes in cells that lead to uncontrolled growth and division | |
| Non-Communicable Disease | A noninfectious illness. | |
| Communicable Disease | An infection that is infectious. | |

Factors which are major causes of ill health.

Diet, stress and life situations

Examples of diseases which may interact.

- Defects in the immune system mean that an individual is more likely to suffer from infectious diseases.
- Viruses living in cells can be the trigger for cancers.
- Immune reactions initially caused by a pathogen can trigger allergies such as skin rashes and asthma.
- Severe physical ill health can lead to depression and other mental illness.

Lifestyle and Disease

| Lifestyle Factor | The Effect It Has on Health |
|------------------|--|
| Diet | Can lead to cardiovascular disease and can cause obesity a risk factor of diabetes |
| Alcohol | Effects liver and brain function. |
| Smoking | Can lead to lung cancer and lung disease as well as cardiovascular disease. |

| Non-Communicable Disease | Risk Factors | |
|--------------------------|-------------------------|--|
| Cardiovascular System | Diet, Smoking, Exercise | |
| Type 2 Diabetes | Obesity | |
| Cancer | Carcinogens | |

Why it is advised pregnant woman do not drink alcohol or smoke.

Alcohol taken in by a pregnant woman can affect the development of her unborn baby, it increases the chances of miscarriage and still birth. It can also cause organ damage of the baby and can lead to low birth weight. Alcohol can also cause foetal alcohol syndrome. The baby when born is smaller, has a smaller brain, may have distinct facial feature and will have long term learning and behavioural difficulties.

The cigarette smoke will contain carbon monoxide which occupies the mothers red blood cells. This reduces the amount of oxygen that the mothers blood contains. This means that the foetus receives less oxygen which reduces the rate of respiration in the foetus which causes the birth mass of the baby to be less.

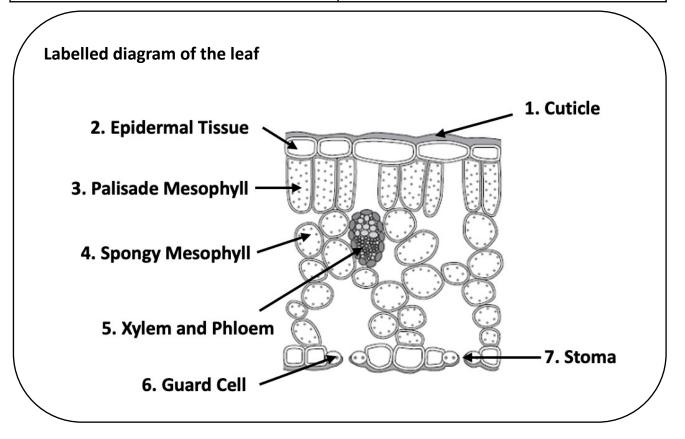
Cancer

| Key Term | Definition | |
|------------------|---|--|
| Cancer | The result of changes in cells that lead to uncontrolled growth and division | |
| Benign Tumour | Growths of cells that are contained in one place, normally within a membrane. | |
| Malignant Tumour | Growths of cells that are not contained in one place and are cancerous. | |

Comparing malignant and benign tumours. Malignant Benign Not enclosed in a Enclosed in a membrane membrane Divide quickly Invade parts of the body Don't invade other Risk to life parts of the body Can affect how other tissues work. Can put pressure on and damage other organs.

Plant Tissues

| Plant Tissue | Function |
|--------------------|---|
| Epidermal | Covers the leaf. It has no chloroplasts so that light is able to pass through. |
| Palisade Mesophyll | Photosynthesis. The palisade cells have lots of chloroplasts for this. |
| Spongy Mesophyll | Gas exchange within the plant. It has air spaces for the rapid movement of gases |
| Xylem | Xylem transports water and dissolved minerals through a process called transpiration. |
| Phloem | The phloem transports sugars through a process called translocation. |
| Meristem Tissue | Undifferentiated plant cells. |



Plant Organ Systems

Root Hair Cell

Diagram

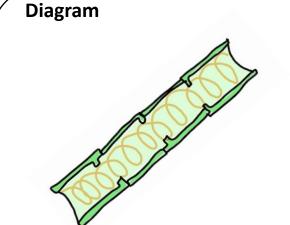
Function

Absorb water and dissolved mineral ions.

Adaptations

Large surface area for increased absorption.

Lots of mitochondria to provide energy for active transport



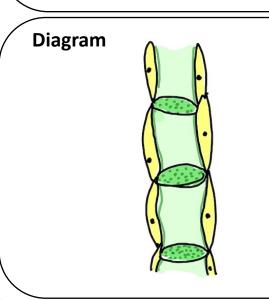
Function

Transports water

Adaptations

Hollow tube to allow more water to travel through.

Spirals of lignin to make it strong to withstand the pressure of water moving through.



Function

Transports sugars

Adaptations

Have sieve plates to allow water carrying dissolved sugars to move freely.

Lose internal structure for more space.

Have companion cells to help keep them alive.

Plant Organ Tissues

| Process | Function | |
|----------------------|---|--|
| Transpiration | Movement of water from the roots up to the leaves of plants. | |
| Translocation | Movement of sugars around a plant. | |
| Factor | Effect on Rate of Transpiration | |
| Changing Temperature | An increased temperature increases the rate as more water evaporates from the leaf. | |
| Humidity | Water water evaporates more slowly when humidity is greater and so there is less transpiration. | |
| Air Movement | Water water evaporates more rapidly when there is air movement and so there is more transpiration. | |
| Light Intensity | Increased light intensity, increases photosynthesis. This means stoma are open and so there is a greater loss of water and so transpiration rate is higher. | |

How substances are transported around a plant.

The xylem and phloem are involved with transport around the plant. Xylem transports water and dissolved minerals through a process called transpiration. As water evaporates from the leaf, more water is pulled up through the xylem to replace it. The constant movement of water from the roots to the leaves is known as the transpiration stream. The phloem transports sugars through a process called translocation. Sugars are able to transported from the leaf where they are made to other areas of the plant where they can either be used or stored.

Communicable Diseases

| Key Term | Definition |
|----------------------|--|
| Communicable Disease | An infectious disease caused by pathogens. |
| Virus | An infective nonliving pathogen that has a strand of nucleic acid in a protein coat. |
| Bacteria | A prokaryotic pathogen. |
| Protists | A eukaryotic organism that is not animal, plant or fungi. |
| Fungi | A spore producing organism. |
| Pathogen | A microbe that causes illness. |

How bacteria make us feel ill.

Bacteria produce poisons that damage tissues and make us feel ill.

How viruses make us feel ill.

Viruses live and reproduce inside cells which causes damage.

Viral Diseases

| Disease | How It is Spread | Symptoms | Treatment | Prevention of Spread |
|-------------------------|---|--|-----------------------------|---|
| Measles | Inhalation of Droplets from Sneezes and Coughs | Fever Red Skin Rash | Rest and painkillers | Vaccination |
| HIV | Sexual Contact Body Fluids Exchanged | Flu like illness at first Weakened Immune System | Antiretroviral Drugs | Barrier methods of contraception. |
| Tobacco Mosaic Virus | Contaminated tools. | Mosaic pattern of discolouration on the leaves. | Dispose of infected plants. | Disinfect tools |

Why children are vaccinated for measles.

Vaccination protects individuals from the harmful effects from the disease. With more people having immunity it is spread much less in the community.

Bacterial Diseases

| Disease | How It is Spread | Symptoms | Treatment | Prevention of Spread |
|------------|----------------------------------|---|--|--|
| Salmonella | Bacteria ingested in food. | Fever Abdominal cramps Vomiting Diarrhoea | Drink fluids. Antibiotics in extreme cases. | Cook Food Properly Vaccination od chickens. |
| Gonorrhoea | Sexually | Pain urinating Thick green/yellow discharge | Antibiotics | Barrier methods of contraceptives |

How food should be prepared to avoid food poisoning

To prevent salmonella poisoning:

- Hands should be washed
- Food preparation area clean
- Cook and store food at correct temperatures

Fungal Diseases

| Disease | How It is Spread | Symptoms | Treatment | Prevention of Spread |
|--------------------|---------------------|---|------------|---------------------------------|
| Rose Black Spot | Water Wind | Purple or black spots develop on leaves. Leaves turn yellow and drop off. | Fungicides | Removing infected leaves. |

Why roses with rose black spot will have stunted growth.

The discoloration and loss of leaves reduces photosynthesis. This means that less glucose is made, for respiration, to release energy. Less glucose also means that less amino acids are made which then means that the plant makes less protein. Overall, this leads to reduced growth of the plant.

Protist Diseases

| Disease | How It is Spread | Symptoms | Treatment | Prevention of Spread |
|---------|--|---|---|--|
| Malaria | Mosquito which acts as a vector. | Fever, Sweats, Chills, Headaches, Vomiting, Diarrhoea | Antimalarial drugs can be taken to treat the symptoms and prevent infection. | Prevent mosquitos from breeding for example by removing still bodies of water. Prevent mosquito bites, for example, by using repellents and nets. |

How we can prevent people from being bitten by mosquitos.

Prevent people from being bitten: Use a mosquito net and mosquito repellent **Prevent mosquitoes from breeding:** Remove and drain stagnant/still water where mosquitos breed, spray insecticides on areas of still water

Human Defence Systems

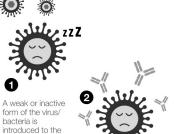
| Non-Specific Defence System | How It Defends the Body | |
|-----------------------------|---|--|
| Skin | Dead layer which is difficult to penetrate and so it acts as a barrier. It secretes antimicrobial chemicals which kill some microbes. Scabs form when the skin is cut to stop microbes from entering. | |
| Nose | Hairs keep out dust and microbes. | |
| Trachea and Bronchi | Has mucus which traps microbes Has cilia which move the mucus | |
| Stomach | The hydrochloric acid lowers the pH in the stomach and kills bacteria. | |

| White Blood Cell Defence | How It Defends the Body | |
|-----------------------------|--|--|
| Phagocytosis | Phagocytosis is when the white blood cells engulf and ingest the pathogen to destroy it. | |
| Antibody Production | Antibodies cause the pathogens to clump together making it easier for them to be destroyed during phagocytosis. Antibodies have a specific shape to the antigen (protein coat) on the microbe. This means that particular antibodies will only work for particular diseases. | |
| Antitoxin Production | Antitoxins counteract the toxins that the pathogen makes. | |

Vaccination

The process of vaccination

- 1. A small quantities of dead or weakened or inactive forms of a pathogen is put into the body usually by injection to stimulate an immune response
- The white blood cells 2. produce antibodies.
- If the same pathogen 3. re-enters the body the white blood cells respond quickly to produce the correct antibodies, preventing infection.







defenses without

causing illness



When the real virus or bacteria enters the body, it is recognized by the immune system which may eliminate it.

The body's immune system produces antibodies to fight the virus/bacteria

Why a large proportion of a population needs to be vaccinated

There is increased immunity (herd immunity) in the population and so fewer people who are able to catch and pass on the diseases, this lowers the R value. If not enough people are vaccinated then if someone does catch the disease they will most likely pass it on.

| Advantages of Vaccination | Disadvantages of Vaccination |
|--|---|
| Protects the person vaccinated from the disease. Protects people who may be not vaccinated from the disease. Lowers the amount of the disease in the community. The likelihood of becoming seriously ill from the disease is reduced. | Possible side effects such as fatigue and headaches |

Antibiotics and Painkillers

| Key Term | Definition |
|------------|---|
| Antibiotic | A drug that kill infecting bacteria. |
| Painkiller | Medicine that treats the symptoms of a disease. |

When antibiotics would be prescribed.

For bacterial infections.

Why painkillers are used and what they do.

Painkillers are used to make the patient feel more comfortable while they are ill as they can reduce inflammation and pain.

Why the overuse of antibiotics is a concern.

It is leading to the emergence of antibiotic resistant strains of bacteria.

Why antibiotics should not be prescribed for viral infections.

They are unable to kill the infecting virus which is within the cells.

Development of Drugs

| Key Term | Definition |
|------------|--|
| Digitalis | A heart drug that originates from foxglove. |
| Aspirin | A painkiller that originates from willow. |
| Penicillin | An antibiotic produced by Penicillium mould, discovered by Alexander Fleming |
| Placebo | A substance with no therapeutic effect that is used as a control. |

What new drugs are tested for.

To test for efficacy, dose and toxicity.

| Stage | Description | Purpose |
|----------------------------|--|---|
| Pre-Clinical | Completed in labs on cells and or animals. | Test for toxicity. |
| Clinical Trials Phase 1 | Given in low doses to a small group of healthy volunteers | Test for side effects. |
| Clinical Trial Phase 2 | Tested with a larger group of individuals who the drug is designed to treat. | To test for efficacy and to find optimum dose |
| Clinical Trial Phase 3 | Tested with an even larger group of individuals who the drug is designed to treat. | To find optimum dose. |
| Peer Review | Medical experts check the work of the trial and consider the design quality. | To avoid false claims. |

Detecting Plant Diseases

| Condition | Description | How It Affects Plant Growth | |
|----------------------------|--|---|--|
| Tobacco Mosaic Virus | A mosaic pattern on discolouration on the leaves of plants. | The discoloration and loss of leaves reduces photosynthesis. This means that less glucose is made, for respiration, to release energy. Less glucose also means that less amino acids are made which then means that the plant makes less protein. Overall, this leads to reduced growth of the plant. | |
| Black Spot | Purple or black spots develop on leaves of roses, which then turn yellow, and drop off early. | | |
| Aphids | Aphids have a mouthpiece that pierces through the plant and into its phloem. It feeds off the the sugar within the phloem. | The plant has less sugar which stunts growth. | |
| Nitrate Deficiency | Can be caused by pests or poor soil quality. It will cause the plant to look pale to yellowish green. | It stunts growth. The nitrates are needed for making proteins. If less proteins are made by the plant, there will be stunted growth. | |
| Magnesium Deficiency | Common in soil that does not contain much organic content. Leaves will appear yellow. | The magnesium is needed to make chlorophyll. The deficiency will cause chlorosis. The plant will have less chlorophyll for photosynthesis, so will produce less glucose which will stunt growth. | |

Plant Defence Responses

| Physical Defences | How It Protects The Plant |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| Cellulose Cell Walls | A physical barrier between the cells and the microbes reducing the likelihood of infection. |
| Tough Waxy Cuticle | It is a strong barrier that microbes find difficult to penetrate and so reduces the likelihood of infection. |
| Layers of Dead Cells Around Stem | It forms a physical barrier between the plant and microbes reducing the likelihood of infection. |

| Chemical Defences | How It Protects The Plant |
|-------------------------|--|
| Antibacterial Chemicals | Kills bacteria on the plant and reduces the likelihood of a bacterial infection. |
| Poisons | Will stop herbivores eating it. |

| Mechanical Defences | How It Protects The Plant |
|---|---|
| Thorns and Hairs | These deter herbivores and prevent animals damaging it. |
| Leaves Which Drop Or Curl When Touched | This is to dislodge any insect that lands on it. |
| Mimicry | Will stop herbivores eating it. |

Photosynthesis

Word equation for photosynthesis.

Carbon Dioxide + Water → Glucose + Oxygen

Balanced symbol equation for photosynthesis.

$$6CO_2 + 6H_2O \rightarrow C_6H_{12}O_6 + 6O_2$$

How plants are adapted for photosynthesis,

Lots of chloroplasts and palisade cells. The chloroplasts are found in palisade cells within the leaf. They contain a green pigment called chlorophyll. It is this pigment that makes the plant appear green.

Leaves have a large surface area to capture as much light as possible from the sun.

Thin leaves to provide a short diffusion pathway for gases.

Has stomata for gases to diffuse through.

The process of photosynthesis.

Photosynthesis is as an endothermic reaction in which energy is transferred from the environment to the chloroplasts by light. The light provides the energy that it needed for the reaction.

Rate of Photosynthesis

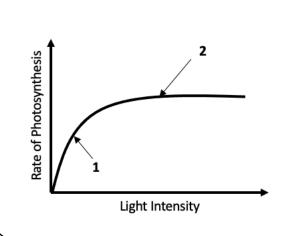
Temperature

Light Intensity

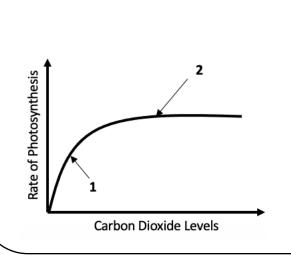
Rate of Photosynthesis

Temperature

- 1. As temperature increases the rate of photosynthesis increases up to around 35-40°C. This is because as the temperature increases the reactant particles move faster which increases the rate of reaction.
- 2. Beyond the optimum temperature the rate of photosynthesis will decrease. This is because the enzymes involved with photosynthesis have been denatured.
- 3. At around 45°C photosynthesis will stop completely. This is because all of the enzymes have been denatured.



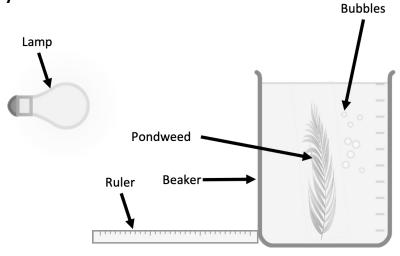
- 1. As the light level is raised the rate of photosynthesis increases also up to a point.
- 2. Beyond this point, the rate of photosynthesis will increase no further. This is because either the temperature of carbon dioxide level have become a limiting factor and stopped the rate of photosynthesis increasing any more. To increase the rate of photosynthesis further you would need to increase the carbon dioxide levels or temperature.



- 1. As the levels of carbon dioxide increases the rate of photosynthesis increase also up to a point.
- 2. Beyond this point, the rate of photosynthesis will increase no further. This is because either the temperature of light intensity have become a limiting factor and stopped the rate of photosynthesis increasing any more. To increase the rate of photosynthesis further you would need to increase the light intensity or temperature.

Light Intensity RP

A method to investigate the effect that light intensity has on the rate of photosynthesis.

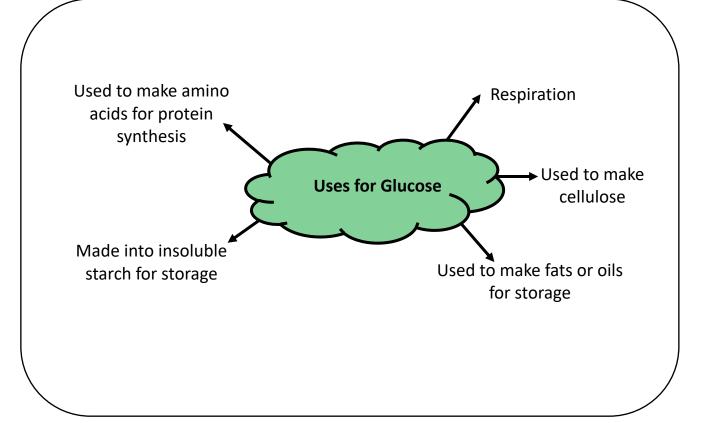


Method

- 1. Set up equipment as shown in the diagram with the pondweed in a beaker of water.
- 2. Place the beaker 10cm away from the light source.
- 3. Turn the light on and leave the pondweed for 5 minutes to acclimatise
- 4. Count the number of bubbles produced in a fixed period of time or measure how much gas is collected in a fixed period of time. This is the dependent variable.
- 5. Repeat to identify outliers and calculate averages.
- 6. Repeat for different distances 20,30,40 and 50cm.

| Control Variable | How it will be controlled | How to Test as the Independent Variable |
|----------------------------------|---|---|
| Size of pondweed | Use the same pondweed piece | n/a |
| Type of pondweed | Use the same pondweed piece | n/a |
| Colour of light | Use a white LED bulb | Use 5 different coloured bulbs or filters. |
| Temperature of water | LED bulb that does not get hot | Test 5 different temperatures of water using water baths. |
| Time for plant to equilibrate | Leave in the water for 5 minutes before testing | n/a |
| Carbon dioxide concentration | Add the same mass of sodium hydrogen carbonate to the water | Add 5 different masses of sodium hydrogen carbonate to 5 beakers. |
| Volume of water in beaker | Add the same volume of water to each beaker | n/a |

Uses of Glucose



| Substance Being Tested for | Reagent Used | Description of Test | Positive Result |
|----------------------------------|--------------|---|---|
| Starch | lodine | Add a few drops either to the surface of a leaf or liquid extract from a plant. | The iodine will turn blue/black. |
| Glucose | Benedicts | Crush a leaf to extract the fluid. Add the Benedicts and heat. | The sample will turn red/ brown/ orange/ yellow/ green. |
| Protein | Biuret | Crush the plant to extract the fluid and add Biuret. | The sample will turn purple if protein is present. |

Respiration

Word equation for aerobic respiration.

Glucose + Oxygen → Carbon Dioxide + Water

Balanced symbol equation for aerobic respiration.

$$C_6H_{12}O_6 + 6O_2 \rightarrow 6CO_2 + 6H_2O$$

Word equation for anaerobic respiration in animals and plants.

Animals: Glucose → Lactic Acid
Plants: Glucose → Ethanol + Carbon Dioxide

Comparing anaerobic respiration and aerobic respiration in animals.

Both reactions are exothermic and involve the breakdown of glucose to release energy. However, in aerobic respiration this takes place with oxygen present while in anaerobic respiration it does not. Another difference between the two reactions is that aerobic respiration makes carbon dioxide and water while anaerobic respiration makes lactic acid.

Anerobic respiration also releases a lot less energy than aerobic. This is because the oxidation of glucose is incomplete.

Finally anaerobic respiration causes an oxygen debt to occur, while this does not happen with aerobic respiration.

| Key Term | Definition |
|--------------|--|
| Fermentation | Anaerobic respiration in yeast cells. It is important for the manufacturing of bread and alcoholic drinks. |

Response To Exercise

| Change That Occurs During Exercise | Why The Change Occurs | |
|------------------------------------|---|--|
| Increased Heart Rate | Increases the flow of blood to the muscles. This supplies more oxygen and glucose for respiration which releases more energy for muscle contraction. | |
| Increased Breathing Rate | Increases the amount of oxygen that is in the blood. This supplies muscle cells with more oxygen for respiration which releases more energy for muscle contraction. | |
| Increased Breath Volume | | |

When anaerobic respiration occurs during exercise.

Anaerobic respiration occurs in muscles when there is an insufficient supply of oxygen.

What happens when anaerobic respiration occurs during exercise.

During anaerobic respiration there is an insufficient supply of oxygen and so there is incomplete oxidation of glucose. Lactic acid is made, and this builds up creating an oxygen debt. The lactic acid is a toxin and causes the muscles to become fatigued and stop contracting efficiently.

Metabolism

| Key Term | Definition |
|------------|---|
| Metabolism | All the chemical reactions that happen in a cell or the body. |

Examples of metabolic reactions.

Examples of metabolic reactions include:

- Photosynthesis
- Respiration
- · Making carbohydrates from sugars
- Making lipids from glycerol and 3 fatty acids
- Amino acids making proteins
- Breakdown of proteins to make urea

| Substance | Why It Is Important In The Body |
|--------------------------|---|
| Sugars | Glucose is used to make starch, glycogen and cellulose. Glycogen is stored in the muscle and liver cells as a source of energy. |
| Amino Acids | Used to make proteins. These proteins can be used for growth and repair. |
| Fatty Acids and Glycerol | Used to make make lipids (fats). These lipids are then used as a store of energy. |