OA. Topical Notes (READ ME)

About These Notes

- Updated for 2024 O Level Pure Biology Syllabus (6093)
 - Syllabus for 2024 O levels has changed compared to 2023 and earlier.
 - These changes have been reflected in my notes! (ever since v2.1.8)

• Disclaimer

- Just like you guys, I'm always learning. That's why I constantly update these notes to make them better.
- If you're reading this on my public Notion links, it's always most up-to-date.

• If you're reading this on PDF

- If you're reading the PDF, this is v2.2.1. Check for the most updated version here: <u>http://tinyurl.com/TBTnotes</u>
- Use the Ctrl + F search function to search for a note/content quickly
- Viewing on computer might be better

• If you're my current student reading this

 Please view these notes on Notion (much nicer)! I have exclusively shared it with yall.

Topical Notes

- Helps you Revise Efficiently
 - Textbook and school notes are too thick, making it hard to know what's important. That's why I made simple, concise notes for my students to cut through the clutter. The stuff in here is what you need to focus on in your syllabus, so use this if you want to study efficiently.
 - Learning outcomes are not word for word as I've made them more concise/understandable. Rest assured though, content is same as the syllabus.

Memory Hacks

 In here, you'll see: [Memory Shortcut] / [Memory Hack]. These are my own acronyms/mnemonics/memory hacks, so you can memorise content faster AND recall easier in exams.

Why I give these notes for FREE

- I get tons of messages requesting for my notes, so this must be a big need in the community. A lot of you are needlessly struggling in this subject, and I don't want you to be one of them.
- Maybe you're not getting the quality of teaching and materials you need. It shouldn't be this way, because bio is an easy subject. You deserve to score well.
- I was in your place before, and I wished someone gave me notes like these to make my life easier. Now I get to make it a reality for you.
- Hold up. This sounds too good to be true. What's the catch?
 - I do this because I'd like to earn your trust, by giving you results in advance. Many students who aren't even in my tuition class have already told me how their grades have improved from my free notes.
 - I want you to know that ThatBioTutor is the **real deal.** It's my hope that those of you who need O level Pure Bio tuition will choose me as your tutor :)
 - If you want my help, apply for my class here (but warning, we're usually full): <u>tinyurl.com/TBTsignups</u>
 - With the right guidance, bio becomes a very easy subject. Don't take it from me, hear it from these people: <u>www.thatbiotutor.com/testimonials</u>

Can I share this with my friends?

- YES, share this with as many people as you want! They will love you for sharing it with them.
- My aim is to get these in the hands of *every O level Pure Bio student* in Singapore, so more grades will be transformed.
- I want to empower you all to see that bio is a conquerable subject, which you can do very well in.

 If you like these notes, and you believe in what I'm doing, why not leave a review here? <u>https://tinyurl.com/tbtnotesreview</u>

Acknowledgements

- These notes are the intellectual property of Keefe Fonseka and are not to be sold for profit. However, you may share them to as many people you want, free of charge.
- For more bio and study tips, check out @thatbiotutor on <u>Instagram</u>, <u>TikTok</u> and <u>YouTube</u>. (A follow would be much appreciated too!)

HOW TO GET EVEN MORE RESOURCES:

1. CAQs - 6 Free Chapters

- This section is exclusive only to members in my **telegram channel** (<u>https://t.me/thatbiotutorVIPclub</u>, click on the pinned message).
 - It contains chapters 1-6 of my CAQ notes (My full CAQ notes are exclusive for paid students only!)
 - CAQs are the Commonly Asked Questions under each topic. It tells you what are the most frequently tested and hence most important MCQs + OEQs to study for.
 - This is how you study smart. This is how you rapidly improve in OEQs!

2. TYS Answers (Free)

- Many students have groaned that TYS answers available in the assessment books are terrible. I agree, and it is a huge disadvantage not knowing how to properly answer O level questions to score full marks.
- That's why I created my suggested version of the TYS model answers (since the 2013 paper). You can have it for free if you're in my telegram channel (<u>https://t.me/thatbiotutorVIPclub</u>, click on the pinned message)

3. Youtube Playlists (Free)

- I make tons of useful videos answering **frequently asked questions**/addressing your common woes!
- **Subscribe** to my channel (you won't regret it): <u>www.youtube.com/@thatbiotutor</u>. The following are my compiled playlists as a study help resource:
 - Exam Tips: <u>https://www.youtube.com/watch?</u> v=Yq8×5rnEnIY&list=PLLXXkGsTlbtpKToSD7xwrBKeVx77lbcJ2&pp=gAQBiAQB
 - Study Tips: <u>https://www.youtube.com/watch?</u>
 v=64ZnSJDSkUl&list=PLLXXkGsTlbtrLKF2J9m3oR02JwUu3LNTr&pp=gAQBiAQB
 - Answering Skills: <u>https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=uIXLyzCIM-</u> c&list=PLLXXkGsTIbtqaEaLDhxok60vVzyYIGEbH&pp=gAQBiAQB
 - Memory Hacks: <u>https://www.youtube.com/watch?</u>
 <u>v=IdoRT3iZvc8&list=PLLXXkGsTIbtrHAsQOs3W1S6FEr1Mm9h5m&pp=gAQBiAQB</u>
 - Hard concepts, easy explanations: <u>https://www.youtube.com/watch?</u>
 <u>v=wQ8YRUQ1Qng&list=PLLXXkGsTlbtr0qNalvPa2J9I8o3Zv4iEi&pp=gAQBiAQB</u>
 - Mindset/Motivation: <u>https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0S-</u> _RILtWA8&list=PLLXXkGsTlbtromM7h5BQKTmV6AXvy15uA&pp=gAQBiAQB

4. eBooks (Free)

- In the past, I wrote a short eBook on A1 Biology Study Hacks: <u>https://tinyurl.com/tbtebook</u>
- I also wrote a Concise Answering guide to help you write faster in OEQs: <u>https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/11C8jt187XKfLdhoW-hTOslvIDP-gXM1E?</u> <u>usp=sharing</u>

5. EXCLUSIVE for TBT Students (Good Stuff!)

Full CAQ notes + Bonus pages (worth \$400)

- Bonus pages include useful cheat sheets, highly requested by students!
 - Mindmaps for each chapter
 - Practical tips, Practical commonly asked qns
 - OEQ tips and answering frameworks

- Common **misconceptions**
- Exam hacks to be exam-smart

Crash Course Clips (worth \$900)

- I've cut out clips from my lessons and compiled them into fast but detailed "crash courses" for each topic
- If you're my student, you'll be able to access it for **all topics*** in my student resources.

Quizlet Flashcards (worth \$200)

- Great for memorising definitions, parts of bio diagrams, and even content
- I've used them myself to memorise tons of weird stuff during JC. It works magic.
- I've made it for you so you don't have to waste precious time creating it yourself

Weekly Lessons (worth \$90/week)

- My class is a mix of:
 - Going through content thoroughly, for max understanding
 - Going through questions to train up your thought process and increase your exam-readiness
- Location:
 - Physical classes (Location tbc)
 - Online classes (Zoom)
 - Missed a lesson? Watch the recording at your convenience.

24/7 WhatsApp Help (worth \$45/week)

- You'll receive help in answering your questions even outside of class, whether it be:
 - Clarifying content doubts
 - Need help solving a bio question

 Study coaching: Ask anything related to school/studying/JC Poly plans and beyond...

Extra Practice Papers (worth \$300/week)

- I buy past year practice papers so you/your parents won't have to spend the money on it
- We have tons of practice papers do as many as you like!

6. Need O Level Pure Bio Tuition/What is it like as a TBT student?

- Why I'm give students so much good stuff away for free: Because I want to give you results in advance that way, if you're considering biology tuition, you'll see that ThatBioTutor is the real deal and will choose us
- Check out the **\$3600 worth of resources** you'll get as a TBT student here:
 <u>https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LVIbhRInt-8&t=933s</u>
- Signup/trial lesson: <u>www.tinyurl.com/TBTsignups</u>
 - We choose my students carefully, hence the signup form above!
 - We can only accommodate a couple students a month, so be quick!
- You shouldn't believe me though, listen to what students are saying: <u>www.thatbiotutor.com/testimonials</u>

OB. Differences in 2024 syllabus Vs 2023 syllabus

Pure bio topics	Changes		
	 Differentiate between cell, tissue, organ, organ system 		
	 Nucleolus function, nuclear membrane is double membrane, tonoplast 		
	(can refer to it as vacuolar membrane) , centrioles (can tell students what it is if the diagram has it)		
	• Xylem has pits and lignified (it's already in tpt plants)		
Cells	 SER synthesises lipids fats and steroids 		
	 Plant cells: Cell sap = Food, water, min salts water + dissolved substances 		
	such as: sugars, amino acids, mineral salts		
	• NOTE: in textbook they now replace xylem with muscle cell and say have		
	many nuclei and many mitochondria. I'm not putting into our notes YET but		
	might need it + a corresponding drawing.		
Movement	NA		
Biomolecules	Roles of water • Functions of biomolecules, the first ans to give if qns ask is:		
	(b) state the main roles of carbohydrates, fats and proteins in living organisms:		
	 carbohydrates as an immediate source of energy 		

	 fats for insulation and long-term storage of energy 		
	 proteins for growth and repair of cells 		
	 Note: syllabus doesn't expect them to memorise what sucrose and lactose are made of 		
Enzymes	NA		
Nutrition in humans	Note: Due to liver function changes, acronym BIG TAP → DH BAG • Liver function: Breakdown hormones • Liver function: Iron storage/breakdown of RBC. • Liver function: Protein synthesis • Pepsin, trypsin, peptidases → Now all just called protease. • Sucrase, Lactase → Now just left Maltase • Alcohol Affects the brain: E.g. Dementia, high consumption during pregnancy may impair foetus' brain development		
Transport in humans	 Blood clotting simplified to just platelets cause fibrinogen → fibrin. Thrombokinase, thrombin, calcium ions Pericardium no need know, remove fr diag Single vs double circulation Endothelium → now i just calling it innermost layer for blood vessels and for capillaries "layer of cells" Thrombosis 		
Respiration	 CO2 transport completely removed Still say lactic is produced during anaerobic, but no more that it cause 		

	 muscular pain and fatigue Lactic acid is broken down-removed at the liver Co2 conc affects breathing rate Oxygen debt explanation simplified a bit, but still teach that it's to break down lactic acid at liver.
	 Metabolism = anabolic + catabolic rxns chemical activities within cells ADH (Moved to under homeostasis!) Loop of Henle now says not only reabsorb some water, also some min salts They now describe absorption of subs along nephron as
Excretion	<pre>"reabsorbed by active transport" • All parts of kidney except the nephron has been removed, eg cortex, medulla, etc. Urinary system overview still remains. • 'Selective' reabsorbed not = active tpt? so not wrong to say for water?</pre>
Homeostasis	 Hormones, Insulin/Glucagon/Diabetes moved here from Coord resp. Adrenaline Arterioles is still a big point, but Shunt vessels no longer in txtbk Hair erector muscles point taken out. (Instead, it seems that shivering is now a separate point from increased metabolic rate.) Hormones definition is now: A chemical substance produced by an endocrine gland, and is carried in the bloodstream. It alters the activity of one or more specific target organs

	, and is destroyed by the liver.		
	• Skin layers: Epidermis, Dermis, Fatty tissue-remove from diagram!		
	 Neurone parts: Axon, Dendron, axon terminals are now referred to as 		
Nervous sys + Eye	just nerve fibres . Grey matter, white matter, central canal • reflex arc (IRS RC MANS ERP) needs to be vastly simplified! • Conjunctiva function: <u>Lubricates</u> + protects from microbes Moistens		
	eye by secreting mucous • Rods and cones were not in syllabus already, but just removing		
	them here since didn't in 2023.		
Coord - hormones	 Adrenaline Hormones entirely Moved to under homeostasis! 		
Infectious Diseases	New topic! • Make Diagrams: Bacteria, Virus		
	 Diagram: Change Lamina to Leaf blade, petiole is now leaf blade, 		
Nutrition in plants	 midrib Extremely simplified photosynthesis process, just say chlorophyll absorbs light operate which is used to make glucose 		
	 No more "reduced" to glucose, just say make glucose/converted Stomata opening process 		
Transport in plants	 Root pressure, Capillary action Diagram: Pith, Cortex, Endodermis (root) 		
	pith and cortex, can still let them know what it is, coz might show up		

	in diagrams •		
	*Note: They've merged these 2 chapters, but I'm still keeping them		
	separate in my notes - easier for students to learn 1 at a time.		
	• Pyramid of energy		
	 get them to construct it as application qn in class 		
	Biomass pyramid is always upright now, no more		
	phytoplankton/zooplankton		
Factoria	changed SPDF to PDF because even in the old textbk there wasn't		
Ecology	•		
	Environemntal biotechnology (Sewage treatment process)		
	Global warming		
	 Plastic polition's effects Conservation: Not just forests, but now also mandroves and 		
	coral		
	reefs		
	Uncontrolled fishing		
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Molecular genetics	 Uncontrolled fishing No more details on mRNA, like how it's ribose, uses Uracil, etc. Target gene → now called gene-of-interest. But "gene" should also be accepted. so i'm not changing RT PALS. I'm removing the creating transgenic plants subsection also since virtually 		
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	notes last time), asexual repro. • Details of mitosis/meiosis (including identify diagrams) • Sources of variation: crossing over, independent assortment, random fert • Meiosis I is also known as reduction division \rightarrow Meiosis is a reduction division • Importance of reduction division: Restore diploid condition \rightarrow diploid number
	 New advantage to sexual repro: Might inherit favourable traits from both parents
	• No need calyx, pedicel (now just say flower stalk), corolla •
Repro in plants	NOTE: Lots of new info on parts of the grass flower. But I doubt they need to
	know so not putting in.Fertilisation process: Just say 1 male gamete comes out of the pollen tube.
Repro in humans	 need remove this from diagram: Epididymis, Seminal vesicles, cowper's
	$rac{\mathbf{gland}}{\mathbf{d}} ightarrow$ Now they just care about prostate gland.
	Remove from diag too: Endometrium, fallopian tube
	 LANE: Alkaline and lubricate function removed. removing LANE mem
	shortcut also.
	• Remove from diag: Acrosome
	o
	Need put in? + Need label diag for acrosome + how sperm enters ovum

	(enzymes, breaks down outer coating of ovum, enters.)
	Fertile period now
	(Day 10-15): assuming sperm survive up to 4 days, ovum survive 1 day.
	 SALT: Remove Trains digestive system. change to "Sleepy Angel's Lagoon"
	(Shock absorb, Allow movement, Lubricate birth canal)
Inheritance	 sex linked inheritance (was never in syllabus)
	Non separation explanation down syndrome, symptoms of down
	syndrome
	Put good to tall them what it looks like
	• What causes variation: Melosis, Mutation, random fertilisation
	•
	ARTIFICIAL SELECTION

OC. CAQ Notes (READ ME)

Commonly Asked Questions

- Why are CAQs so powerful for improving your Open-ended questions? Watch the timestamp 10:55 of this vid: <u>https://www.youtube.com/watch?</u> v=LVIbhRInt-8&t=655s
- I've looked through many papers, TYS, and assessment books to draw out the **commonly asked questions.** You'll find them under each topic's notes.
 - Following the 80/20 rule, 20% of OEQs will account for 80% of OEQs tested. These are the 20% most common OEQs examiners always test you on.bet
 - Get good at these and instantly score well for 80% of the paper. This is how you study smart.
 - NEW: I've added an asterisk in front of those questions which are the most common in TYS. These are the ones you must know how to write out very well.
- Each bullet point in the CAQ answers = 1m!!
- DISCLAIMER: Mark allocations in the CAQ notes are **conservative**.
 - Meaning, I'm assuming markers are strict and won't give out marks leniently.
 - However, in exams, you might see questions allocating more marks than you might expect. (Eg. *Describe transpiration* instead of only 4m, they allocate 5m. In these scenarios, it is likely that the mark scheme is "nice" and giving you 5m marks for the exact same 4m answer that I suggest in the CAQ answers).

1. Cells

Learning Outcomes:

- 1. Identify and state the functions of plant and animal cell organelles
- 2. State the relationship between cell structure and function (w.r.t. RBC, xylem, root hair cell)
- 3. Compare structures of plant and animal cells

Keywords:

- Organelle, membrane, cellular activities
- Steroids, detoxification, protein synthesis
- Small and temporary, large central, cell sap
- Modifies, sorts and packages
- Partially permeable, fully permeable
- Biconcave, surface area to volume ratio, flexible, bell-shaped, long, narrow protrusion

If you're our student: Cells Crash Course Clips





1. Identifying structures

Component/Organelle	Function	Visible under Light Microscope?
Nucleus	 Contains DNA (in the form of chromatin) Controls cellular activities 	Y
Nuclear envelope	Separates nucleus from cytoplasm	Y
Rough Endoplasmic Reticulum	 Studded with ribosomes Synthesises proteins (for transport out of the cell) 	Ν
Smooth Endoplasmic Reticulum	 Synthesises fats and steroids **Pro Tip: A class of molecules, including sex hormones Carries out detoxification: where harmful substances are converted to harmless ones 	

Cytoplasm	 Place where most cellular activities occur Contains organelles Site of anaerobic respiration 	Y
Vacuole	Animals: • Several small and temporary vacuoles • Store food and water Plants: • Have a large central vacuole • Stores cell sap (water + dissolved substances such as: sugars, amino acids, mineral salts)	Y (plants) N (animals)
Golgi body/apparatus	• <u>M</u> odifies, <u>S</u> orts and <u>P</u> ackages substances into vesicles for secretion out of cell	Ν
Mitochondria	• Site of aerobic respiration , where food substances (such as glucose) are broken down to release energy	Ν
Chloroplast (plants only)	• Site of photosynthesis	Υ
Cell surface membrane/plasma membrane	 Partially permeable Controls movement of substances in and out of the cell 	Υ
Cell wall (plants only)	 Fully permeable Made of Cellulose Gives cell its shape 	Υ
Ribosomes	Protein synthesis	Ν

[Memory Hacks]

- Golgi Body:
 - When receiving vesicles from ER, says "<u>M</u>ajulah <u>S</u>inga<u>P</u>ura"

- <u>M</u>odifies, <u>S</u>orts and <u>P</u>ackages substances into vesicles for secretion out of cell
- Rough ER:
 - Proteins \rightarrow Meat. When you bite into meat patty, has a **rough** texture
 - Rough ER synthesises proteins
- Smooth ER:
 - Lipids \rightarrow Oil. Oil is **smooth** and slippery.
 - Smooth ER synthesises lipids

2. Linking Structure to Function

*Pro Tip: These are repeated/explained more in their later respective topics.

How it is adapted to its function

Cell Structure

Red Blood Cell



- **Biconcave**, increases **surface area to volume ratio**, so oxygen can **diffuse** in/out of it faster
- Lacks a nucleus hence has more space for more haemoglobin, to transport more oxygen

Flexible, so it can squeeze through tiny capillaries

• Can become **bell-shaped** in capillaries, further increasing **surface area to volume ratio**

Root Hair Cell

- Has a **long, narrow protrusion** (root hair), that increases **surface area to volume ratio**, for faster absorption of water and mineral salts
- Have

many mitochondria to generate a lot of energy via



aerobic respiration
As they need to pump in mineral salts from the surrounding soil into their
large central vacuoles via active transport

3. Comparing Plant and Animal Cells

Comparison	Animal Cell	Plant cell
Chloroplasts	No	Yes (sometimes)
Cell wall	No	Yes (always)
Mitochondria	Yes (mostly)	Yes (mostly)
Vacuole	Small, temporary	Large, permanent
Size	Relatively smaller	Relatively bigger

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1. Cells CAQs

RBC vs RHC

Q: The table shows comparisons between a human red blood cell and a root hair cell.

Feature number	Feature	Red blood cell	Root hair cell
1	takes in oxygen	yes	yes
2	cytoplasm present	no	yes
3	large surface area to volume ratio	yes	yes
4	nucleus present	no	yes

Which comparisons are correct?

- A) 1, 2 and 3 only
- B) 1, 3 and 4 only
- C) 1 and 2 only
- D) 3 and 4 only

(B)

- 1 correct: RBC takes in O2 to transport it around. **RHC also needs O2 for aerobic respiration.** O2 diffuses from the air pockets in the soil into RHCs.
- 2 wrong Both RBC and RHC have **cytoplasm**, since they are **living** cells.
- 3 correct RBC has biconcave shape, RHC has an elongated protrusion, increasing the SA:V for both of them respectively.
- 4 correct RBC no nucleus, in order to pack in more haemoglobin. Only RHC has nucleus.

Organelle Functions



Q: Which organelle produces proteins and which organelle provides the energy for this process?

	organelle produces proteins	organelle provides energy
А	1	4
В	2	3
С	3	2
D	4	1

(D)

- Organelle that produces proteins: Proteins are produced by ribosomes, which are either free ribosomes in the cytoplasm or studded onto the Rough Endoplasmic Reticulum (RER). Only the RER is labelled as 4 in the diagram.
- Organelle that provides energy: Aerobic respiration occurs in **mitochondria** to release energy, and a mitochondrion is labelled as 1 in the diagram.
- Pro Tip: These questions often test on which organelles synthesise proteins (RER and free ribosomes)

Related Questions:

- Q: Which part of the living cell is the oxygen concentration lowest?
 (Using the same cell diagram as above)
- **(1)**.
- O2 is spread out quite equally throughout the cell due to diffusion, except around mitochondria,
- because **mitochondria use up O2 for aerobic respiration**, so the regions around mitochondria have less O2.

Pathway Out Of Cell

Q: Describe how proteins made in the cell are released to the outside of the cell. [3]

- The proteins are synthesised by the **Rough Endoplasmic Reticulum**, then sent via **vesicles** to the **Golgi body**.
- Here, they are modified, sorted and packaged into vesicles that pinch off the Golgi body.
- The secretory vesicles move to and **fuse** with the **plasma membrane** to release the proteins outside the cell.

Many Mitochondria

*Q: Suggest why root hair cells [cell type] have many mitochondria. [2]

- Root hair cells [cell type] need to pump in mineral salts from the surrounding soil into their large central vacuoles via active transport [energy-consuming activity].
- Hence they need many mitochondria to generate energy via aerobic respiration, where digested food substances are broken down into carbon dioxide and water, releasing a large amount of energy.

• Pro Tip: This kind of question could be asked about any cell type that has many mitochondria, e.g. muscle cell, companion cell, etc. You will have to replace [cell type] and [energy-consuming activity] accordingly.

Cells With High SA:V

*Q: What is the advantage of epithelial cells [cell type] having such a shape (having microvilli)? [2]

- An epithelial cell [cell type] has many microvilli, which increases its surface area to volume ratio,
- for faster diffusion and active transport [type of movement process] of digested food substances from the lumen of the small intestine into the cell [substance moved].

*Pro Tip: This kind of question could be asked about any cell that has high SA:V, e.g. root hair cell, red blood cell, etc. You will have to replace [cell type], [type of movement process] and [substance moved] accordingly.

Animal vs Plant cells

*Q: State 3 ways in which the structure of a plant cell differs from an animal cell. [3]

• Plant cells _____(A)____, while animal cells _____(B)____.

A	В
may have chloroplasts	do not have chloroplasts
have cell walls	do not have cell walls
have a permanent large central vacuole	have small and temporary vacuoles.

2. Movement of Substances

Learning Outcomes:

- 1. Define Diffusion, Osmosis and Active Transport
- 2. Movement of substances in nutrient uptake and gas exchange
- 3. Effects of osmosis on plant and animal tissues
- 4. Bonus: Factors affecting rate of diffusion.

Keywords:

- Diffuse, osmosis, active transport
- Water potential, down/against concentration gradient, steepness
- Partially permeable membrane
- Crenated, lyse/burst
- Plasmolysed, flaccid, turgid, turgor pressure

If you're our student: Movement of Substances Crash Course Clips

1. Definitions

- Diffusion: The net movement of particles from a region of higher concentration to a region of lower concentration, down a concentration gradient.
- Osmosis: The net movement of water molecules from a region of higher water potential to a region of lower water potential, through a partially permeable membrane.
- Active Transport: The movement of particles, using energy, from a region of lower concentration to a region of higher concentration, against a concentration gradient, through a partially permeable membrane.

*Pro Tip: When explaining these processes in contexts of questions, replace' substances' with the molecule in the question, e.g. CO2

Process	Diffusion	Osmosis	Active transport
Type of molecule	Any	Water	Any
Partially permeable membrane needed?	No	Yes	Yes
Energy needed?	No	No	Yes
Direction w.r.t. Concentration gradient	Down (higher to lower)	Down (higher to lower)	Against (lower to higher)

2. Movement of substances in nutrient uptake and gas exchange

Example



How substances are moving

- Digested food substances such as glucose, and amino acids diffuse into epithelial cells of villi in the small intestine
- After **diffusion** no longer occurs, these substances are transported in via **active transport**



- Mineral salts are transported from the soil into root hair cells via active transport, to maintain a high concentration of mineral salts in their vacuoles
- This creates a region of lower water potential than the surrounding soil, so that water flows in by osmosis



- O2 dissolves into the thin film of moisture lining the alveolar air space, then diffuses into the blood plasma
- Conversely, CO2 **diffuses** from the **blood plasma** into the **alveoli air space**



- O2 diffuses from the intercellular air spaces of the leaf to the surrounding air, through the stomata
- CO2 **diffuses** from the surrounding air into the **intercellular air spaces** of the leaf, through the **stomata**

3. Effects of osmosis on plant and animal tissues





How plasmolysed is different from flaccid:

- During **plasmolysis**, as a lot of water molecules have left the **cell sap** from the **large central vacuole** to the outside of the cell by **osmosis**,
- **cytoplasm** of the plant cell **shrinks** so much that the **plasma membrane** pulls away from the **cell wall**.

*Pro Tip: Turgidity in plant cells is important as it allows the plant to remain upright and reach for sunlight, especially if it has a non-woody stem.

4. Bonus: Factors affecting rate of diffusion

- Surface area to volume ratio: The higher the SA:V, the higher the diffusion rate
- **Temperature:** Higher temperature, molecules have more **kinetic energy**, hence move faster and diffuse down the concentration gradient faster
- Steepness of concentration gradient: The steeper the gradient, the higher the diffusion rate
- **Distance:** The shorter the distance that molecules need to travel/diffusion distance, the higher the diffusion rate
- **Molecule size:** Smaller molecules diffuse faster (e.g. glucose diffuses faster than sucrose)

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2. Movement of Substances CAQs

Important Definitions

*Q: Define the term diffusion.

• The net movement of particles from a region of higher concentration to a region of lower concentration, down a concentration gradient.

*Q: Define the term osmosis.

• The net movement of water molecules from a region of higher water potential to a region of lower water potential, through a partially permeable membrane.

*Q: Define the term active transport.

• The movement of particles, using energy, from a region of lower concentration to a region of higher concentration, against a concentration gradient, through a partially permeable membrane.

Plant Cell Osmosis

Q: The diagram shows a plant cell in a 5% glucose solution.

The concentration of the solution in the vacuole is equivalent to a 10% glucose solution.



Which row states where osmosis occurs and the direction of water movement?

А	cell wall	into the cell
В	cell wall	out of the cell
С	vacuolar membrane	into the cell
D	vacuolar membrane	out of the cell

(C)

- Where osmosis occurs: Cannot be the cell wall, as cell wall is fully permeable, whereas osmosis requires a partially permeable membrane (by definition).
- In the diagram, the only places for osmosis to occur would be the plasma membrane or the vacuole's membrane (vacuolar membrane). Since there only is an option for vacuolar membrane, has to be C or D.
- 5% glucose solution has higher water potential than 10% glucose solution, so water will move into the cell, has to be A or C.
- Pro Tip: For movement of substances questions, knowing the definitions well is very advantageous.

Which Shows Active Transport

Q: The diagrams show four identical plant cells.

The dots show the concentration of a chemical. The arrows represent the direction of movement of the chemical.



Which diagram(s) show a cell where active transport is taking place?

- A) 1 and 2
- B) 2 and 3
- C) 2 and 4
- D) 3 only

(D)

- 1 wrong active transport requires substances to move **against** the concentration gradient.
- 2 wrong active transport requires a **partially permeable** membrane.
- 3 correct against concentration gradient and through a partially permeable membrane.
- 4 wrong does not show particles moving from low to high concentration.

Applying Definitions

*Pro Tip: For certain questions, you may need to weave in the definition of these terms into your answer.

- Eg. Describe the movement of water into a root hair cell. [1]
 - Water moves by osmosis from a region of higher water potential in the soil to a region of lower water potential in the root hair cell, through a partially permeable membrane.

Strip of Cut Stem Bending

Q: A leek stem was cut into small strips and placed into 0.1% salt solution. After 20 minutes, it looked like this:



Explain the bent appearance of the strip. [4]

- 0.1% salt solution has a higher **water potential** than the **cell sap** of the cells in the stem.
- Hence, water moved into the cells via osmosis, causing them to swell and become turgid.
- The **epidermal** cells/cells of the outermost layer of the stem are lined with a **waxy**, **inflexible cuticle** which restricts their expansion, so they cannot expand as much as the inner cells.
- The **difference in expansion** causes the stem to curl further outwards.

*Pro Tip: 0.1% salt solution is still quite high water potential, it's higher than that of plant cells, hence water flows in. We get confirmation with the fact that the cuticle is on the 'bent inwards' side, showing the cells of the plant have expanded due to becoming turgid.

1%, 5%, 10% are the numbers where it likely is lower water potential than the cells placed in the solution, though the question will give clues on whether it indeed is.

3. Biomolecules

Learning Outcomes:

- 1. Carbohydrates, fats, and proteins: Their chemical elements, and the smaller molecules that make them up
- 2. Food tests for starch, reducing sugars, fats and proteins

Keywords:

- Monosaccharide, disaccharide, polysaccharide
- Amino acid, peptide, polypeptide
- Glycerol, fatty acid, triglyceride, solvent
- Carbohydrate, starch, glycogen, cellulose
- Reducing sugar, precipitate, cloudy white emulsion

If you're our student: Biomolecules Crash Course Clips

1. Elements making up carbs, fats and proteins

Type of Nutrient	Carbohydrate	Fats	Protein
Atoms	C, H, O (1:2:1 ratio)	C, H, very few O	C, H, O, N, (S) *Pro Tip: Some proteins have S (the element Sulfur), but not all. If a question tells you the molecule has Sulfur, it is likely to be a protein.
Basic unit	Monosaccharides • Glucose	Triglyceride (glycerol + 3 fatty	Amino acid

	FructoseGalactose	acids)	
Dimer (2 units)	Disaccharides Maltose (Glucose + <u>Glucose</u>) Sucrose* (Glucose + <u>Fructose</u>) Lactose (Glucose + <u>Galactose</u>) *Sucrose is the only non-reducing sugar out of the mono + disaccharides you learn.		Dipeptide
Many units (several thousand)	Polysaccharides	-	Polypeptide
Functions (bold = most important to give in qns)	 An immediate source of energy (glucose for aerobic respiration) Energy storage Structural molecules, e.g. cellulose 	 Long-term energy storage Thermal insulation Protects vital organs Forms cell membranes* Solvent for fat- soluble vitamins Secreted as oil on the skin to reduce water loss 	 Growth and repair of cells For the production of enzymes, antibodies and some hormones Synthesis of new muscle fibres
membrar	ies I	vithin	
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cells too.			

Formation

$\bigcup_{Dicense} + \bigcup_{dicense} \longrightarrow \bigcup_{Mellines} + H_2O \qquad \qquad \bigcup_{Dicense} + \bigotimes_{2^{T}Mick} \longrightarrow \bigcup_{Dicense} + 3H_2O \qquad \qquad \bigcup_{Area ard} + \bigcup_{Area ard} \longrightarrow \bigcup_{Dicense} + H_2O$

- How to remember what the 3 disaccharides are made of?
 - The 3 disaccharides are all made of glucose + 1 of the 3 monosaccharides
 - Lactose = Glucose + Galactose (galactose has lactose in the name!)
 - Sucrose = Glucose + <u>Fructose</u> (Fructose is found in Fruits, which are from plants. Plants also convert glucose into sucrose before transporting it in phloem. Therefore, associate sucrose with fructose as they are both linked to plants.)
 - **Maltose** = Glucose + <u>Glucose</u> (once you know the other 2, glucose is the only blank option left for maltose)

*Pro Tip: There are 2'c's in -saccharides, be careful when spelling

Reducing sugars

• All monosaccharides and disaccharides in our syllabus are reducing sugars, except sucrose.

Polysaccharides

Polysaccharide	Structure	Function	Found in
Cellulose	Thousands of glucose bonded together (FYI: straight chained)	Structural support	Plant cell walls

Starch	Thousands of glucose bonded together, bonds are different from those in cellulose (FYI: Branched)	Energy storage (plants)	Leaves/storage organs
Glycogen	More branched than starch	Energy storage (animals)	Liver/muscle cells

2. Food Tests

Test	Procedure	Results
Benedict's test [Reducing sugars]	 Liquid sample: 1. Add 2cm3 of Benedict's reagent to an equal volume of the sample in a test tube and shake. 2. Heat water in a beaker until it starts boiling (bubbles vigorously). 	Remains blue Green ppt Yellow ppt Brickred ppt No reducing sugars present Stars amount of reducing sugars
	 *Pro Tip: The water level in the beaker should be higher than that of the test tube. 1. Place the test tube into a beaker of already boiling water. 	(-) Solution remains blue (+) A brick- red/orange/green ppt is formed
	 2. Observe for colour change. Solid sample: Add 2cm3 of Benedict's reagent to a finely cut 	*Pro Tip: Upon heating with acid, sucrose is broken into glucose and fructose, which gives a positive result

3. Biomolecules

sample in a test tube and shake.

(Remaining steps are the same as if sample were liquid.)

Liquid sample:

- 1. Place a few drops of the sample on a white tile.
- 2. Add a few drops of **iodine** to a sample, observe for colour change.



(-) Solution remains yellow-brown

(+) Yellow-brown solution turns blueblack

Biuret test [Proteins]

lodine test

[Starch]

Solid sample:

1. Add a few drops of **iodine** to a sample, observe for colour change.



Liquid sample:

- Add 2cm3 of sodium hydroxide solution to an equal volume of sample and shake.
- Add 1% copper (II) sulfate solution, drop by drop (just a few drops), shaking after each drop.
- Allow the mixture to stand for 5 minutes and observe for the colour change.

- (-) Remains blue
- (+) Turns violet/purple

3. Biomolecules

Ethanol Emulsion test

[Fats]

Solid sample:

- Add 2cm3 of sodium hydroxide solution to a finely cut sample and shake.
- (Remaining steps are the same as if sample were liquid.)

*Pro Tip: Biuret reagent/solution is an already prepared solution. Adding protein to it turns it violet.

Liquid sample:

- Add 2cm3 of **ethanol** to equal volume of sample and shake.
- 2. Add 2cm3 of **water** to the mixture, shake.

Solid sample:

- 1. Add 2cm3 of **ethanol** to finely cut sample, shake and allow solids to settle.
- Decant the ethanol into another test tube containing 2cm3 of water, shake.

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(-) Solution remains clear

(+) Cloudy white emulsion formed

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3. Biomolecules CAQs

Food Tests

Q: Some tests were done on a sample that contains one or more unknown nutrients.

Test	Colour at start	Colour at end	
Benedict's test	blue	blue	
Biuret test	blue	blue	
lodine solution test	brown	blue-black	
Ethanol emulsion test	clear	cloudy white	

Which of the nutrients are present in the solution?

- A) protein, reducing sugar and starch
- B) protein and starch only
- C) reducing sugar and fats only
- D) starch and fats only

(D)

- Benedict's test: Tests for reducing sugar. (+) Green, yellow, orange or brick red. (-) blue
- Biuret test: Test for protein. (+) violet (-) blue
- Iodine solution test: Tests for starch. (+) blue-black. (-) yellow-brown
 - Starch present
- Ethanol emulsion test: Tests for fats. (+) cloudy white (-) clear
 - Fats present

*Pro Tip: Annotate (+) and (-) beside the columns while doing such questions. It makes it easier to do, and easier to check later on.

Elements in Various Biomolecules

Q: Which elements are found in all carbohydrates, fats and proteins?

- A) carbon and oxygen only
- B) carbon, hydrogen and oxygen
- C) hydrogen, nitrogen and oxygen
- D) nitrogen and oxygen only

(B)

- Carbs: C, H, O (in 1:2:1 ratio)
- Fats: C, H, and very little O
- Proteins: C, H, O, N, and sometimes S
- All 3 have C, H, O

Functions of Biomolecules

• (yellow highlight = most important to give in qns)

Q: Describe the functions of carbohydrates in living organisms. [4]

- Glucose is used in aerobic respiration as an immediate source of energy.
- Energy storage, such as starch in plants and glycogen in animals.
- As a **structural molecule**, such as **cellulose** cell walls of plants, which give cells their shape and prevents them from **bursting**.
- As we cannot digest **cellulose**, it serves as **dietary fibre**, preventing constipation.

Q: Describe the functions of fats in living organisms. [6]

- Long-term energy storage, which can be broken down to provide energy for aerobic respiration when needed.
- Thermal insulation to prevent excessive heat loss to the environment.
- Are a **solvent** for **fat-soluble vitamins** to be absorbed by the body.
- Are used to form **cell membranes**.
- Protects **vital organs** from physical injury/mechanical damage.
- Secreted as **oil** on the skin surface to reduce water loss.

Q: Describe the functions of proteins in living organisms. [5]

- For the growth and repair of cells.
- Synthesis of **enzymes**, which are needed for many **metabolic reactions**.
- Synthesis of **hormones**, which are needed for coordinating responses from target organs.
- Synthesis of **antibodies**, which are made by the **immune system** to fight off invading micro-organisms.
- Synthesis of new **muscle** fibres.
- (Any valid point, as proteins are so widely used).

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4. Enzymes

Learning Outcomes:

- 1. Explain the mode of action of enzymes using 'lock and key' hypothesis, including active site, activation energy, enzyme specificity
- 2. Effect of pH and temperature on enzyme-catalysed reaction
- 3. Bonus: Benefits of using enzymes

Keywords:

- Biological catalysts, alternative pathway, activation energy, chemically unchanged
- Substrates, active site, specific three-dimensional structure, complementary
- Lock and key hypothesis, enzyme-substrate complex, optimum temperature/pH
- Kinetic energy, chance of collision
- Weak bonds, denature

If you're our student: Enzymes Crash Course Clips

1. Mode of action

- Enzymes: Biological catalysts that speed up chemical reactions by providing an alternative pathway of lower activation energy, and remain chemically unchanged after the reaction.
- **Activation energy:** The energy needed to start a chemical reaction.



Lock and Key hypothesis (Mode of Action)

- According to the lock and key hypothesis,
- a **specific** substrate (key) is **complementary** to and binds to the **active site** of the enzyme (lock), and bind,
- forming an enzyme-substrate complex.
- The enzyme then catalyses the reaction (by breaking/forming the bond in context)*
- After reaction, products are **no longer complementary** to the **active site**, hence they leave the **active site**.
- The enzyme remains **chemically unchanged** and can accept a new substrate.

*Pro Tip: If the question was on 'explain the mode of action of sucrase', state here that sucrase catalyses the reaction by breaking the bond between glucose and fructose

[Memory Shortcut]

- Mode of action of enzymes [Be Careful Red Light Unchanged]
 - **B:** enzyme and substrate **B**inds
 - **C:** forming an enzyme-substrate **C**omplex
 - R: Reaction is catalysed

- L: products Leave active site
- U: enzyme remains chemically Unchanged

Characteristics of Enzymes

- Protein in nature
- Have a **specific three-dimensional (3D) structure**, only catalyse one type of reaction
- Has an **active site** that the substrate is complementary to
- Has an optimum temperature and optimum pH where rate of activity is highest

*Pro Tip: Each enzyme has its own preferred optimum temperature and pH, depending on its function.

2. Effect of Temperature and pH

Effect of increasing temperature on enzyme activity



- As temperature increases from low until the **optimum temperature**, **kinetic energy** of enzyme and substrate molecules increases, increasing their **chances of collision**.
- Enzyme-substrate complexes form faster, and rate of reaction increases until the optimum temperature, where rate is highest.
- As temperature increases beyond **optimum temperature**, **weak bonds** within enzymes are broken, causing the enzyme to lose the shape of its **active site** and become **denatured**.
- The substrate can **no longer fit** into the **active site**, hence rate of reaction decreases sharply to 0.

Effect of pH on enzyme activity



- At pH 7, reaction rate is maximum as this is the enzyme's **optimum pH**.
- As pH moves further from pH 7, reaction rate decreases sharply. When pH moves too far from 7, weak bonds within the enzyme are broken,
- the enzyme loses the shape of its **active site** and becomes **denatured**.
- The substrate can **no longer fit** into the **active site**, hence rate decreases sharply until 0.

3. Bonus: Benefits of using enzymes

- As catalysts, they speed up reactions that would otherwise take a long time (saves time)
- Since enzymes remain chemically unchanged after reaction, only a small amount of them is needed (saves money/resources)
- Enzymes can **catalyse** reactions at lower temperatures than if they were to be done without enzymes (saves energy)
- Enzymes are **specific**, hence only the intended reaction will occur

*Pro Tip: Each of these are actually linking a characteristic of enzymes to a benefit

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4. Enzymes CAQs

Important Definitions

*Q: Define the term enzyme.

• Enzymes are biological catalysts that speed up chemical reactions by providing an alternative pathway of lower activation energy, and remain chemically unchanged after the reaction.

*Q: Define the term activation energy.

• The energy needed to start a chemical reaction.

Q: Define the term optimum/pH temperature.

• The temperature/pH where enzyme's rate of reaction is the highest (and where rate of enzyme-substrate complexes forming is fastest).

Activation Energy

Q: The two curves below show energy levels as a reaction progresses, with and without an enzyme. Which arrow represents the total activation energy of the reaction without the enzyme?



- (A)
 - Concept: **Enzymes lower the activation energy** of a reaction, so the taller curve is the one without the enzyme.
 - Activation energy without energy must be A.

Enzyme Mode of Action

*Q: Using the lock and key hypothesis, explain the mode of action of an enzyme. [5]

- Mode of action of enzymes [Be Careful Red Light Unchanged]
 - **B:** enzyme and substrate **B**inds
 - C: forming an enzyme-substrate Complex
 - R: Reaction is catalysed
 - L: products Leave active site
 - U: enzyme remains chemically Unchanged
- According to the **lock and key hypothesis**, a specific **substrate** is the 'key'. It is **complementary** to the **active site** of the enzyme, which is the 'lock',
- And **binds** to it, forming an **enzyme-substrate complex**.
- The enzyme then **catalyses** the reaction.
- After the reaction, the **products** are **no longer complementary** to the **active site**, hence they leave the **active site**.
- The enzyme remains **chemically unchanged** and can accept a new substrate.

*Pro Tip: For the above question, you are required to make reference to the lock and key hypothesis.

- Related Questions:
 - Q: Explain the mode of action of sucrase. [5]
 - Pro Tip: For questions like the above that specify the enzyme, use the specific names of the enzymes and substrates in your answer. i.e. For

this case, sucrase and sucrose.

Enzyme Activity and Temperature

*Q: Explain how the rate of an enzyme-catalysed reaction may be affected by increasing temperature. [4]

- As temperature increases from low until the **optimum temperature**, **kinetic energy** of enzyme and substrate molecules increases, increasing their **chances of collision**.
- Enzyme-substrate complexes form faster, and reaction rate increases until the optimum temperature, where rate is the highest.
- As temperature increases beyond **optimum temperature**, **weak bonds** within enzymes are broken, the enzyme loses the shape of its **active site** and is **denatured**.
- The substrate is **no longer complementary** to the **active site**, hence reaction rate decreases sharply to 0.

• Related Questions:

- Q: The temperature of the water bath for an enzyme-catalysed reaction was maintained carefully at 37°C. Explain why (assuming the enzyme is a human enzyme). [3]
- Pro Tip: You would answer that this temperature is near the optimum temperature of this enzyme, and it is not too low (enzyme would be inactive), neither is it too high (enzyme would denature).

Enzyme Activity and pH

*Q: Explain how the rate of an enzyme-catalysed reaction may be affected by changes in pH (assuming the optimum pH of the enzyme in question is 7). [4]

- At pH 7, reaction rate is maximum as this is the enzyme's **optimum pH**.
- As pH moves further from pH 7, reaction rate decreases sharply. When pH moves too far from 7, **weak bonds** within the enzyme are **broken**,

- the enzyme loses the shape of its **active site** and becomes **denatured**.
- The substrate is **no longer complementary** to the **active site**, hence rate decreases sharply to 0.

Limiting Factor Questions



Q: Explain why the rate of reaction does not increase after point X, despite the substrate concentration increasing. [1]

• After point X, **substrate concentration** is no longer the **limiting factor**, hence increasing it does not increase reaction rate.

Biological Washing Powders

Q: Biological washing powders (detergents) contain one or more enzymes. Suggest the advantages of using biological washing powders compared to those without enzymes. [4]

- As biological **catalysts**, they speed up reactions for breaking down stains that would otherwise take a long time, saving time.
- Since enzymes remain chemically unchanged after the reaction, only a small amount of them is needed, saving money and resources.

- Enzymes can catalyse reactions at lower temperatures than if they were to be done without enzymes, saving energy needed to heat clothes up to higher temperatures.
- Enzymes are **specific**, hence only the intended reaction of breaking down the stains will occur, instead of any unintended reactions, such as breaking down of the dyes of clothes.

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5. Nutrition in Humans

Learning Outcomes:

- 1. Main parts of the alimentary canal + related processes
- 2. Summary: Enzymes Involved in digestion
- 3. Peristalsis
- 4. Structure and function of villi
- 5. Liver functions and its associated blood vessels
- 6. Effects of excessive alcohol consumption

Keywords:

- Ingestion, digestion, absorption, assimilation, egestion
- Peristalsis, antagonistic
- Bile salts, emulsify, fat globules
- Digested food substances
- Deamination, detoxification, blood glucose concentration
- Addictive, depressant, reaction time, cirrhosis, social responsibilities, dementia, brain volume

If you're our student: Nutrition in Humans Crash Course Clips

1. Main parts of the alimentary canal

Definitions of processes

- 1. **Ingestion:** The intake of food through the mouth.
- 2. **Digestion:** The physical or chemical breakdown of larger food molecules into smaller and soluble molecules that can be absorbed by body cells.
- 3. **Absorption:** The uptake of digested food substances into body cells.

- 4. **Assimilation:** Digested food substances are used to make new cell parts or used for energy.
- 5. **Egestion:** The removal of undigested food waste from the body.



Part (Processes)	Function	рН	Digestive enzymes
Mouth (Ingestion, <mark>Digestion</mark>)	Teeth: • Chews food (mechanical digestion) • Breaks food into smaller pieces, increasing SA:V for enzymes to digest it faster	7	Salivary amylase

	Salivary glands: • Secrete saliva containing salivary amylase , breaks down starch into maltose Tongue: • Rolls food into a bolus to be swallowed • Mixes saliva with food		
Oesophagus	• Pushes food from mouth into the stomach	7	-
Stomach (Digestion)	 Gastric glands secrete gastric juice containing hydrochloric acid and protease Protease breaks down protein into short polypeptides Stomach churns food, breaking up food (mechanical digestion) and mixing it with gastric juice 	2	Protease
	*Pro Tip: There are many types of protease, but for simplicity in our		

	syllabus, they are all referred to as 'protease'		
Small Intestine (Digestion, Absorption, Assimilation) *Pro Tip: Absorption	Small intestine • Is very long, giving more time for digested food	7-9	(Epithelial, <u>LiMP</u>): Intestinal <u>Li</u> pase,
involves both diffusion + active transport	substances to be		<u>M</u> altase,
	absorbed • Has many folds, increasing SA:V • Parts of the small intestine [DJI] • Duodenum: Mainly digestion, some absorption • Jejunum: Some digestion, some absorption • Ileum: Some digestion, mainly absorption		<u>P</u> rotease
	[Memory Hack] • " <u>D</u> wayne <u>J</u> ohnson and <u>I</u> " for small intestine parts • <u>D</u> uodenum, <u>J</u> ejunum, <u>I</u> leum		
	• Epithelial cells of the small intestine secrete <u>LiMP</u> enzymes • Intestinal <u>Li</u> pase: fats → glycerol +		

	fatty acids ∘ <u>M</u> altase: maltose → glucose + glucose ∘ <u>P</u> rotease: short polypeptides → amino acids		
Small Intestine	Gall bladder • Stores bile (an alkaline yellow- green liquid) • Bile is secreted into the duodenum via the bile duct during digestion • Bile salts in bile emulsify large fat droplets into smaller ones, increasing SA:V for lipase to digest triglycerides into glycerol and fatty acids • *Pro Tip: This is physical digestion, not chemical digestion, since fat molecules are not being altered.	7-9	(Pancreas, LAP): Pancreatic Amylase, Protease

	 Pancreas Pancreas secretes pancreatic juice (alkaline) containing LAP enzymes into duodenum Pancreatic Lipase: fats → glycerol + fatty acids Pancreatic Amylase: starch → maltose Protease: Proteins → short polypeptides 		
Large Intestine/Colon(Absorption)	 Has many folds, increasing SA:V Large intestine absorbs water and mineral salts Undigested food (faeces) are temporarily stored in the rectum 	7	-
Anus (Egestion)	• Faeces is expelled	7	-

[Memory Shortcuts]

- Pancreatic enzymes [LAP]
 - L: pancreatic Lipase
 - A: pancreatic <u>A</u>mylase
 - P: Protease
- Enzymes secreted by the small intestine's epithelial cells [LiMP]

- intestinal Lipase
- Maltase
- Protease

2. Summary: Enzymes involved in digestion

Enzyme	Produced by	Digests	Found in	pH of Location
Amylase (salivary)	Salivary glands	Starch \rightarrow Maltose	Saliva (Mouth)	7
Protease	Gastric glands	Proteins \rightarrow Short Polypeptides*	Stomach	2
Lipase (pancreatic) Amylase (pancreatic)	Pancreas	Triglycerides \rightarrow Glycerol + Fatty acids Starch \rightarrow Maltose Proteins \rightarrow Short Polypeptides*	Pancreatic juice	Alkaline (>7)
Lipase (Intestinal)	Epithelial cells	Triglycerides \rightarrow Glycerol + Fatty acids Maltose \rightarrow	Small intestine	7-9
Protease		Glucose + Glucose Short Polypeptides* \rightarrow Amino acids		

*Pro Tip: Short polypeptides is more accurate than just 'polypeptides', since it distinguishes between the length of the polypeptide (undigested proteins are folded polypeptides, hence the ambiguity).

3. Peristalsis



Definition (in digestion): Rhythmic, wave-like muscular contractions in the wall of the alimentary canal that moves food forward

- Peristalsis propels food forward ensuring it moves in the right direction,
- also mixes food with digestive juices

How it works:

- At the region before the food mass, **circular muscles** contract while **longitudinal muscles** relax, narrowing the **lumen** and pushing food forward
- At the food mass, **circular muscles** relax while **longitudinal muscles** contract, widening the **lumen**, allowing food to pass through easily
- The above also applies for the region just in front of the food mass
- **Circular muscles** and **longitudinal muscles** are **antagonistic** (i.e. when one contracts, the other relaxes)

*Pro Tip: Peristalsis occurs throughout the alimentary canal, not just in the oesophagus

[Memory Hack]

- How to remember what circular muscles are doing in peristalsis
 - Think of circular muscles as 'controlling' the lumen size. At the point where you see it squeezing (contracting), the circular muscles are therefore contracting too.
 - If lumen is widening (relaxing) at an area, circular muscles are relaxing too.

4. Structure and function of villi



Where digested substances are absorbed:

- Glucose and amino acids move by diffusion + active transport into blood capillaries (red in diagram) of villi to be transported to the liver.
- Glycerol and fatty acids move by diffusion + active transport into the epithelial cells of villi, where they reform into triglycerides, then enter the lacteal (yellow in diagram) as fat globules.

*Pro Tip: Villus is singular, villi is plural.

*Pro Tip: Water is also absorbed at villi by osmosis.

Adaptations for fast absorption:

- Villi are finger-like projections in the small intestine, increasing SA:V
- Are lined with a **one-cell-thick** layer of **epithelial cells**, minimising **distance** digested food substances have to travel
- Epithelial cells have microvilli, further increasing SA:V

 Absorbed substances that enter the lacteal and blood capillaries are constantly transported away, maintaining a steep concentration gradient between the lumen and villi to maximise diffusion rate of digested substances into villi.

*Pro Tip: After diffusion has reached equilibrium, active transport is needed to further absorb digested substances

5. The Liver



What happens to absorbed digested food substances:

- Hepatic portal vein transports glucose and amino acids from small intestine to the liver
- **Glucose** is converted to **glycogen** and stored in the **liver** and **muscles**, or transported around the body for cells to uptake and use for energy
- Amino acids are transported around the body and taken up by cells during assimilation, to build new cell parts/protoplasm
 - **Deamination:** The process where **amino groups** are removed from **excess amino acids** and converted into **urea**, in the liver.
 - Hence hepatic vein has high urea.
- Fats are transported around the body to be stored/used for energy

Functions of liver	Description
D etoxification	Detoxification is the process where harmful substances (e.g. hydrogen peroxide, alcohol) are converted into harmless ones.
Breakdown of <u>H</u> ormones	Hormones are broken down at the liver after they have caused target organs to carry out the response.
Bile production	The liver produces bile , which is stored in the gall bladder .
Amino acids (Deamination)	The process where amino groups are removed from excess amino acids and converted into urea , in the liver.
Blood <u>G</u> lucose regulation	When blood glucose concentration is too high, liver converts glucose to glycogen in response to insulin .When blood glucose concentration is too low, liver converts glycogen to glucose in response to glucagon .

[Memory Shortcut]

- Dun Have BAG for functions of the liver
 - **D**etoxification
 - Hormone breakdown
 - Bile production
 - Amino acids \rightarrow Urea (Deamination)
 - Glucose regulation

6. Effects of excessive alcohol consumption

Short term effects:

- Alcohol is a depressant, meaning it slows brain functions, increases reaction time
- Reduces self-control, increasing tendency to make irrational decisions

Long term effects:

- Addictive, leading to neglect of social responsibilities
- Stimulates acid secretion in stomach, increasing risk of stomach ulcers
- Liver is overworked, cells start dying, which can lead to liver damage:
 - E.g. Liver cirrhosis (formation of fibrous tissue), liver failure
- Causes brain damage:
 - E.g. Dementia, high consumption during pregnancy may impair foetus' brain development

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5. Nutrition in Humans CAQs

Important Definitions

Q: Define the term ingestion.

• The intake of food through the mouth.

Q: Define the term digestion.

• The physical or chemical breakdown of larger food molecules into smaller and soluble molecules that can be absorbed by body cells.

Q: Define the term absorption.

• The uptake of digested food substances into body cells.

Q: Define the term assimilation.

• The process whereby digested food substances are used to make new cell parts or used for energy.

Q: Define the term egestion.

• The removal of undigested food waste from the body.

Q: Define peristalsis (in the context of digestion).

• Rhythmic, wave-like muscular contractions in the wall of the alimentary canal that moves food forward.

Q: Define deamination.

• The process where amino groups are removed from excess amino acids and converted into urea, in the liver.

Q: Define detoxification.

The process whereby harmful substances are converted into harmless ones.

Peristalsis Muscles

Q: The diagram shows a food bolus moving down the oesophagus.



Which row identifies the muscles and their actions at region W?

	muscle X		muscle Y	
	muscle type	action	muscle type	action
А	circular	contracting	longitudinal	relaxing
В	circular	relaxing	longitudinal	contracting
С	longitudinal	contracting	circular	relaxing
D	longitudinal	relaxing	circular	contracting

(D)

- X = longitudinal muscles (as seen from the horizontal muscle fibres within it)
- Y = circular muscles. When circular muscles contract, lumen also narrows, so Y is contracting.
- Since X and Y are **antagonistic**, X is relaxing.
- *Pro Tip: Think in terms of circular muscles. When circular muscles contract, the lumen also "contracts".

Liver Functions

Q: Some processes that occur in the body are listed. Which processes occur in the liver?

- 1 breakdown of hormones
- 2 breakdown of starch
- 3 formation of urine
- 4 storage of glycogen
- A) 1 and 2
- B) 1 and 4
- C) 2 and 3
- D) 3 and 4

(B**)**

- Refer to the functions of the liver memory shortcut, **D**un **H**ave **BAG**.
 - 1 & 4 are correct.
- 2 is wrong as animals don't store starch, we store **glycogen**.
- 3 is wrong, formation of **urea** occurs in liver, but formation of urine occurs in **kidneys**.

Alcohol Effects

Q: Which section of the diagram represents the effects of excessive alcohol consumption on the body?



(C)

- Careless mistake: Alcohol reduces reaction time.
- Alcohol reduces reaction **speed**, hence **increases** reaction time.

Digestion of Various Biomolecules

*Q: Describe the digestion of protein in the body. [2]

- Protein is broken down into **short polypeptides** by **protease** in the **stomach** and **small intestine**.
- Short polypeptides are further broken down into amino acids by protease in the small intestine.

*Q: Describe the digestion of carbohydrates in the body. [3]

- Starch is broken down into maltose by salivary amylase in the mouth,
- And by **pancreatic amylase** in the small intestine.
- In the small intestine, maltose is further broken down by maltase into glucose.
- *Q: Describe the digestion of fats in the body. [3]
 - During digestion, **bile** is secreted from the **gall bladder** into the **duodenum**, through the **bile duct**.

- Bile salts in bile emulsify large fat droplets into smaller ones,
- increasing the surface area to volume ratio for pancreatic lipase and intestinal lipase to digest fats into glycerol and fatty acids.
- Related Questions:
 - Q: Describe how bile aids in fat digestion. [2]
 - Q: Describe the roles of enzymes in human digestion. Give examples in your answer. [5]
 - *Pro Tip: For such a question, use examples of digestion of some macromolecules, such as protein (pepsin + trypsin + peptidases involved) and starch (amylase + maltase involved). You don't have to talk about every single enzyme, just include enough points to hit the mark allocation.

Adaptations of Villi

*Q: Villi are found in the digestive system. Describe the structure and function of a villus. [6]

- Villi are finger-like projections in the small intestine, which increase surface area to volume ratio for faster absorption.
- Glucose and amino acids diffuse into blood capillaries of villi to be transported to the liver.
- Glycerol and fatty acids diffuse into the epithelial cells of villi, where they reform into triglycerides, then enter the lacteal as fat globules.
- Are lined with a **one-cell-thick** layer of **epithelial cells**, minimising **distance** digested food substances have to travel, increasing absorption rate.
- Epithelial cells have **microvilli**, further increasing **surface area to volume ratio** for faster absorption.
- Absorbed substances that enter the lacteal and blood capillaries are constantly transported away, maintaining a steep concentration gradient
between the **lumen** and **villi** to maximise **diffusion** rate of digested substances into villi.

- Related Questions:
 - Q: Describe how villi are adapted to absorb digested food. [4]
 - *Pro Tip: For this question, just go straight to describing the adaptations.
 - Q: Describe how the small intestine is adapted for absorption of digested food substances. [4]
 - It is very long, allowing more **time** for more **digested food substances** to be absorbed as they travel through.
 - Has many **folds** to increase **surface area to volume ratio** for faster absorption.
 - *Pro Tip: For the remaining 2 marks, use any 2 points about villi adaptations.

Functions of Liver

- Q: Describe the functions of the liver. [5]
- Functions of the liver [Dun Have BAG]
 - D: Detoxification
 - H: Hormone breakdown
 - B: Bile production
 - A: Amino acids \rightarrow Urea (Deamination)
 - G: blood Glucose regulation
- The liver carries out detoxification, where harmful substances such as alcohol are converted into harmless ones.
- The liver breaks down **hormones** after they have served their purpose.

- The liver **produces bile**, which is then stored in the **gall bladder**. Bile aids in fat digestion.
- The liver carries out **deamination**, where **amino groups** are removed from **excess amino acids** and converted into **urea**.
- The liver aids in **blood glucose regulation**, converting **glucose** to **glycogen** when **blood glucose concentration** is too high, and vice versa when glucose levels are too low.

Effects of Alcohol

*Q: State the short term and long term effects of excessive alcohol consumption. [4]

Short term:

- It is a depressant, which slows brain functions and increases reaction time, increasing chances of driving accidents.
- It reduces **self-control**, increasing the chances a person makes **irrational/reckless decisions**.

Long term (Choose 2):

- It stimulates excessive acid secretion in the stomach, which could lead to peptic ulcers.
- It could lead to death of liver cells and eventually liver failure/liver cirrhosis.
- It could lead to addiction, and thus leading to overspending on alcohol/neglect of social responsibilities.
- It could lead to dementia due to alcohol damage, a condition known as 'wet brain'.
- High consumption during **pregnancy** may impair the **foetus' brain development**.

Drinking and driving

Q: Alcohol is a depressant. Explain why it is dangerous to drive under the influence of alcohol. [3]

- While driving, the driver needs to **react quickly** by pressing the brakes or steering to safety when a collision is about to occur.
- Alcohol is a **depressant**, which slows **brain functions** and increases **reaction time**.
- Someone under the influence of alcohol may not be able to react in time, increasing the chances of a road accident.

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6. Transport in Humans

Learning Outcomes:

- 1. Main blood vessels in the body
- 2. The role of blood (transport, defence) and its components
- 3. Blood groups and their compatibilities
- 4. Structure and function of arteries, capillaries and veins
- 5. Transfer of materials between capillaries, tissue fluid and cells
- 6. Structure and function of heart
- 7. Cardiac cycle
- 8. Coronary artery disease

Keywords:

- Oxygenated, deoxygenated
- Insoluble, coagulation, clot, universal donor, universal recipient
- Tissue rejection, antibody, neutralises, antigen, agglutination
- Biconcave, bell-shaped
- Arteries, arterioles, capillaries, venules, veins
- Tissue fluid, one-cell-thick
- Blood pressure, backflow, atrioventricular, semi-lunar valves, systole, diastole
- Coronary, atherosclerosis, fatty deposit, lumen

If you're our student: Transport in Humans Crash Course Clips

1. Main blood vessels in the body



*Pro Tip: Blood from the stomach and intestines does not go back to the heart directly through veins, it passes through the liver first.

2. The role of blood (transport, defence) and its components

Component	Structure/Appearance	Function	
Plasma (55%)	Made of 95% water	Carries dissolved substances in the blood such as glucose, amino acids, mineral salts, CO2, waste, hormones, plasma proteins, etc.	
Red Blood Cells	 O2 binds to haemogl around the body 	obin in red blood cells and is carried	
	 When blood passes t dissociates from hae 	hrough oxygen-poor areas, O2 e moglobin and diffuses into body cells	
	FYI: Carbon dioxide is als	so transported in red blood cells,	
	brought to the lungs for removal.		
	Biconcave	Increases SA:V for O2 to diffuse in/out of the cell faster	

	Lacks a nucleus	More space to pack in more haemoglobin
	Flexible	To squeeze through tiny capillaries , in which, it can become bell-shaped , further increasing SA:V
White Blood Cells - Phagocytes		Phagocytosis: The process where phagocytes engulf foreign particles and destroy them
	 Can have a lobed nucleus Can have tendril-like protrusions 	
White Blood	Have a large	Produce antibodies, which:
Cells - Lymphocytes	nucleus	 Cause pathogens to clump together (agglutination), promoting phagocytosis
		 Bind to and neutralises harmful toxins that pathogens produce
		Tissue rejection:
		 When lymphocytes produce antibodies against a transplanted organ to destroy it
Platelets	Membrane- bound bodies	Promotes blood clotting (coagulation) at the site of injury, sealing the wound to

(Not considered cells)

prevent loss of **blood** and preventing the entry of harmful **microorganisms**.

[Memory hack]

- How to remember which is coagulation and agglutination
 - Agglutination: Due to Antibodies in the blood
 - Coagulation: blood Clotting

How blood clots (Coagulation)

- When blood vessels are damaged, **platelets** are activated, which trigger the conversion of **soluble fibrinogen** into **insoluble Fibrin**,
- Forming long insoluble Fibrin threads which trap red blood cells, forming a clot at the site of injury.

	А	В	AB	0
Red Blood Cell Type				
Antibodies in Plasma	<mark>іі</mark> Anti-В	H Anti-A	None	Anti-A and Anti-B
Antigens on Red Blood Cell	T A antigen) B antigen	A and B antigens	None
Who can donate to this blood group	Α, Ο	в, О	А, В, АВ, О	0

3. Blood groups and their compatibilities

How to remember intuitively:

- The body will naturally produce **antibodies** of the other blood types, except against its own RBC's **antigens** (or it will kill its own RBCs!)
- If you transfer blood into a recipient who does not have **antibodies** against the donor's blood type, the transfusion will be safe.
- Special blood types:
 - AB is the **universal acceptor** can receive from all, but cannot donate to any
 - O is the **universal donor** can donate to all, but cannot receive from any

4. Structure and function of arteries, capillaries and veins





Function

- Carries blood **away** from the heart
- Usually carry oxygenated blood, except for **pulmonary artery**
- Have thick elastic and muscular walls to accommodate/withstand

Capillaries

Veins



and the **high blood pressure** exerted by the heart

- Elastic and muscular walls stretch and **recoil**, maintaining high blood pressure and pushing blood forward in **spurts**
- Arteries branch out into arterioles, then into capillaries
- Are present near almost every cell in the body
- Made of a wall of **one-cell-thick** cells, minimising diffusion distance, increasing diffusion rate
- Capillaries branch repeatedly, increasing **SA**:**V**, hence increasing rate of **diffusion** of substances in and out of them
- Capillaries converge into venules, then into veins
- Veins carry blood back to the heart
- Usually carry deoxygenated blood, except for pulmonary vein
- Have **semi-lunar valves** to prevent **backflow** of blood, which is likely due to low **blood pressure** in veins
- Larger lumen to reduce resistance to bloodflow
- Thin elastic and muscular walls as blood pressure is lower
- Contraction of skeletal muscles exerts pressure on veins, moving blood along more quickly

Graph of Blood pressure against location

- The further from the **aorta**, the lower the blood pressure due to **loss of energy**
- In arteries and arterioles, blood pressure fluctuates as:
 - Arteries have thick **elastic** and **muscular** walls that **stretch** and **recoil**, and are directly connected to the **left ventricle**.
 - Hence, blood pressure increases during ventricular systole as left ventricle contracts, and decreases during ventricular diastole as left ventricle relaxes.



5. Transfer of materials between capillaries, tissue fluid and cells



- Capillaries bring nutrients and O2, which diffuse from the blood plasma to the tissue fluid
- These then diffuse from tissue fluid into cells
- Conversely, **waste products** and **CO2 diffuse** out of the cells into the **tissue fluid**, then into the **blood plasma** of capillaries.



6. Structure and function of the heart + types of circulation



[Memory hack]

- How to remember bicuspid valve is on the left side of the heart, tricuspid is on the right
 - We always read words from Left to Right
 - Bicuspid valve has <u>2</u> flaps (hence "bi-"), tricuspid valve has <u>3</u> flaps (hence "tri-")
 - $\circ~$ So remember Left \rightarrow 2, Right \rightarrow 3.

Parts of the heart	Function
Atria	Have thinner walls then ventricles
Ventricles	 Left ventricle has thicker muscular walls as it has to generate high pressure to quickly pump blood around entire body Right ventricle has thinner muscular walls, as it does not need to generate as high of a pressure to pump blood to lungs
	*Pro Tip: Use ventricle wall thickness to identify which side of the diagram is right/left. Usually, heart diagrams are mirror imaged, meaning the left side of the picture is the right side of the heart.
Chordae tendineae	Attaches valves to the heart walls

Modium contum	 Separates left and right sides, so deoxygenated and 	
Medium Septum	oxygenated blood stay separate	

7. Cardiac Cycle



(Link for the above GIF to visualise bloodflow in heart: https://media.tenor.com/d09JYv5q8xsAAAAC/heart-heart-pumping.gif)



*Note: Blue = Aorta, Red = Left Ventricle, Yellow = Left Atrium

From Graph:

- (1) Atrioventricular valves close
- (2) Semi-lunar valves open
- (3) Semi-lunar valves close
- (4) Atrioventricular valves open
- **Systole** = contraction
- **Diastole** = relaxation
- RA = Right atrium, LA = Left atrium, RV = Right ventricle, LV = Left ventricle

Atrial systole (+Ventricular diastole)

- Both atria contract, pushing blood past the **atrioventricular valves** into the ventricles
 - LA pumps blood past the mitral/bicuspid valve to the LV
 - RA pumps blood past the tricuspid valve to the RV

*Pro Tip: AV valves were already open before atrial systole, as they opened near the end of ventricular diastole.

Ventricular systole (+Atrial diastole)

- Ventricles contract
 - **Pulmonary semi-lunar valve** is forced open, blood moves from **RV** to the **pulmonary artery**, and is sent to the lungs.
 - Aortic semi-lunar valve is forced open, blood moves from LV to the aorta, and is sent to the rest of the body.
- At the same time, **atrioventricular valves** close, preventing **backflow** of blood from ventricles to the atria.
 - This causes the first '**lub**' sound.
- Meanwhile, atria relax,

- Blood from pulmonary vein flows into LA
- Blood from vena cava flows into RA

Ventricular diastole (+Atrial diastole)

- Ventricles relax
 - Semi-lunar valves close, preventing backflow of blood from the pulmonary artery and aorta back into the ventricles.
 - This causes the second '**dub**' sound.
- Blood fills the relaxed atria and ventricles again
- Typical duration of each cardiac cycle: 0.8s = 75 beats per min
- *Pro Tip: When the heart pumps faster, such as during exercise, the duration of each cardiac cycle will be shorter.

8. Coronary artery disease

Atherosclerosis: The disease where fatty deposits accumulate on the inner walls of arteries, narrowing the lumen.

Coronary artery: An artery that branches out of the aorta, sending oxygen and nutrients to the heart muscles.

Coronary artery disease: When atherosclerosis occurs in a coronary artery.

Heart attack

- If a **fatty deposit** ruptures in a **coronary artery**, a **blood clot** could form, blocking the **artery**.
- Blood with **oxygen** and **nutrients** cannot reach the **heart muscles** for them to release **energy** via **aerobic respiration**, hence they die, resulting in a **heart attack**.

Preventive measures

- Adopt a diet low in saturated fats and cholesterol
- Not smoking
 - **Carbon monoxide** in cigarette smoke damages the inner layer of **blood vessels**, hence increasing the rate **fatty deposits** accumulate.
 - **Nicotine** stimulates **adrenaline** release, increasing **blood pressure**, which also increases the rate **fatty deposits** accumulate
- Stress management
- Regular exercise

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6. Transport in Humans CAQs

Important Definitions

Q: Define the term atherosclerosis.

• The disease where fatty deposits accumulate on the inner walls of arteries, narrowing the lumen.

Tissue Fluid

Q: The diagram shows a capillary and some tissue cells.



Which statement about the movement of substances is correct?

- A) Diffusion of substances occurs at W and Y.
- B) Diffusion of substances occurs at Y only.
- C) Fluid only passes out of the capillary at X.
- D) Tissue fluid passes into the capillary at Z.

(A)

• A: **Diffusion occurs at W, X, Y, Z.** This includes both W and Y, although it is incomplete, it is technically correct.

- B: Wrong, see above point.
- C: Wrong, fluid can exit along any part of the capillary (W, X, Z).
- D: Looking at **direction of bloodflow**, fluid will **exit the capillary at Z** to provide nutrients to cells, and then **re-enter at X**, removing waste products from cells.
- Related Questions:
 - Q: What is present in the tissue fluid formed from the plasma? (Using the same diagram as above)
 - This is testing on which substances can pass through the capillary walls.
 - Can pass through (all the small molecules): Glucose, amino acids, water, mineral salts, urea, O2, CO2
 - Cannot pass through (**large** substances): Blood cells, platelets, proteins (e.g. haemoglobin, fibrin, ADH, insulin)

Circulatory System Diagram

Q: The diagrams represent the circulatory system. Which diagram is correct for an adult human?



(D)

- Diagrams are usually mirror imaged, heart is flipped (left part in this diagram is the right side of the heart in real life, vice versa).
- Blood is pumped from **RV to lungs**, so **B is out** as it shows LV to lungs.
- Blood then goes from lungs to LA, so C is out.
- Between A and D, A is inaccurate as it shows a **vein connecting intestines back to the heart (this does not exist!)**. Hence D is the answer.

Substance Concentrations Along Circulatory System

Q: The diagram represents part of the human circulatory system.



Number	Lower CO2 concentration	Higher CO2 concentration
1	W	X
2	Υ	Х
3	Х	Z
4	V	Z

Which comparisons of carbon dioxide concentration are correct?

- A) 1, 2, 3 and 4
- B) 1, 3 and 4 only
- C) 1 and 4 only
- D) 2 and 3 only

(B)

- The further blood moves from the heart/more tissues it passes through, the lower the O2 and higher the CO2. So lowest to highest CO2 concentration:
 V, W, X, Y, Z.
- 1 correct, since W < X.
- 2 likely wrong, since Y has blood that passed through **intestines + liver**, probably has more CO2 than X which has only passed through kidneys.
- 3 correct since X < Z, since Z is blood just before entering lungs, has highest CO2.
- 4 correct since V < Z.
- Related Questions:
 - Which comparisons of urea concentration are correct? (Using the same diagram as above)
 - Urea will be highest in Y, as urea is produced via deamination in the **liver**.
 - Urea will be lowest in X, as urea is filtered out of the blood by the kidneys.

Cardiac Cycle Valves

Q: The graph shows pressure changes in the left atrium, the left ventricle and the aorta during one complete cardiac cycle.



At which points does the valve between the left atrium and left ventricle close and open?

	Close	Open
А	1	4
В	2	3
С	3	4
D	4	1

(A)

- At 1, pressure in LV jumps, it is contracting → bicuspid valve needs to close to prevent backflow of blood from LV to LA
- At 4, pressure in LV drops below pressure of LA → blood moves from LA to LV → opens bicuspid valve in the process.

Blood Movement (blood pressure explanation)

*Q: Describe **and** explain how blood is pumped from the left atrium to the aorta. [4]

- During **atrial systole**, the left atrium **contracts**, **blood pressure** rises above that of the left ventricle.
- Blood moves past the **bicuspid valve**, entering the left ventricle.
- During **ventricular systole**, the left ventricle **contracts**, **blood pressure** rises above that of the aorta.
- Blood pushes past the aortic **semi-lunar valve** and **opens** it, entering the aorta.

- *Pro Tip: When question asks "describe **and explain**", must explain how blood moves using blood pressure differences.
- Related Questions:
 - Q: Describe **and** explain how blood entering the heart from the body organs reaches the lungs. [4]

Route Taken By Blood

*Q: Describe the route taken by the blood from the intestine to the kidney. List the major blood vessels and organs involved. [4]

- Blood travels from the intestine to the **liver** via the **hepatic portal vein**, then exits the liver via the **hepatic vein**.
- It returns to the **right atrium** of the heart via the **vena cava**, and is pumped by the **right ventricle** to the **lungs** via the **pulmonary artery**.
- It returns to the left atrium via the pulmonary vein, and is pumped by the left ventricle, out the aorta to the kidneys.
- Finally, it enters the kidney via the **renal artery.**
- Related Questions:
 - Q: Explain how a drug injected into rats was transported to the heart muscle. [4]
 - Q: Describe how blood from the lungs is forced through the heart into the aorta. [4]

Blood Vessel Structures

*Q: Explain the differences in the structures of arteries and veins, with reference to their functions. [6]

• Arteries have ____(A)____, while veins have ____(B)____.

[Choose 3 comparisons below]

A	В
Thick elastic and muscular walls , to withstand high blood pressure within them	Thin elastic and muscular walls, as blood pressure is lower within them
Thick elastic and muscular walls, to stretch and recoil in order to push blood forward in spurts .	Thin elastic and muscular walls , as it does not need to stretch and recoil to push blood forward.
Smaller lumen, to maintain high blood pressure	Larger lumen, to reduce resistance as blood pressure is low
No semi-lunar valves , as high blood pressure ensures blood flows in the right direction	Have semi-lunar valves , to prevent backflow of blood, which is likely due to the low blood pressure

Capillary Adaptations

Q: Explain how capillaries are adapted for their function. [4]

- Capillaries are made of a one-cell-thick layer of endothelial cells, minimising the diffusion distance, increasing the rate substances diffuse in and out of capillaries.
- They branch repeatedly, increasing their surface area to volume ratio, increasing the diffusion rate of substances.
- The capillary wall is partially permeable, allowing small substances such as glucose and CO2 to diffuse in and out, while ensuring big ones such as blood proteins stay within.
- They have very large total cross-sectional surface area, lowering blood pressure and slowing blood down, for substances to have more time to diffuse in and out.

From Capillaries To Cells

Q: Describe how substances move between capillaries and cells. [3]

- Capillaries bring nutrients and oxygen, which diffuse from the blood plasma to the tissue fluid.
- These then diffuse from tissue fluid into cells.
- Conversely, **waste products** and **carbon dioxide diffuse** out of the cells into the **tissue fluid**, then into the **blood plasma** of capillaries.

Blood Flow in Veins

Q: Blood has near zero pressure when it reaches veins. Explain how blood returns to the heart from the veins. [2]

- Contraction of skeletal muscles exerts pressure on veins, forcing blood to move along.
- Semi-lunar valves in veins prevent backflow of blood, ensuring blood moves to heart in the right direction.

Red Blood Cells

Q: Explain how red blood cells are adapted to their function. [3]

- They have a **biconcave** shape, increasing their **surface area to volume ratio** for faster **diffusion** of oxygen in and out of them.
- They lack a **nucleus**, for more space to pack in more **haemoglobin**, increasing their capacity for oxygen transport.
- They are flexible, allowing them to squeeze through tiny capillaries, in which they may become bell-shaped, further increasing their surface area to volume ratio.

White Blood Cells

Q: Describe the role of white blood cells in protecting the body from disease. [3]

- **Phagocytes** engulf **foreign particles** which can cause disease and destroy them.
- Lymphocytes produce antibodies that cause foreign particles to agglutinate, promoting phagocytosis.
- Antibodies also bind to and neutralise any harmful toxins produced by pathogens.

Blood Clotting (Coagulation)

*Q: Explain how a blood clot is formed. [2]

- When blood vessels are damaged, **platelets** are activated, which trigger the conversion of **soluble fibrinogen** into **insoluble fibrin**,
- Forming long insoluble Fibrin threads which trap red blood cells, forming a clot at the site of injury.

Blood Type Incompatibility

Q: What will happen if a patient with blood group O is given a transfusion of blood type AB? [3]

- The red blood cells transfused have **A and B antigens** on their **plasma membranes**.
- However, the blood group O patient has **anti-A** and **anti-B antibodies** in their **blood plasma**,
- Which bind to the transfused red blood cells, causing them to clump together and **agglutinate**.
- (This is dangerous as it could lead to the blockage of arteries.)
- Related Questions:
 - Q: Explain what causes the incompatibility of blood between certain donors and recipients.

• Q: Describe and explain the undesirable consequence to the recipient when the blood type is not compatible.

Valve Opening/Closing

Q: Explain how the (bicuspid) valve opens. [2]

- During ventricular diastole, the blood pressure of the left ventricle falls below that of the left atrium,
- resulting in blood flowing from the atrium to ventricle, forcing open the bicuspid valve.
- *Pro Tip: For questions on explaining how valves open/close, explain in terms of pressure difference
- Related Questions:
 - Q: State what happens when the pressure in the atrium in higher than the pressure in the ventricle. [1]
 - Q: Describe how blood from the lungs is forced through the heart into the aorta. [3]

Fluctuation of Blood Pressure

Q: Explain why blood pressure fluctuates in arteries. [3]

- In arteries and arterioles, blood pressure fluctuates as arteries have thick elastic and muscular walls that stretch and recoil,
- and are directly connected to the **aorta**, which is connected to the **left** ventricle.
- Hence, blood pressure increases during ventricular systole as left ventricle contracts, and decreases during ventricular diastole as left ventricle relaxes.

Coronary Artery Disease/Heart Attack

*Q: Explain how a heart attack usually occurs. [3]

- Fatty deposits accumulate on the inner wall of a coronary artery, narrowing the lumen, atherosclerosis has occurred.
- If the fatty deposit **ruptures**, a **blood clot** could form, blocking the artery.
- Blood with oxygen and nutrients cannot reach the heart muscles for them to release energy via aerobic respiration, hence they die, resulting in a heart attack.
- Related Questions:
 - Q: Sometimes blood clots can form inside a blood vessel and can be carried in the blood to the brain. The arteries in the brain may become blocked by the clot. Suggest how this blockage may affect the brain. [2]
 - $\circ~$ *Pro Tip: In the above case, would lead to the death of brain cells $\rightarrow~$ stroke

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7. Respiration

Learning Outcomes:

- 1. Parts of the respiratory system and their roles in breathing
- 2. Adaptations of alveoli
- 3. Bonus: Inspired vs Expired air
- 4. Harmful effects of tobacco smoke
- 5. Aerobic and anaerobic respiration

Keywords:

- Alveolar air space, one-cell-thick, film of moisture, dissolve
- Inspiration/inhalation, expiration/exhalation, thoracic volume, air pressure
- Foreign particles, pathogens, ciliated, hair-like structures
- Nicotine, addictive, social responsibilities
- Carbon monoxide, irreversibly
- Tar, carcinogen, chronic bronchitis, partition walls, emphysema, cancer
- Aerobic, oxidise, cellular respiration, release energy, cellular activities
- Anaerobic, lactic acid, additional energy, oxygen debt

If you're our student: <u>Respiration Crash Course Clips</u>

1. Parts of the respiratory system and their roles in breathing





Breathing process

Event	Inspiration (Breathing in)	Expiration (Breathing out)
<u>D</u> iaphragm	Contracts and flattens downwards	Relaxes upwards
Intercostal muscles Internal*	Relax	Contract
External*	Contract	Relax
R ibcage	Moves up and out	Moves down and in

Thoracic <u>V</u> olume	Increases	Decreases
<u>A</u> ir pressure in lungs	Lower than surrounding air, causing air to rush in	Higher than surrounding air, causing air to rush out

*Pro Tip: These muscles are antagonistic

[Memory Shortcut]

- Inspiration/expiration process [DIRVA]
 - **D:** <u>D</u>iaphragm
 - I: Intercostal muscles (internal + external)
 - R: Ribcage
 - V: thoracic Volume
 - A: <u>A</u>ir pressure in lungs

2. Adaptations of alveoli



Feature	Function
---------	----------

One-cell-thick	Minimises distance O2 and CO2 have to travel, increasing diffusion rate
Small and numerous	Increases their SA:V, increasing diffusion rate
Surrounded by network of capillaries	Provides continuous blood supply, oxygenated blood is quickly carried away to maintain the concentration gradients * for O2 to diffuse from alveolar air space into blood and CO2 to diffuse out
Thin film of moisture lining alveolar air space	Gases dissolve in it before diffusing across

*Pro Tip: Concentration gradients are also maintained by fresh air being breathed in and old air breathed out

3. Bonus: Inspired vs expired air

Component of air	Inspired air	Expired air
Oxygen	21%	16%
Carbon Dioxide	0.03%	4%
Nitrogen	78%	78%
Water Vapour	Varies	Saturated
Dust Particles	Present	Almost none
Temperature	Varies	~37°C

4. Harmful effects of tobacco smoke

Chemical in Tobacco smoke	Negative Effects
Nicotine	 Addictive, resulting in social problems Increases

	 blood pressure* and heart rate Increases ease of blood clotting, increasing the risk of heart
	attacks
	*Pro Tip: This increases 'wear and tear' of arteries, hence increasing the rate that fatty deposits accumulate.
Carbon Monoxide	 Binds irreversibly with haemoglobin such that it cannot transport O2 anymore, reducing the ability of blood to transport O2 Damages the innermost layer of blood vessels, increasing the rate that fatty deposits accumulate in arteries, increasing the risk of heart attacks
Tar	 Paralyses cilia, dust particles and pathogens cannot be expelled, which can result in: Chronic bronchitis (where the epithelium lining the airways are inflamed + persistent coughing) Persistent and violent coughing can lead to Emphysema (when partition walls between alveoli break down, making it hard to breathe. The alveoli have lost elasticity, resulting in the lungs being inflated with air.) Tar is a carcinogen*, increasing chances of lung cancer *Pro Tip: Carcinogen = something that causes cancer

5. Aerobic and anaerobic respiration

- Living things need **cellular respiration** to **release energy** for **cellular activities**, such as:
 - Muscular contractions, cell division, active transport, etc.
- Aerobic respiration: The process where food substances are broken down into carbon dioxide and water, in the presence of oxygen, releasing a large amount of energy.
 - Glucose + oxygen \rightarrow carbon dioxide + water + large amount of energy
 - C6H12O6 + $6O2 \rightarrow 6CO2 + 6H2O + large amount of energy$
- Anaerobic respiration (yeasts): The process where food substances are broken down into carbon dioxide and ethanol, in the absence of oxygen, releasing a small amount of energy.
 - \circ Glucose \rightarrow carbon dioxide + ethanol + small amount of energy
 - This process is also called alcoholic fermentation
- Anaerobic respiration (mammals): The process where food substances are broken down into lactic acid, in the absence of oxygen, releasing a small amount of energy.
 - Glucose \rightarrow Lactic acid + small amount of energy
- **Oxygen debt:** The amount of oxygen needed to remove lactic acid from the body.
 - During **vigorous** exercise, muscles demand more **energy** than can be generated by **aerobic respiration**.
 - Additional energy is generated by anaerobic respiration, resulting in lactic acid produced.
 - An oxygen debt is incurred.
 - Lactic acid is transported to the liver, where it is removed, which requires oxygen (this amount of oxygen = oxygen debt)

- Immediately after exercise, the person needs to consume more oxygen compared to at rest, to repay the **oxygen debt**, by:
 - Fast heart rate: Carries oxygen around the body quickly
 - Deeper and faster breathing: Intake large amounts of oxygen quickly

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8. Excretion

Learning Outcomes:

- 1. Importance of excretion
- 2. Structure of kidneys and nephrons
- 3. Dialysis

Keywords:

- Afferent/efferent arteriole, ultrafiltration, high blood pressure
- Selective reabsorption, filtrate
- Kidney failure, partially permeable, long narrow and coiled, opposite direction

If you're our student: Excretion in Humans Crash Course Clips

1. Importance of excretion

Excretion: The process whereby metabolic waste products and toxic substances are removed from the body

- Our metabolism (chemical activities within cells) results in metabolic waste products.
- **Importance:** They must be excreted as they can harm the body if they accumulate to high concentrations.

Examples of excretion in humans

• Unicellular organisms use **diffusion** for excretion, multicellular organisms need organs

- Lungs excrete CO2 during expiration
- Urea (product of deamination) is filtered out by kidneys and excreted in urine
- Excess water excreted by sweating, expiration and in urine
- Bile pigment excreted through faeces

2. Structure of kidneys and nephrons

Urinary system



- Renal artery brings blood to kidney, renal vein carries blood away
- Kidneys act as filters, removing unwanted substances
- Ureter carries urine to bladder where it is temporarily stored
- Urethra carries urine outside of body

[Memory hack]

• How not to mix up ureter and urethra
- When you've been holding your pee in for very long and finally go toilet, you say "aaaaaaa"
- Urethraaaa is the one through which urine leaves your body



Parts of a nephron

Formation of urine

- A **nephron** is the **basic functional unit** of the kidney that filters and removes waste substances from the blood to form urine.
- The processes involved that make this possible are **ultrafiltration** and **selective reabsorption**.

Ultrafiltration: The process where most of the blood plasma and dissolved substances are forced out of the glomerulus into the bowman's capsule by high

blood pressure.

- Blood enters the **glomerulus** through the **afferent arteriole** and leaves through the **efferent arteriole**
- Lumen of efferent arteriole is smaller, generates high blood pressure which forces out most of the blood plasma and its dissolved substances (glucose, amino acids, mineral salts, urea, toxins, medicine, etc.)
- These substances enter the **Bowman's capsule**
- Large molecules such as **blood cells**, **platelets** and **proteins** cannot pass through the **basement membrane** that lines the glomerular capillaries

Selective reabsorption: The process where certain substances are reabsorbed from the filtrate back into the blood as they pass through nephrons.

- Useful substances are **selectively reabsorbed** while unwanted substances (or substances in excess) stay in the **filtrate** and become urine
- Water is reabsorbed* via osmosis
 - *Pro Tip: Since water is not reabsorbed using energy, do not say it is "selectively reabsorbed", only "reabsorbed".
- Glucose, amino acids, and some mineral salts are reabsorbed via diffusion and active transport

Part of nephron	Reabsorption of substances
Proximal Convoluted Tubule	Some water, some mineral salts, all glucose and all amino acids reabsorbed
Loop of Henle	Some water and some mineral salts reabsorbed
Distal Convoluted Tubule	Some water and some mineral salts reabsorbed
Collecting Duct	Some water reabsorbed

[Memory hack]

- Substances reabsorbed along nephron
 - **P**roductive **P**roximal: Reabsorbs a lot of things some water, some mineral salts, all glucose and all amino acids.

- Hesitant Henle: Loop of Henle reabsorbs some things some water, some mineral salts
- Discerning Distal: DCT reabsorbs some things some water, some mineral salts
- Conservative Collecting duct: Collecting duct reabsorbs the least types of substances - only water

3. Dialysis

• Patients with **kidney failure** need to use a **dialysis machine** to filter waste products out of their blood



Procedure

- Blood is drawn from the vein in patient's arm into a partially permeable tube
 - *Pro Tip: Veins are safer as they are closer to the surface unlike arteries which are deeper in the arm. Veins also have low pressure

making it easier to stop the bleeding after dialysis.

- Tube does not allow large substances such as blood cells and platelets to pass through, but allows small substances such as waste products to diffuse out.
- Tube enters machine where it is bathed in **dialysis fluid/dialysate**.
- Features of machine that increase efficiency:
 - Dialysate contains zero waste products, hence waste products from blood diffuse out down their concentration gradients.
 - Dialysate has an equal concentration of useful substances (glucose, amino acids, mineral salts) as healthy blood, so there is no **diffusion**.
 - Tubing is **long**, **narrow** and **coiled**, increases **SA:V**, increasing **diffusion** rate.
 - Dialysate flows opposite direction to blood, maintaining a concentration gradient along the entire length of the tubing for more waste products to diffuse out.
- Cleaned blood is returned via the **vein** in patient's forearm.

[Memory shortcut]

- Dialysis machine features [ZERO]
 - Z: Zero waste products in fluid
 - E: Equal concentration of useful substances in fluid
 - **R:** Tubing has high surface area to volume **R**atio
 - **O:** blood and dialysate flow in **O**pposite directions

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9. Homeostasis

Learning Outcomes:

- 1. Homeostasis, Negative Feedback and Hormones
- 2. Glucose Regulation and Diabetes
- 3. Osmoregulation and ADH
- 4. Parts of skin
- 5. Temperature regulation

Keywords:

- Internal environment, internal temperature, negative feedback
- Stimulus, receptor, control centre, set-point/normal condition, corrective mechanism
- Endocrine, target organs, blood glucose concentration, permeability to glucose
- Persistent high blood glucose, unexpected weight loss, calories
- Osmoregulation, osmoreceptors, permeable to water
- Thermoreceptors, dilate, constrict, arterioles
- Latent heat, metabolic rate, thermoreceptors, rapid contraction

If you're our student: Homeostasis Crash Course Clips

1. Homeostasis, negative feedback and hormones

Homeostasis: The maintenance of a constant internal environment via negative feedback.

Negative feedback: A sequence of events triggered by a disturbance in the system, which counteracts the change, restoring the system to its set-point.

- There is a change in internal environment (this is the **Stimulus**)
- A Receptor/sensor detects the change in internal environment
- The **Control centre** receives the information and triggers corrective mechanisms
- Response is a **Corrective mechanism** that removes the stimulus
- Internal environment returns to its Normal condition/set-point
- Receptor detects that set-point is reached and **Stops** corrective mechanism

[Memory Shortcut]

- Negative feedback process [Sneaky Rabbit Chews Carrot Non Stop]
 - S: Stimulus
 - R: <u>R</u>eceptor
 - C: Control centre
 - **C: C**orrective mechanism
 - N: Normal condition/set-point restored
 - S: Stop corrective mechanism once receptor detects set-point restored

Some factors controlled by homeostasis

- Temperature
- Blood water potential
- Blood pressure
- Blood pH, blood CO2 concentration
- Blood glucose concentration
- Water content in urine

Hormone: A chemical substance produced by an endocrine gland, and is carried in the bloodstream. It alters the activity of one or more specific target organs, and is destroyed by the liver.

• **Endocrine gland:** A ductless gland that secretes its products, hormones, directly into bloodstream.

2. Glucose Regulation and Diabetes

Blood glucose regulation

Hormone	Insulin	Glucagon
Stimulus	High blood glucose level	Low blood glucose level
Detected by	Cells* in islets of Langerhans	Cells* in islets of Langerhans
Secreted by	Cells* in islets of Langerhans	Cells* in islets of Langerhans
Target organs	Liver and muscles	Liver only
Responses to insulin	 Increases permeability of liver and muscle cells to glucose, glucose diffuses in, decreasing blood glucose levels Glucose is converted into glycogen in liver and muscles 	 Glycogen is converted to glucose in liver (but not in muscles), and glucose is released into the bloodstream [Memory hack] How to remember that glucagon does not target muscle cells: Muscles are "selfish", they only take in glucose but don't want to release glucose to the bloodstream
Overall effect	Decreases blood glucose level until set-point	Increases blood glucose level until set-point

*FYI: There are actually 2 different types of cells of the islets of Langerhans that secrete insulin and glucagon respectively.

[Memory hack]

- How to remember what insulin and glucagon do:
 - **IN**sulin is released to make glucose go **IN**to the target cells when blood glucose is too high (hence reducing blood glucose)
 - Glucagon is the opposite makes glucose come out of liver cells

[Memory hack]

- How to not mix up Glycogen and Glucagon
 - GlycoGEN is a very GENerous storage of glucose, when the body needs glucose it "donates" it by being broken down to release glucose into the bloodstream

Diabetes mellitus: The condition where the body is unable to maintain blood glucose level within normal range.

Type I

- Pancreas cannot produce insulin/enough insulin
- Develops at a young age

Type II

- Target organs (liver and muscles) lose sensitivity to insulin
- Develops at an older age, linked to unhealthy lifestyle

[Memory hack]

- How to differentiate Type I and Type II diabetes:
 - I comes before II

- Type I comes earlier in life, as it is genetic hence the person has issues producing insulin since young
- Type II comes later in life, due to unhealthy lifestyle

Symptoms

- Persistent high blood glucose
- Glucose found in urine
- Frequent urination
- Frequently feeling dizzy, fatigue
- Unexpected weight loss
- Wounds take longer to heal

Risk factors

- Obesity/overweight
- Age
- Family history (diabetes can be inherited)
- Unhealthy blood lipid levels
- Sedentary lifestyle

Prevention

- Exercise regularly, maintain healthy bodyweight
- Eat a balanced, healthy diet, low in calories, high in fibre
 - Doing the above improves blood lipid levels.

Treatment

- There is currently no cure for diabetes
- Type 1: Insulin injections

- Type 2: Control blood glucose level
 - Diet lower in carbohydrates
 - Exercise regularly
 - If condition worsens, have to inject insulin/take medication to improve body's sensitivity to insulin

3. Osmoregulation and ADH

Osmoregulation: The process where the amount of water and concentrations of solutes in blood are controlled to maintain constant water potential in the body.

- Osmoregulation works by negative feedback, and attempts to restore the set-point of blood water potential
- Osmoreceptors are cells in the hypothalamus that detect changes in blood water potential
- More/less Antidiuretic Hormone (ADH)* is secreted by the pituitary gland in response to a change detected
 - *Pro Tip: A diuretic is something that makes you pee more. Therefore Anti-diuretic means anti-pee, so you pee less and urine becomes more concentrated.

[Memory Hack]

- Think of ADH as the "water conservation hormone" (I like to visualise ADH as the water wally mascot)
- When you don't have enough water, more of it is secreted to conserve water in your body

<u>W</u> ater potential	Water potential decreases	Water potential increases
<u>O</u> smoreceptors	in the hypothalamus detect this	in the hypothalamus detect this

<u>A</u> DH secretion	Pituitary gland secretes more ADH	Pituitary gland secretes less ADH
<u>C</u> ollecting ducts	Cells in the walls of collecting ducts become	Cells in the walls of collecting ducts become
<u>P</u> ermeable	More permeable to water hence reabsorb more water from filtrate back into blood	Less permeable to water, hence reabsorb less water from filtrate back into blood
<u>D</u> ilute	Becomes less dilute /more concentrated	Becomes more dilute /less concentrated

[Memory shortcut]

- ADH explanation [Wealthy Otters Ate Custard Pudding Dessert]
 - W: Water potential
 - **O:** <u>O</u>smoreceptors
 - A: ADH secretion
 - C: Collecting ducts
 - P: Permeable
 - **D:** urine becomes more/less **D**ilute

4. Parts of skin



Sweat

- Contains water, salts (mainly sodium chloride) and small amounts of urea
- Hence sweating is a means of **excretion**

Adipose (fat) tissues

- Adipose cells = Fat cells
- Fat is a **poor conductor** of heat, reducing heat loss through the skin

5. Temperature regulation

Negative feedback is involved

• Changes in internal temperature are the stimulus

- Detected by thermoreceptors in hypothalamus, hypothalamus sends nerve impulses to effectors that carry out corrective mechanisms to counteract the change in internal temperature
- Once **set-point** is restored, thermoreceptors detect this and send nerve impulses to hypothalamus to **stop** the **corrective mechanisms**

Response	Too cold	Too hot	Explanation
<u>M</u> etabolic Rate	Increases	Decreases	Metabolic rate increases by increasing rate of aerobic respiration by mitochondria, releasing more heat energy.
<u>A</u> rterioles in the skin	Constrict	Dilate	Constriction of arterioles in the skin reduces blood flow to capillaries at the skin surface, decreasing heat loss.
<u>S</u> weat Glands	Secrete less sweat	Secrete more sweat	When sweat glands secrete more sweat, more water in sweat evaporates , hence more latent heat is lost.
<u>S</u> hivering	Begins	Does not occur (No need to write in answer)	Shivering, the rapid contraction of skeletal muscles, further increases the rate of aerobic respiration, releasing more heat energy.

Responses to changes in internal temperature [MASS]

[Memory Shortcut]

- Responses to changes in temperature [MASS]
 - M: Metabolic rate
 - A: <u>A</u>rterioles
 - S: Sweat glands

• S: Shivering

[Memory Hack]

- How to remember whether arterioles in skin constrict/dilate
 - When it is **co**ld, arterioles in skin **co**nstrict.

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10. Nervous System and The Eye

Learning Outcomes:

- 1. Central and Peripheral nervous system
- 2. Neurones
- 3. Reflex actions
- 4. The human eye
- 5. Bonus: Nervous system vs Endocrine system

Keywords:

- Central/peripheral nervous system, cranial/spinal nerves, sense organs
- Nerve impulses, stimulus, receptor, effector, gland, transmitted, junction
- Sensory, relay, motor neurone
- Reflex arc, involuntary, conscious control, reflex centre,
- Internal reflection of light, refract
- Taut, slacken, convex, focal length, sharply focussed
- Dim, dilate, constrict

If you're our student: Nervous System and The Eye Crash Course Clips

1. Central and Peripheral nervous system

- Central Nervous System (CNS) consists of Brain and Spinal cord
- Peripheral Nervous System (PNS) consists of:
 - Cranial nerves (from the brain)
 - Spinal nerves (from spinal cord)

• Sense organs (eyes, nose, tongue, ears, skin)



2. Neurones



ne and
e cell
,

Sensory, relay and motor neurones



*Pro Tip: Sensory neurones are distinct because of the position of their cell body being along the length instead of near the start.

Neurone Type	Transmits nerve impulses from	Transmits to
--------------	-------------------------------	--------------

Sensory (Centre)	Receptor	Relay neurone
Relay (Left)	Sensory neurone	Motor neurone
Motor (Right)	Relay neurone	Effector



*Pro Tip: Tell apart which neurone is which by their position in the reflex arc.

3. Reflex actions

Reflex action: An immediate response to a specific stimulus without conscious control.

- Involves a **reflex centre** (either brain or spinal cord).
 - **Spinal reflexes** use spinal cord as reflex centre, e.g. knee jerk reflex, withdrawal reflex when touching a hot object
 - **Cranial reflexes** use the brain as reflex centre, e.g. blink reflex, accommodation reflex, pupil reflex, sneezing, coughing
- **Reflex arc:** The shortest pathway for nerve impulses to travel from receptor to effector during a reflex action.

- **Examples** of reflex actions: Knee jerk reflex*, pupil reflex, touching hot/sharp object, blink reflex, grasp reflex, cough reflex, sneeze reflex, production of gastric juice, production of saliva, secretion of adrenaline
 - *Pro Tip: For the knee jerk reflex, this is a stretch reflex. When there is a tap on the tendon below the knee, stretch receptors detect this and result in the contraction of the quadriceps muscle (to prevent the muscle from overstretching and being injured)
- **Receptors** you should be familiar with in syllabus:
 - Pain receptors
 - Thermoreceptors
 - Stretch receptors
 - Photoreceptors
 - Osmoreceptors

Pathway of nerve impulses questions:

- When ______ (incident), ______ (receptors) detect this, nerve impulses are generated and travel along a sensory neurone.
- They are **transmitted** to a **relay neurone**, in the _____ (either brain/spinal cord), which is the **reflex centre**.
- Nerve impulses are then transmitted to a motor neurone, then to the ______ (thing that does the action), which is the effector,
- Triggering it to ______ (response triggered), so that ______ (where possible, the purpose for the reflex action).

[Memory shortcut]

- Pathway of nerve impulses during reflex action [I Raced Several Racing Cars, Making Every Race Perfect]
 - I: Incident

- R: Receptor
- S: Sensory neurone
- R: Relay neurone
- C: reflex Centre
- M: Motor neurone
- E: Effector
- R: Response
- P: Purpose

Voluntary action: A deliberate action done under conscious control.

E.g. when you want to raise your hand: Brain → Relay neurone in spinal cord → Motor neurone → Hand muscles

4. The human eye



Part of eye	Function
Sclera	Protects eyeball from mechanical damage
Choroid	 Rich in blood vessels, bringing O2 and nutrients to eyeball Pigmented black to prevent internal reflection of light
Retina	Contains photoreceptors that detect light and generates nerve impulses , which are sent to the brain via the optic nerve .
Yellow spot/Fovea	Light is mainly focussed here as the image that is produced here is the sharpest.
Blind spot	An area of the retina right above the optic nerve , where there are no photoreceptors
Cornea	Refracts light into the eye

Conjunctiva	 Moistens eye by secreting mucous 	
Eyelashes	Shield the eye from dust particles/irritants	
Aqueous humour	 A watery substance found in the aqueous chamber, gives the eyeball its shape Refracts light into pupil Nourishes cornea 	
Lens	 Focusses light onto the retina Is flexible to focus on objects at varying distances 	
Vitreous humour	 A jelly-like substance found in the vitreous chamber, gives the eyeball its shape Refracts light onto retina 	
Rectus muscles	Controls eye movement	

How light enters the eye

- Light is refracted by the **cornea** into the eye
- The aqueous humour refracts light into the pupil (a hole)
- The lens refracts light towards the retina
- The vitreous humour refracts light onto the retina

Focusing/Accommodation reflex



Object	Near	Far
<u>C</u> iliary muscles	Contract*	Relax
<u>S</u> uspensory ligaments	Slacken	Taut
Lens shape	Thicker and more convex	Thinner and less convex
<u>F</u> ocussed sharply on retina	Clear image seen	Clear image seen

*Pro Tip: Think of ciliary muscles contracting towards lens, hence suspensory ligaments slacken

*Pro Tip: Do not say lens becomes more concave, you must say less convex.

[Memory Shortcut]

- Accommodation reflex [Cats Scratch Leather Furniture]
 - C: Ciliary muscles
 - S: Suspensory ligaments
 - L: Lens shape
 - F: Focussed sharply on retina

[Memory hack]

How to remember whether ciliary muscles contract or relax

- When you focus on a near object, you are 'straining' your eyes, so ciliary muscles contract to focus on near objects.
- When you focus on a far object, you are 'relaxing' your eyes, so ciliary muscles relax to focus on far objects.



Pupil reflex

Light conditions	Bright	Dim
<u>R</u> adial muscles	Relax	Contract
<u>C</u> ircular muscles	Contract	Relax
<u>P</u> upil	Constricts	Dilates
Effect on eye	Allows less light in, prevents damage to retina	Allows more light in to see better

*Pro Tip: Iris contains circular and radial muscles (antagonistic), which control size of the pupil

[Memory Shortcut]

- Pupil reflex [Really Cool Pupil Effect]
 - R: Radial muscles
 - C: Circular muscles
 - P: Pupil
 - E: Effect on eye

[Memory hack]

How to remember what radial muscles are doing:

- Radial muscles are "afraid of the dark", so when it's dark they tense up in fear, hence they contract.
- When you're in a bright place, they relax

5. Bonus: Nervous system vs Endocrine system

System	Endocrine	Nervous
Signal	Hormones	Nerve impulses
Mode of transmission	Bloodstream	Neurones
Speed	Relatively slower	Relatively faster
Duration of responses	Longer-lasting	Short-lived
Can be activated by conscious control?	No	Either
Affected areas	Usually more than one target organ	Usually localised

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11. Infectious Diseases

Learning Outcomes:

- 1. Infectious diseases and how they spread
- 2. Bacteria vs viruses
- 3. Treatment and prevention

Keywords:

- Pathogen, symptoms, droplets, respiratory tract, direct contact, sexually transmitted, contaminated surface, breastfeeding
- Cholera, water-borne
- Single-celled, cell membrane, membrane-bound, DNA
- DNA, RNA, protein coat, spike proteins, host
- Influenza, flu, pneumococcus, pneumococcal disease, pneumonia, close contact, antiviral drugs
- Fever, headache, vomiting, photophobia, runny nose, coughing, sore throat, muscle aches,
- Vaccine, agent, antigen, quickly produce antibodies
- Inhibit synthesis, growth
- Course of antibiotics, strain, less/more sensitive, antibiotic resistance, survive and reproduce

If you're our student: Infectious Diseases Crash Course Clips

1. Infectious diseases and how they spread

Disease: A condition that causes the body to function less effectively, and produces specific symptoms.

Infectious diseases

- Caused by pathogens (disease-causing organisms)
- Can spread from one person to another
- Non-infectious diseases:
 - Not caused by **pathogens**, cannot spread from one person to another
 - Eg: Atherosclerosis, coronary artery disease, Liver cirrhosis, diabetes, sickle-cell anaemia

How infectious diseases spread

- When droplets in the air when someone coughs/sneezes which contain the pathogens are breathed into the respiratory tract of an uninfected person
- Direct contact
 - Sexually Transmitted Infections (STIs) through exchange of bodily fluids during sexual intercourse (e.g. HIV)
 - *Pro Tip: See Topic Reproduction in humans for more on HIV
 - Touching contaminated surfaces, then our nose/eyes/mouth
 - Through **breastfeeding** from mother to baby
- Contaminated food and water
 - E.g. **Cholera** is a **water-borne** disease spread by consuming water contaminated with the **bacteria**
 - *Pro Tip: Food poisoning is when we consume food contaminated with the pathogen

2. Bacteria and viruses

Feature

Bacteria

Viruses

Appearance





Outer covering	Cell wall	Protein coat
Genetic material	DNA	DNA/RNA
Plasmids	Yes	No
Cell membrane	Yes	No
Cytoplasm	Yes	No
Ribosomes	Yes	No
Growth	Yes	No
Cellular respiration	Yes	No
Reproduction without host	Yes	No
Killed by antibiotics?	Yes	No

Bacteria

- Single-celled organism
- Has a cell wall and cell membrane
 - *Pro Tip: Since bacteria only have 1 cell membrane in the entire cell, we don't need to call it plasma membrane.
- No membrane-bound nucleus and organelles
- Have ribosomes for protein synthesis
- Circular DNA*

- *Pro Tip: This is unlike the DNA in other organisms such as plants and animals, which is linear
- Has plasmids
 - *Pro Tip: See Topic Molecular genetics for plasmids
- May have **flagella** (to move)

FYI: How bacteria cause disease

- Bacteria try to 'colonise' our insides, some of them produce metabolic waste products which can be toxic to us \rightarrow thus affecting our health
- Not all bacteria cause disease (in fact, many are beneficial, like the 'good' bacteria in our large intestine)

Viruses

- Has a protein coat (instead of cell membrane), which can have spike proteins on the surface
- Contains genetic material inside, which can be DNA or RNA
- No cellular structures like cell membrane, cytoplasm, organelles
- Does not grow, nor undergoes cellular respiration
- Infects host cells and uses the cells' enzymes, and organelles such as ribosomes to make more copies of itself (reproduces)

3. Treatment and prevention

Pathogen

Pneumococcus bacteria

Influenza virus

Structure

Illness caused





(Refer to bacteria structure earlier)

Pneumococcal disease, which can include:

- Pneumonia (lung infection)
- Middle ear
 infection
- Blood infection
- Inflammation of brain and spinal cord membranes (meningitis)
- Fever, headache, vomiting
- Coughing, chest pain, rapid breathing (if infects lungs)
- Sensitivity to bright light/photophobia (if brain and spinal cord membranes inflamed)

Influenza/Flu (respiratory tract infection)

High fever, headache,

throat, muscle aches

runny nose, cough, sore

Symptoms

Transmission	 Droplets in the air spread and enter an uninfected person's respiratory tract 	Droplets in the air spread and enter an uninfected person's respiratory tract When someone touches a contaminated surface followed by their mouth/nose/eyes	
Reducing transmission	 Avoid close contact with others who are infected/if you are infected 		
	 Social distancing 		
	 *Wash hands with soap and water/hand sanitiser 		
	 *Avoid touching nose, eyes, mouth 		
	 Use a mask (prevents droplets from travelling/other's droplets from reaching you) 		
	 Cover nose and mouth when coughing/sneezing (prevents droplets from travelling) 		
	*Note: Not applicable for pneumococcal disease,		
	since it doesn't spread via contaminated surfaces.		
Treatment	Take antibiotics as	Take antiviral drugs as	
	prescribed by a doctor	prescribed by a doctor	
Prevention	Pneumococcal vaccination	Influenza vaccination	

[Memory Shortcut]

- Ways to reduce influenza transmission [Diagnose Sick, Take M.C.]
 - social **D**istancing/avoid close contact
 - $\circ \ \underline{\textbf{S}} \text{oap and water/hand sanitiser}$

- don't **T**ouch eyes, nose, mouth
- use a **M**ask
- Cover nose and mouth when coughing/sneezing

Vaccine: Contains an agent resembling a pathogen, and prevent infectious diseases by stimulating white blood cells to quickly produce antibodies when the pathogen invades.

- Pathogens have **antigens** (substances that trigger the production of antibodies), such as the **proteins** on the pathogens' surface
- The agent in the **vaccine** have an **antigen** that the real **pathogen** has, thus resembling the pathogen
- After vaccination, white blood cells recognise the specific antigen and produce antibodies against it
- How vaccines protect you from the real pathogen:
 - Some of these **white blood cells** remain in the body for a long time
 - When the real pathogen enters the person, these white blood cells recognise it and quickly produce large amounts of antibodies to destroy the pathogen.

How antibodies help kill pathogens:

- Cause pathogens to clump together (agglutination), promoting phagocytosis
- Bind to and neutralises harmful toxins that pathogens produce

Why there might still be cases of an infection even after a vaccine is introduced:

- Not everyone may have taken the vaccine, hence were not immune
- The **pathogen mutated**, it is now no longer the same as the **agent** in the vaccine that the body has **immunity** against.

 Vaccine's effects may not last a lifetime, as the white blood cells that were trained to recognise the pathogen died after some time/became too few in number

Antibiotics: Drugs that inhibit the growth of or kill bacteria.

- Examples of how antibiotics could work:
 - Inhibiting synthesis of bacterial cell wall (cell wall weakens, water enters by osmosis, bacteria bursts)
 - Breaking up the bacterial cell membrane
 - Inhibiting enzymes in the cytoplasm which are required for growth
 - Inhibiting protein synthesis at ribosomes
- Antibiotics do not work on viruses, due to the differences between their structures
 - Viruses do not have: cell walls, cell membrane, ribosomes
 - Many antibiotics work by inhibiting the growth of bacteria, but viruses do not grow
 - Viruses cannot be directly killed, instead has to be eradicated by the person's own immune system
- Antibiotic resistance
 - Due to variation, some bacteria in a population are less sensitive to the antibiotic, hence lesser chance of being killed
 - If a **course of antibiotics** is not completed, some of the **less sensitive** bacteria may **survive and reproduce**
 - They multiply, resulting in a **strain** of **antibiotic resistant bacteria**, which are even harder to treat.
 - **Pro Tip: This is an example of natural selection (Topic: Inheritance)*

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12. Nutrition in Plants

Learning Outcomes:

- 1. Leaf structure
- 2. Photosynthesis
- 3. Factors affecting photosynthesis
- 4. Bonus: Procedure for leaf starch test in experiment

Keywords:

- Waxy cuticle, waterproof, intercellular air spaces, thin film of moisture
- Cylindrical, vertically arranged, irregularly shaped,
- Gaseous exchange, turgid
- Light energy, chlorophyll, by-product, manufactured food substances
- Light intensity, limiting factor

If you're our student: Nutrition in Plants Crash Course Clips

1. Leaf structure




Part of leaf	Structure and Function
Waxy Cuticle	• Transparent, allows light to reach mesophyll cells for photosynthesis to occur
	•

	Waterproof, reduces water loss via evaporation from leaf surfaces
Upper Epidermis/Lower Epidermis	 Both layers are made of closely packed epidermal cells and produce the waxy cuticle Upper epidermis does not have any chloroplasts Lower epidermis has chloroplasts only in the guard cells
Stoma (pl. Stomata)	 Tiny openings formed by two guard cells, which allow gaseous exchange to occur Stoma size is controlled by guard cells: In the presence of light, guard cells open stomata. In the dark, guard cells close stomata.
Palisade Mesophyll Layer	 Just under upper epidermis, so they can receive as much sunlight as possible for photosynthesis. Contain many chloroplasts, so more photosynthesis can be carried out per cell Long, cylindrical and vertically arranged, so that many of them can be packed together, increasing the total amount of photosynthesis that is carried out by this layer.
Spongy Mesophyll Layer	 Fewer chloroplasts than palisade mesophyll cells Consists of irregularly shaped cells that have large intercellular air spaces between cells
Intercellular Air spaces	 Mesophyll cells are coated with a thin film of moisture, which allows CO2 to dissolve in it before diffusing into mesophyll cells. Intercellular air spaces have large SA:V, for carbon dioxide and oxygen to quickly diffuse in and out of mesophyll cells

Vascular bundle	Consists of:
	Xylem: Brings water and mineral salts absorbed from the soil from the roots to leaves for photosynthesis •
	Phioem: Carries manufactured food substances made by the leaves to the rest of the plant
Loof chang	 Thin and wide leaf blade increases SA:V of the leaf, maximising light absorbed for photosynthesis. Being thin decreases the diffusion distance for gases to reach all
Lear snape	 mesophyll cells quickly, And allows light to easily penetrate through the leaf to reach all mesophyll cells.

2. Photosynthesis

Photosynthesis: The process whereby carbon dioxide and water are converted into glucose and oxygen, in the presence of light energy and chlorophyll.

- Light energy is absorbed by chlorophyll and used in converting carbon dioxide and water into glucose
- Oxygen gas is produced as a by-product

Word Equation:

Carbon dioxide + Water <u>Light Energy</u> <u>Chlorophyll</u> Glucose + Oxygen

Chemical Equation:

$$6CO_2 + 6H_2O \xrightarrow{\text{Light Energy}} C_6H_{12}O_6 + 6O_2$$

Fate of glucose

- Used in aerobic respiration to release energy
- Excess glucose stored as starch for energy storage
- Used to synthesise cellulose for cell walls
- Converted to sucrose to be transported in the phloem to other parts of the plant
- Converted to amino acids, which are then used to form proteins (to build new cell parts)
- Converted to fats for energy storage or to build new cell parts

3. Factors affecting photosynthesis

Limiting factor: A factor that directly affects the rate of the reaction if its quantity is increased.

Light intensity

- As light intensity increases, more **light energy** is absorbed by **chlorophyll** and converted into **chemical energy**, increasing **photosynthesis** rate.
- At very high light intensity, further increasing it has **no effect** on rate. Light intensity is **no longer a limiting factor** (some other factor is limiting).



CO2 concentration

- As CO2 concentration increases, there is more CO2 available to be converted into **glucose**, increasing **photosynthesis** rate.
- At very high CO2 concentration, increasing it further has no effect on rate.
 CO2 concentration is no longer a limiting factor (some other factor is limiting).

*Pro Tip: Atmospheric concentration is around 0.03%, while the concentration where CO2 no longer becomes limiting is **0.13%** and above.

Temperature

• Since **enzymes** are involved in photosynthesis, the photosynthesistemperature graph looks the **same** as an enzyme-temperature graph.



4. Bonus: Procedure for leaf starch test in experiments (useful for practical)

- Place plant in dark room for 2 days, this **de-starches** the plant
- Carry out the experiment (e.g. whether photosynthesis works if leaf is placed in a sealed bag)
- Place the leaf in **boiling water** for 2min to kill the cells, **stopping further photosynthesis**.
- Place the leaf in a boiling tube with ethanol into boiling water bath, removing chlorophyll so that the green colour of chlorophyll does not affect any colour change later on
- Place leaf into **boiling water** for 1 min to **soften the leaf** (makes leaf more permeable for iodine to enter) and **remove alcohol**
- Add a few drops of **iodine** onto the leaf to **test for starch**

*Pro Tip: Variegated leaves which have a white outer layer will only have starch on the inside when tested.



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13. Transport in Plants

Learning Outcomes:

- 1. How plants absorb water
- 2. Xylem and phloem + their positions throughout a plant
- 3. Transpiration
- 4. Factors affecting transpiration
- 5. Wilting
- 6. Bonus: Adaptations to reduce transpiration rate

Keywords:

- Water potential, mineral salts
- Lignified, pits, collapse, end walls, unobstructed flow
- Translocation, manufactured food substances, sap
- Unidirectional, bidirectional, porous sieve plates
- Transpiration, transpiration pull
- Intercellular air spaces, thin film of moisture, evaporates, water vapour
- Humidity, air movement, wind, more/less steep concentration gradient
- Wilting, turgidity, non-woody stem, total leaf surface area
- Sunken stomata, pits, succulent/fleshy, spines

If you're our student: <u>Transport in Plants Crash Course Clips</u>

1. How plants absorb water



Role of root hair cells

- **Mineral salts** are transported via **active transport** from the surrounding soil into the cell.
- This results in root hair cells having lower **water potential** than the surrounding soil, hence water flows in passively via **osmosis**.

Feature of root hair cells	Function	
Have a long and narrow root hair	Increases SA:V for faster absorption of water and mineral salts	
Contain many mitochondria	More aerobic respiration to meet high energy demand required for active transport of mineral salts	
Cell sap has high concentration of mineral salts	Creates a region of low water potential for water to enter via osmosis	

How water enters at the roots

- Water enters root hair cells via osmosis → root hair cells have higher
 water potential than the inner cells, water moves via osmosis to inner cells
- This process of osmosis repeats until water reaches the xylem vessels

• Inner cells actively transport mineral salts into the xylem at roots, decreasing water potential of xylem so that water enters by osmosis.



2. Xylem and Phloem

Cross-section of stem



*Pro Tip: Cambium differentiates into new phloem and xylem tissues

[Memory Hack]

- How to remember position of xylem and phloem in stem
 - Which is more crucial, food or water? Water. Since xylem carries water, it needs to be more protected, hence it's on the inside.

Root hair Phioem Epidermis

Cross-section of leaf

Cross-section of root



[Memory Hack]

• How to remember position of xylem and phloem in leaf

 Picture the stem's vascular bundle (you know that the xylem is on the inside), curling outwards to form the leaf's vascular bundle. That's why xylem would be on top, and phloem below

Type of vascular tissue	Xylem	Phloem
Structure	*Pro Tip: Pits allow water to flow to adjacent xylem vessels	sieve tube element Sieve plote
Position in stem vascular bundle	Inner	Outer
Position in leaf vascular bundle	Тор	Bottom
Position in root vascular bundle	Inner 'cross'	Outer 'nodules'
Transports	Water and mineral salts from roots to rest of the plant	 Translocation: The transport of manufactured food substances such as sucrose and amino acids from leaves to rest of the plant

Xylem vs phloem - structure and function

 Substance within phloem is called **sap**

Lignified walls?	 Yes, deposited in xylem walls to strengthen it, prevents xylem from collapse. 	No
	 Can be deposited in rings/spiral bands/entire wall except for pits 	
Energy required?	No, substances are transported passively	Yes, active transport involved
Direction of transport	Unidirectional (upwards only)	Bidirectional (both up and down)
Alive?	Dead, and has no cell parts except cell wall	Yes, but sieve tube elements lack nucleus, mitochondria, and many other organelles
Companion cells	-	Have many mitochondria , to provide a lot of energy needed for sieve tube elements to transport manufactured food substances
End walls (a.k.a cross walls)	None, to allow unobstructed flow of water + min. salts	Yes - sieve plates, which are porous

3. Transpiration





Transpiration: The loss of water vapour from the aerial parts of a plant, mainly through the stomata in its leaves.

- In leaves, water moves out the mesophyll cells by osmosis, forming a thin film of moisture (1), which evaporates into water vapour in the intercellular air spaces (2)
- It diffuses out of leaves via stomata, down its concentration gradient. (3)
- Water potential of mesophyll cells has decreased, hence water moves from xylem vessels in leaves to replace water lost in mesophyll cells. (4)
- This causes a **whole column of water** to be pulled up xylem vessels from roots to leaves, by **transpiration pull**
 - **Transpiration pull:** The suction force created due to transpiration that pulls water and mineral salts up the xylem

[Memory shortcut]

- Transpiration process [Fake Vampire Drinks Red Water]
 - F: thin Film of moisture
 - V: water Vapour
 - D: Diffuses out via stomata
 - R: water in xylem Replaces water lost from mesophyll cells
 - W: causes Whole column of water to be pulled up

4. Factors affecting transpiration

• Temperature

- As temperature increases, kinetic energy of water molecules increases
- Water evaporates faster from the thin film of moisture into intercellular air spaces, more water vapour diffuses out of stomata, increasing transpiration rate
- Light intensity

- As light intensity increases, guard cells become turgid, opening the stomata
- FYI: How light causes guard cells to open stoma
 - Light energy is absorbed by chloroplasts, they photosynthesise, forming glucose
 - Glucose is used to release energy
 - Energy is used for active transport of potassium ions into guard cells
 - Guard cells' water potential falls, water enters via osmosis, making them turgid
 - As one side of guard cells' cell wall in thicker, when guard cells expand, they curve, opening the stoma
- This allows **water vapour** to **diffuse** out of the leaf faster, increasing transpiration rate
- **Humidity:** The concentration of water vapour in the air
 - As humidity increases, concentration gradient of water vapour between intercellular air spaces and surrounding air becomes less steep
 - Water vapour diffuses out slower, decreasing transpiration rate

Wind/air movement

- More wind/air movement blows water vapour away from air around leaves, decreasing humidity
- Concentration gradient of water vapour between intercellular air spaces and surrounding air becomes steeper
- Water vapour diffuses out faster, increasing transpiration rate

[Memory hack]

• How to remember effect of wind on transpiration rate

• Just like a wet towel would dry faster in the wind compared to still air, plants "dry out" faster in the wind (a.k.a. higher transpiration rate)

5. Wilting

 Transpiration is a consequence of gaseous exchange, in the presence of light stomata open wider to allow more CO2 to enter for photosynthesis, however this also increases the rate that water vapour diffuses out

Importance of Turgidity

- Usually, **mesophyll cells** are **turgid**, keeping the leaves **firm** and **spread widely** for maximum **surface area** for higher rate of **photosynthesis**
- For plants with **non-woody** stems, **turgidity** keeps the plant **upright** to reach for sunlight

When wilting occurs

- Wilting occurs when rate of transpiration > rate of water uptake
- Due to a net loss of water to the plant, central vacuoles of cells shrink, mesophyll cells lose turgor pressure and become flaccid, resulting in the wilted look of the plant
 - *Pro Tip: Think of 'turgor pressure' as how turgid a plant cell is!

Causes of wilting

- Too high light intensity
- Too high temperature
- Too much **fertiliser**, lowering soil **water potential** below that of root cells, resulting in water leaving the roots

Advantages and disadvantages of wilting

- Advantages: Reduced leaf surface area + flaccid guard cells close stomata reduces transpiration rate, which helps conserve water
- Disadvantages: Due to closed **stomata**, less CO2 enters leaves. Due to reduced **total leaf surface area**, less light is captured, leading to reduced **photosynthesis** rate.
- *Pro Tip: Total leaf surface area is reduced, NOT leaf surface area to volume ratio.



6. Bonus: Adaptations to reduce transpiration rate

- Hairs and a curled/rolled leaf structure traps water vapour around sunken stomata
 - Water vapour accumulates outside stomata + is trapped by hairs, increasing humidity, decreasing transpiration rate
- Few leaves/Small leaf surface area/Leaves reduced to spines
- Thick cuticle
- Succulent/fleshy leaves that store water



^Leaf of Marram grass, adapted to hot and dry locations

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14. Organisms and their Environment

Learning Outcomes:

- 1. Food chains and food webs
- 2. Non-cyclic energy flow
- 3. Ecological pyramids
- 4. Carbon cycle
- 5. Impact of Man on the Ecosystem
- 6. Conservation

Keywords:

- Population, Habitat, community, biotic, abiotic, ecosystem
- Food chain, food web, trophic level, producers, primary, secondary, tertiary consumers
- Herbivores, carnivores, decomposers
- Pyramid of biomass/numbers
- Growth and repair, carbon compounds, uneaten parts, egested/excreted substances, linear, non-cyclic energy flow
- Carbon cycle, fossil fuels, organic matter, combustion, decomposition
- Carbon sink, dissolves, soluble in water, buried, seabed
- Pollution, eutrophication, nitrates and phosphates, dissolved oxygen, aerobic bacteria, submerged plants
- Bioaccumulation, biomagnification, biodegradable, indigestible, landfills, leach
- Deforestation, soil erosion, flooding, desertification, biodiversity, extinction, endangered species

 Greenhouse gas, global warming, renewable energy, gene pool, crossbreeding

If you're our student: Organisms and their Environment Crash Course Clips

1. Food chains and food webs

- **Population:** A group of organisms of the same species that live together in a habitat
- Habitat: The place an organism lives
- **Community:** Comprises all the populations living and interacting with one another in a habitat
- **Ecosystem:** A community of organisms interacting with one another and their physical environment

Food Chain: A series of organisms through which energy is transferred in the form of food



- Producer (1st trophic level) → Primary Consumer → Secondary Consumer
 → Tertiary Consumer etc.
 - Herbivores: Only eat plants (usually, primary consumers are herbivores)
 - Carnivores: Only eat meat
 - Omnivores: Eat both plants and meat
- Each step in the food chain is a **trophic level** (the diagram above has 4 trophic levels)

- Trophic level: The feeding position that an organism occupies in a food chain.
- **Producers:** Organisms that take up the first trophic level, and make their own food from inorganic materials through photosynthesis.
- **Consumers:** Organisms that obtain food by feeding on other organisms.

Food Webs:

- Made of interlinked food chains
- Shows the feeding relationships in a community



2. Non-cyclic energy flow

- Producers are photosynthesising plants that obtain their energy from the Sun
 - This energy is transferred up the food chain in the form of **carbon compounds** when **producers** are eaten by **consumers**
- Some energy is used by organisms for growth and repair

How energy is lost at each trophic level:

- As heat to the surroundings due to cellular respiration
- As chemical energy trapped within excreted and egested substances (eg. urine and faeces)
- As chemical energy trapped in the uneaten parts when an organism dies (e.g. bones)
- *Pro Tip: Decomposers will use the above substances for cellular respiration, releasing energy as heat.
- Therefore, only 10% of energy is actually passed on from one trophic level to the next
- Energy flow is thus linear and non-cyclic (energy can't be reused)
- Energy must be constantly provided by the **sun** to maintain ecosystems

3. Ecological pyramids

Pyramid of Biomass

- Biomass at each trophic level = total mass of all individuals of that organism type
 - Biomass = Mass of 1 organism **X** number of that organism.



*Pro Tip: The pyramid of biomass is always this same upright shape.

Pyramid of Numbers

- Usually, pyramid of numbers is upright (Since usually, the higher the trophic level, the fewer the number of organisms)
- However, whenever there is a parasitic relationship, the lower trophic level's organism can support many organisms of the trophic level above it (the parasite).
 - ∘ E.g. Tree/Plant → Insects
 - ∘ E.g. Animal \rightarrow Fleas/Ticks



*Pro Tip: The pyramid of biomass is still upright for the above food chain.

4. Carbon cycle



How carbon enters food chains

- CO2 from the atmosphere is absorbed by plants and converted into glucose during photosynthesis
- Glucose is also converted to other carbon compounds (starch, fats, proteins, etc.)
- When consumers eat plants, carbon is transferred up the food chain
 - Allowing energy to passed from one organism to another in the form of carbon compounds

How carbon enters the non-living system

- CO2 is released into atmosphere during **aerobic respiration** by producers, consumers and decomposers
 - This maintains CO2 concentration in the atmosphere, so there is a constant supply of CO2 for **photosynthesis**

 Fossil fuels come from dead organic matter buried over long periods of time. When burnt for energy (combustion), it releases CO2 into the atmosphere

Carbon Sink: An area which stores carbon as carbon compounds indefinitely, and releases less carbon than it takes in.

- vs Carbon source: Releases more carbon than it takes in
- Forests
 - Trees take in CO2 through **photosynthesis** and convert it into carbon compounds such as cellulose which they use for growth and repair
 - Trees can be buried and become **fossil fuels** after they die
- Oceans
 - During **photosynthesis**, **phytoplankton** take in CO2 from the air to form **carbon compounds** such as **glucose**,
 - which is transferred to other organisms in the ocean which eat them up the **food chain**.
 - As CO2 is soluble in water, it dissolves into the ocean
 - Dead organisms may be buried at the **seabed** and become **fossil fuels**

[Memory shortcut]

- How oceans act as carbon sinks (PDF)
 - Photosynthesis
 - Dissolve
 - Fossil fuels

5. Impact of Man on the Ecosystem

Pollution: The addition of substances to the environment that damage it, making it unfit for life.

Sewage

- Should not be discharged into water bodies like rivers/lakes as:
- It may contain harmful bacteria that would cause diseases to those who drink it (e.g. Cholera)
- Could cause eutrophication: The process where a body of water receives excessive nutrients, leading to excessive growth of algae and floating water plants.
 - Untreated sewage is dumped/fertilisers are washed by rain into a body of water
 - Nutrients (Nitrates and phosphates) in the untreated sewage/fertilisers allow algae/floating water plants to grow rapidly across the water surface (algae bloom)
 - They block **sunlight** from reaching below, **submerged plants** have insufficient light for **photosynthesis** and die
 - Other animals also die due to the lack of **dissolved oxygen**.
 - Aerobic bacteria decomposes the dead organic matter, further decreasing dissolved oxygen.
 - Hence, many organisms in the river die due to the lack of dissolved oxygen in area.

[Memory shortcut]

- Eutrophication process [NASA]
 - N: Nutrients (Nitrates and Phosphates)
 - A: Algae bloom
 - S: Submerged plants
 - A: Aerobic bacteria

Plastic Pollution

- Plastic is **non-biodegradable** and **indigestible**. Wildlife that feed on plastic often die as it blocks their **stomachs** and **intestines**.
- Burning of plastic waste contributes to global warming
- Harmful chemicals from plastic waste in **landfills** can **leach** into rivers and seas, **poisoning** wildlife
- Plastic in the ocean can be broken into tiny pieces (microplastics), resulting in bioaccumulation and biomagnification.

Bioaccumulation: The process where certain substances are not excreted, and accumulate in the bodies of organisms over time.

- Toxic chemicals are taken up by organisms in contaminated water/when they eat food or prey containing these chemicals.
- Some toxic chemicals cannot be **excreted**, so they accumulate in organisms' bodies, **bioaccumulation** has occurred.
 - These substances are usually non-biodegradable
 - Biodegradable = capable of being decomposed by bacteria or other living organisms
 - Common examples: Heavy metals like mercury, lead, insecticides like DDT, and microplastics.

Biomagnification: The process where a substance increases in concentration higher up the food chain.

- **Consumers** in each **trophic level** have to consume many organisms of the lower trophic level (due to inefficient energy transfer).
- Hence they ingest the toxic chemicals present in multiple organisms, and toxic chemicals accumulate in high concentrations within consumers.
 Biomagnification has occurred.

• The top consumer is most affected by the toxic chemicals as they are present in the highest concentrations, and could die if present in lethal concentrations.

Deforestation

- Loss of **biodiversity**
 - Organisms lose their habitats and may become extinct
- Increased global warming
 - With fewer trees to absorb CO2 via photosynthesis, more CO2 would remain in the atmosphere
 - Cutting of trees also releases CO2 when the remains are decomposed
- Soil erosion
 - Tree roots hold soil together, and the forest canopy protects topsoil from force of rain
 - With less trees, soil is more likely to be washed away
- Flooding
 - Eroded soil may be deposited in rivers, blocking the flow of water
 - Water level rises and floods surrounding areas
- Desertification
 - After topsoil is eroded, barren land cannot support plant life

Global warming: The rise in global average temperatures

- Caused by increased greenhouse gas emissions, especially CO2
- Greenhouse gases trap heat in earth's atmosphere, increasing global temperature
- Common emissions from human activities: Deforestation, combustion of fossil fuels, combustion of plastic waste, emitted from petrol-based vehicles

How we can reduce global warming:

- Reduce use of fossil fuels, use renewable energy sources like wind and solar instead
- Save electricity
- Switch from petrol-based to electric vehicles
- Conserve forests

6. Conservation

Reasons for conservation

- To preserve **biodiversity** (the range of species found in an ecosystem)
 - Extinction of one species could affect the balance of the ecosystem
- Ecosystems have **scientific value**, as useful information can be obtained through scientific research of diverse organisms
- We rely on wild plants for certain medicines
- Economic purposes: To obtaining food and raw materials sustainably (eg. fish, timber)
- Our crops rely on natural **pollinators** to reproduce
- Conserving biodiversity maintains a large gene pool, allowing us to improve crops and livestock by cross-breeding different varieties of wild plants with favourable traits
- Preserve natural scenery, which also brings economic benefits through tourism

Conserving forests

- Cut trees selectively at a controlled rate
- Do not cut down young trees

- Plant seedlings to replace trees cut down
- Set up protected forest reserves

Conserving mangroves

- Plant new mangrove seedlings in mangrove swamps
- Set up protected mangrove reserves

Conserving coral reefs

- Divers should not touch coral reefs/do not anchor their boats on reefs as it may kill corals
- Avoid using sunscreen when visiting reefs as ingredients in sunscreen may harm corals
- Do not purchase corals as it will encourage people to extract live corals
- Do not pollute the sea/coastline with trash, it can be washed into the sea and harm corals

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15. Molecular Genetics

Learning Outcomes:

- 1. DNA structure
- 2. DNA to protein
- 3. Genetic Engineering
- 4. Implications of Genetic Engineering

Keywords:

- Deoxyribonucleic acid, nucleotide, double helix
- Deoxyribose, phosphate, nitrogenous base, Adenine, Thymine, Guanine, Cytosine
- Hydrogen bonds, complementary base pairing
- Gene, chromatin, chromosome
- Sequence of amino acids, specific polypeptide, codon, transcription, mRNA translation, folds
- Genetic engineering, donor, recipient, transgenic organism, foreign genes, target gene, anneal, vector, plasmid
- Restriction enzyme, restriction site, sticky ends, recombinant plasmid, heat/electric shock
- Social, ethical, moral, expensive, affordable, exploitation, biological warfare, allergic reactions, unwanted metabolic reactions

If you're our student: Molecular Genetics Crash Course Clips

1. DNA (Deoxyribonucleic Acid)



Structure of DNA

- DNA contains genetic information
- Made from two **anti-parallel** strands (facing opposite directions), wound together in a **double helix** shape
- Each strand is made of many **nucleotides**
- Is made of **nucleotides**, which have:
 - Deoxyribose sugar
 - Phosphate group
 - Nitrogenous/nitrogen-containing base (Adenine/Thymine/Guanine/Cytosine)



- The strands are held together by **complementary base pairing**, with **hydrogen bonds** between:
 - Adenine and Thymine
 - Guanine and Cytosine
 - Therefore ratio of A:T and G:C must = 1:1

[Memory hack]

- Remembering which nitrogenous bases pair together
 - Apple Tree: Adenine -- Thymine
 - Car in a Garage: Cytosine -- Guanine

DNA vs Gene vs Allele vs Chromosome vs Chromatin

- **DNA**: DNA is a type of molecule, just like carbohydrates, proteins and fats are types of molecules.
 - DNA can be very short, or very long
- Gene: A sequence of DNA nucleotides that codes for a specific polypeptide
 - A long DNA molecule can consist of many genes along it
 - *Pro Tip: Gene has a more detailed definition in the topic Inheritance.
- Allele: One of the alternative forms of a gene, that occupies the same gene locus on a pair of homologous chromosomes.

- Alleles usually have slight **nucleotide** differences, but are otherwise very similar.
- **Chromosome**: A very long, tightly packed DNA molecule that consists of many genes.
 - In the nucleus, chromosomes are not yet condensed, and are in the loose form of chromatin. Chromosomes condense during cell division.
 - **Chromatin**: The form of DNA found in the nucleus, where DNA is loosely-packed and coiled around proteins.

2. DNA to Protein

*Pro Tip: The following details of transcription and translation are FYI. Only a brief understanding is needed to answer questions.

Transcription: The process where DNA is used as a template to synthesise a strand of mRNA.

- The message in the gene is copied onto a molecule called messenger RNA (mRNA)
- Every 3 nucleotides on the original DNA is a codon, and each codon determines an amino acid in the polypeptide

Translation: The process where mRNA is used as a template to synthesise a sequence of amino acids, forming a polypeptide.

- mRNA leaves the **nucleus** and enters the **cytoplasm**
- mRNA attaches to a ribosome, the ribosome moves along the mRNA, synthesising a polypeptide
- The polypeptide is released, and folds into a protein

3. Genetic Engineering

Genetic Engineering: The technique used to transfer genes from one organism to another.

- Transferred gene can be expressed in the recipient organism
- Requires a **vector** (a vehicle that transfers genes)
- A commonly used vector is a **plasmid** (small, extrachromosomal circular DNA found in bacteria)
- **Transgenic organism:** An organism which contains **foreign genes** after gene transfer.



Restriction enzymes

- Naturally found in bacteria as defences against viruses
- Recognise a specific short nucleotide sequence, the restriction site
- They cut DNA there, resulting in **sticky ends** (where unpaired nucleotides can complementary base pair with another such strand to form double stranded DNA)

Genetic Engineering of bacteria to produce human insulin


Inserting gene into plasmid

- A **restriction enzyme** is used to cut a section of DNA containing the human **insulin gene**, creating **sticky ends**
- The same restriction enzyme is used to cut a plasmid, creating sticky ends
- Plasmid and DNA are mixed, allowing them to anneal* via complementary base pairing at the sticky ends
 - *Writing "bind" is accepted
- DNA ligase is added to seal them together, the result is a recombinant plasmid which carries the insulin gene

Inserting recombinant plasmid into bacteria

- Heat/electric shock treatment is applied to the bacteria that create pores in their membranes so they can uptake the recombinant plasmids
- Those bacteria become **transgenic** bacteria, and will produce insulin as part of their **metabolic processes**

*Pro Tip: Only a small percentage of bacteria will successfully uptake plasmids. They can be isolated by mixing with an antibiotic that the recombinant plasmids make them resistant to.

[Memory Shortcut]

- Genetic engineering process [Really Talkative PALS]
 - **R: R**estriction enzyme
 - T: Target gene
 - P: Plasmid
 - A: Anneals via complementary base pairing
 - L: DNA Ligase
 - S: Shock treatment

4. Implications of Genetic Engineering

- Biological implications: Impact on living things due to biological reasons
- **Social implications:** Impact on society/people, usually social/economic, but also includes health benefits/unforeseen health problems caused to humans who consume GM products
- Ethical implications: How genetic engineering could be morally questionable

Advantages of Genetic Engineering	How is it a benefit?
Low-cost production of medicine, such as insulin	Saves lives and is affordable
Can be used to treat genetic diseases	Saves lives
Crops that can grow in extreme weather conditions	Increase crop yields, avoiding food shortages , especially in light of climate change
Crops that have higher nutritional value, e.g. Golden rice, higher	Decreasing malnutrition , especially in poorer countries

vitamin A	
Crops produce their own pesticide	Less pesticides need to be sprayed on crops, environmentally-friendly .
Crops resistant to herbicide , e.g. soybeans	Herbicides can be used to efficiently kill weeds, increasing crop yields, increasing food security

*Pro Tip: Pesticide = kills pests. Insecticide = a type of pesticide, kills insects. Herbicide = kills weeds (unwanted plants that grow amongst crops, stealing nutrients)

Disadvantages of Genetic Engineering	How is it a disadvantage?
New proteins in GM food may cause allergies in some people	Some people may suffer allergic reactions , people might be scared to consume GM food.
Unforeseen consequences: Unwanted metabolic reactions may result, producing harmful toxins	May be toxic or cancer-causing to people who eat them
Useful insect pollinators such as butterflies and honey bees, which feed on nectar of GM crops, may die due to the crop producing pesticide	Loss of biodiversity
Possibility of use for biological warfare	Can be used as weapons of mass destruction (social, ethical)
Some companies <i>(e.g. Monsanto)</i> engineer GM crops to have seeds that cannot germinate, so farmers must constantly buy seeds from the companies	Financial exploitation of farmers
Some companies can set patents on medicines made using genetic engineering, and make medicines very expensive .	Medications too expensive for those who need them and cannot afford/financial exploitation as people have no choice but to pay the high prices

*Pro Tip: These advantages and disadvantages are not exhaustive lists.

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16. Reproduction in Plants

Learning Outcomes:

- 1. Cell Division
- 2. Sexual vs Asexual Reproduction
- 3. Bonus: Pros and Cons of Asexual Reproduction
- 4. Parts of a flower
- 5. Pollination
- 6. Fertilisation

Keywords:

- Mitosis, meiosis, daughter cells, homologous chromosomes, gametes/sex cells, diploid, haploid
- Random combinations, reduction division, diploid number, zygote
- Asexual, sexual, fertilisation, fusion, sex nuclei
- Genetically identical, genetically different, genetic variation, offspring, favourable traits, colonise, reproductive organs
- Susceptible, wiped out, sudden environmental changes
- Male gamete, self/cross-pollination, bisexual
- Hairy back and legs, brush, odour
- Long and pendulous, large and feathery, colourful, nectar guides
- Small, smooth, light, spiky, rough, hairy back and legs
- Germinate, sugary fluid, pollen tube, micropyle, sap, male sex nucleus, fruit, seed

If you're our student: <u>Reproduction in Plants Crash Course Clips</u>

1. Cell Division

Mitosis: The type of cell division which produces two genetically identical daughter cells which have the same number of chromosomes as the parent cell.

- Daughter cells are genetically identical to parent cell
- Usually occurs in **diploid** cells.
 - **Diploid:** Having two complete sets of chromosomes, one from each parent.
- In diploid cells, there are two of each chromosome number. Within each of these pairs, each chromosome came from one parent.
 - **Homologous chromosomes:** A pair of chromosomes, one from each parent. They have the same shape, size, length and gene loci, although they may have different alleles.
 - *Pro Tip: "Homologous" = "similar". These two chromosomes in a pair are very similar, like your left and right shoe. However there are slight differences, just like with your shoes.

Uses:

- Growth: For a multicellular organism to grow, new cells are produced by mitosis
- **Repair:** Dead or damaged cells must be replaced by new cells, which are produced by mitosis
- Asexual reproduction: Involves the production of new cells by mitosis to form offspring

Meiosis: The type of cell division which produces four genetically different daughter cells which have half the number of chromosomes as the parent cell.

- One **diploid parent cell** at the start of Meiosis becomes four **haploid daughter cells** after Meiosis is complete
 - Haploid: Having only one complete set of chromosomes.

- Homologous chromosomes are separated during meiosis into different daughter cells in random combinations, resulting in genetic variation
- As chromosome number is halved after meiosis, meiosis is a reduction division
- Importance of reduction division:
 - Meiosis is a reduction division, as gametes produced have half the number of chromosomes as the parent cell.
 - During fertilisation, nuclei of the haploid gametes fuse, forming a diploid zygote, restoring the diploid number in the zygote.
 - This ensures that chromosome number stays **constant** and does not double with every successive generation.

Used in: Formation of sex cells/gametes

- Hence, meiosis only exists in sexual organisms
- Daughter cells are genetically different from parent cell, resulting in variation in the offspring of sexual reproduction (see section below on the advantages of sexual reproduction)

[Memory hack]

- How to not mix up Mitosis and Meiosis
 - MItosis: Make Identical cells
 - MEiosis: Make Eggs or sperm (sex cells)

2. Sexual vs Asexual Reproduction

Asexual reproduction: The process that produces genetically identical offspring from one parent, without the fusion of nuclei of male and female gametes.

 Examples: Binary fission (bacteria), budding (yeasts), reproducing by spores, vegetative propagation* • *Pro Tip: Vegetative propagation is when a fragment of a parent plant regrows into an entire new plant.

Sexual reproduction: The process that involves the fusion of nuclei of male and female gametes to form a diploid zygote, producing genetically different offspring.

• Examples: Humans, flowering plants, etc.

3. Bonus: Advantages of asexual and sexual reproduction

Asexual reproduction	Sexual reproduction
Favourable traits will definitely be passed on, as offspring are genetically identical to parents	As genetic variation exists, the species can adapt to sudden environmental changes (e.g. disease/climate change) faster. Their population is hence are less susceptible to being wiped out, increasing their chances of survival .
No need to spend energy on reproductive organs	Offspring can inherit favourable traits from both parents*
No need to wait for fertilisation, hence reproduction is faster , can colonise an area quickly	

*Pro Tip: Think of this as getting the 'best of both worlds'.

4. Parts of a flower



Structure	Function
Sta men (Remember it is male part of flower because of men)	Consists of the male parts of the flower
Filament	Holds the anther in a good position to release pollen grains
Anther	Produces pollen grains , which in turn each contain a male gamete
Carpel	Consists of the female parts of the flower *Pro Tip: Some flowers have multiple Carpels, and all Carpels = the Pistil
Stigma (Remember, sticky)	Receives pollen grains
Style	Holds stigma in good position to receive pollen grains
Ovary	Produces and protects ovules , and becomes the fruit after fertilisation
Ovule	 Becomes a seed after fertilisation Contains an ovum, the female gamete

Receptacle	The base of the flower where the other parts of the flower are attached
	*Pro Tip: It "receives" all the parts of the flower,
	hence its name.
Sepal	Protects the flower during the bud stage
Petal	 Can be colourful to attract pollinators Can have nectar guides

5. Pollination

• **Pollination:** The transfer of pollen grains from an anther to a stigma.

Туре	Self-pollination	Cross-pollination
Difference	Occurs within the same plant	Occurs between different plants of the same species
 [Memory shortcut] Features of flowers that favour self/cross pollination [MOP] M: Male and female parts <u>Mature at same</u> time? O: Flowers may not <u>Open</u> P: <u>P</u>osition (anther higher/lower than stigma) 	 M: Bisexual flowers, both male and female parts mature at same time O: Flowers may not Open (ensuring self-pollination) P: Position (anther higher than stigma so pollen can fall on stigma) 	 M: Male or female parts mature at different timings/flowers only either have male or female parts O: Flowers open P: Position (anther lower than stigma)

Parent plants involved	1	2
Genetic variation	Less*, hence more susceptible to being wiped out by sudden environmental change	More, hence less susceptible to being wiped out by sudden environmental change
Chance of occurring	Higher, as distance to travel for pollen is short	Lower, as distance to travel for pollen is long
Energy expenditure	Lower, no need produce as much pollen	Higher, need to produce a lot more pollen

*Pro Tip: **Self-pollination is NOT asexual reproduction.** It involves fertilisation = it is sexual reproduction, hence there is still genetic variation, just lesser variation than cross-pollination.

Insect vs wind pollination

Pollinating Agent*	Insects	Wind
How it works	 Insects visit flowers to obtain nectar Anthers brush against insects, pollen grains stick onto their hairy bodies/hairy back and legs (more 	 Pollen grains are picked up by wind They land on the stigmas of another flower
	 suitable for bees) Pollen grains are transferred from the insect to stigma of the same/different flower 	
<u>S</u> tigma	Small and sticky	Large and feathery



- Features of insect/wind-pollinated flowers [SOAP GNC]
 - S: <u>S</u>tigma

- **O: O**dour
- A: Anthers
- P: Protruding reproductive parts
- G: Pollen Grains
- N: Nectar (and nectar guides)
- C: Colourful petals

6. Fertilisation

Fertilisation: The fusion of male and female sex nuclei, resulting in a diploid zygote.



Process leading to fertilisation:

- After pollination, stigma produces a **sugary fluid**, stimulating pollen grain to **germinate**.
- A **pollen tube** grows from the pollen grain, secreting **enzymes** to digest a path through **stigma**, **style** and **ovary wall**.

- Pollen tube enters an **ovule** via the **micropyle**.
- The pollen tube **absorbs sap** and bursts, releasing the **male sex nucleus** which fuses with the **ovum,** forming a **diploid zygote**.
 - *Pro Tip: (FYI) The other nuclei helps form the endosperm, which will be the food reserves for the seedling.

[Memory shortcut]

- Fertilisation process in flowers [STEMA]
 - S: Sugary fluid
 - **T:** pollen **T**ube
 - E: Enzymes secreted
 - M: Micropyle
 - A: Absorbs sap and bursts, releasing male sex nucleus, fertilisation

After fertilisation

- Flower withers
- Ovary turns into a fruit
- Ovules turn into seeds
 - If fertilisation does not occur in an ovule, it degenerates when the ovary turns into a fruit
 - At least 1 ovule must be fertilised for the ovary to turn into a fruit

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17. Reproduction in Humans

Learning Outcomes:

- 1. Male and female reproductive system
- 2. Describing the menstrual cycle
- 3. Fertilisation
- 4. Foetal development
- 5. Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV)

Keywords:

- Erectile, ejaculation, testosterone, sexual intercourse, childbirth
- Gametes, fertilisation, fusion of sex nuclei
- Menstruation, fertile period, oestrogen, progesterone, mature ovum, ovulation, repair, further thickening
- Activate, nourish, semen
- Puberty, pregnancy
- Peristaltic action, sweeping action, zygote, embryo, implantation, embeds, foetus
- Finger-like projections, immunity, antibodies
- Supports, cushions, muscular development, lubricates
- Sexually transmitted infection, human immunodeficiency virus, acquired immune deficiency syndrome
- Abstinence, physical barrier, sterilise, unprotected

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1. Male and female reproductive system

Female reproductive system





Structure	Function
Vagina (birth canal)	Where sperms are deposited during sexual intercourse
Cervix	The opening between the uterus and vagina(allows sperm from vagina to enter uterus, as well as menstrual blood to pass from uterus to vagina)
Uterus (womb)	 The uterine lining sheds during menstruation An embryo embeds itself in the uterine lining during implantation Foetus develops here during pregnancy During childbirth, its elastic muscles contract to push out the foetus
Oviduct	 Where a mature ovum is released Site of fertilisation
Ovary	 Site of where eggs mature Produces oestrogen and progesterone

Male reproductive system



Structure	Function
Testis*/testicle (plural: testes/testicles)	Produces sperm and testosterone
Scrotum	The skin sac containing testes (which need to be outside of the body to be 2°C cooler for sperm production)
Sperm duct	Carries sperm from the testes to the urethra
Prostate gland	 Mixes sperm with a fluid, which: Nourishes sperm with nutrients Has enzymes which activate sperm to swim actively
	Semen = Sperm + Fluid from prostate gland

	*Note: Semen is alkaline, to neutralise the acidic environment
	of the vagina to protect sperm.
Urethra	The duct for urine/semen to exit
Penis	The male erectile organ, which deposits semen into vagina during sexual intercourse

Comparing male and female gametes (sex cells)

Gamete	Male (sperm)	Female (ovum)
Structure*	Nucleus Liochondrion	
Size	Smaller	Larger
Number	~250 million per ejaculation	1 released per ovulation
Motility (ability to move)	Yes, using its flagellum	No, is moved by cilia and peristalsis in the oviduct
Chromosomes	22 + X/Y chromosome	22 + X chromosome

*Pro Tip: Knowing the detailed parts of the sperm and egg are not required.

Puberty: The stage where a person becomes physically mature and capable of sexual reproduction.

- Secondary sexual characteristics appear due to sex hormones (testosterone in males, oestrogen + progesterone in females):
 - Sexual organs enlarge, and the person begins to produce gametes
 - In females, menstrual cycles begin
 - Pubic and armpit hair appears
 - Includes other physical changes, e.g. Voice deepening in men, hips broaden in women.

2. Menstrual cycle

 Typical menstrual cycle = 28 days, but it varies. It could vary more or stop completely if the person is experiencing high stress/poor diet/poor sleep, etc.



*Pro Tip: You must be familiar with the hormone graph

[Memory shortcut]

- Stages of menstrual cycle [Mother Orders Restaurant, Father Pays Bill]
 - M: Menstruation (Day 1-5)

- O: Oestrogen is the dominant hormone in the 1st half
- R: which Repairs and thickens uterine lining
- F: <u>F</u>ertile period (Day 10-15) surrounds ovulation (Day 14)
- P: Progesterone is the dominant hormone in the 2nd half
- B: which causes growth of more Blood vessels within lining

Day	Stage	Events
1-5	Menstruation	The uterine lining and unfertilised egg are broken down and discharged out of the vagina as menses ("period blood")
6-13	Repair + Growth	 Oestrogen levels increase Uterine lining repairs and thickens
10-15	Fertile period + Ovulation (Day 14)	 Upon ovulation on day 14, one ovary releases mature ovum into the oviduct Ova survive up to 1 day* unless fertilised, sperm survive up to 4 days* *Pro Tip: If you see questions giving different numbers, then adjust the fertile period according to the question Sexual intercourse during this period (fertile period) has highest chance of pregnancy
15-28	Growth + Maintenance	 Progesterone levels increase Uterine lining thickens further and more blood vessels grow within it, preparing for possible implantation Nearing the end of the menstrual cycle, oestrogen and progesterone levels fall, causing the uterine

Hormones involved in menstruation

Oestrogen

- Stimulates repair and thickening of uterine lining
- High levels of oestrogen near day 14 result in ovulation

• Progesterone

- Maintains thickness and stimulates further thickening of uterine lining
- Stimulates growth of more blood vessels in uterine lining
- High levels of progesterone inhibit another **ovulation** during second half of the menstrual cycle* (as well as during pregnancy)

3. Fertilisation

Fertilisation: The fusion of nuclei of a sperm and ovum, forming a diploid zygote.

• Occurs in the oviduct/fallopian tube

Implantation: The process whereby the embryo embeds itself in the uterine lining.

- Zygote travels toward uterus via peristaltic action of the oviduct walls and sweeping action of cilia
- The zygote undergoes **mitosis**, forming an **embryo** (a ball of cells)
- Embryo reaches uterus 5 days after fertilisation, floats around for 2 days. On Day 7, **embeds** itself into uterine lining during **implantation**.
- The placenta, amniotic sac and foetus then develops.

4. Foetal development



Placenta

- After implantation, finger-like projections called villi, containing blood vessels from the embryo, grow into the uterine lining, forming the placenta.
- Placenta secretes **progesterone** to maintain thickness of the uterine lining, supporting pregnancy.
- Oxygen and nutrients such as glucose, amino acids diffuse from maternal to foetal capillaries
- Metabolic waste products such as urea and carbon dioxide diffuse from foetal to maternal capillaries
- Some **antibodies** diffuse from maternal to foetal capillaries, giving the foetus **immunity** against some diseases
- Maternal and foetal blood do not mix, because:
 - Mother's blood pressure > foetus, would kill foetus
 - Mother and foetus may have incompatible **blood types**

Amniotic sac

- Contains amniotic fluid and the foetus
- Amniotic fluid
 - Supports and cushions foetus by absorbing shock
 - Allows some movement, promoting muscular development
 - Lubricates birth canal during childbirth
 - maintains a steady temperature around foetus

*Pro Tip: When a pregnant woman's 'water bag' bursts nearing labour, it means the amniotic sac broke, and childbirth is beginning soon.

[Memory Shortcut]

- SALT for functions of amniotic fluid
 - Shock absorption
 - Allows some movement for muscular development
 - Lubricates birth canal during childbirth
 - maintains a steady Temperature around foetus

Umbilical cord

- Carries nutrients and oxygen from placenta to foetus
- Carries metabolic waste products from foetus to placenta
- Umbilical cord has 2 arteries *(from foetus to placenta) and 1 vein (toward foetus)

*Pro Tip: Umbilical arteries carry deoxygenated blood, because artery carries blood away from foetus' heart, to placenta

5. Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV)

- HIV is a sexually transmitted infection (STI)
- HIV attacks a certain type of white blood cells, decreasing their number
- The resulting condition = **Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome** (AIDS) as the immune system is weakened, and body is susceptible to common infections that would otherwise not be as severe.

Modes of HIV transmission:

- Unprotected sexual intercourse with infected individual
- Sharing of contaminated needles
- Blood transfusions where the donor's blood has the virus

*Pro Tip: This is why in professional/public health services, donated blood is always screened.

• Passed from mother to foetus during pregnancy

STIs can be prevented by:

- Abstinence (no sexual intercourse)
- Have only 1 sexual partner
- Using condoms (physical barrier prevents transmission)
- Not sharing needles/sterilising needles whenever used
- Do not share instruments that are likely to break the skin and be contaminated with blood (e.g. razors, toothbrushes)

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18. Inheritance

Learning Outcomes:

- 1. Inheritance terms and concepts
- 2. Monohybrid cross
- 3. Bonus: All monohybrid cross combinations
- 4. Sex determination
- 5. Mutation
- 6. Discontinuous vs continuous variation
- 7. Natural Selection

Keywords:

- Gene, allele, gene locus, dominant, recessive, genotype, phenotype
- Homozygous, heterozygous, co-dominance, incomplete dominance, multiple alleles
- Monohybrid, expected/observed offspring ratio, chance, discrepancy, sample size
- Mutation, mutagens, ionising radiation, single-base substitution, sickle-cell anaemia, spleen, malaria, down syndrome, chromosomal mutation
- Continuous/discontinuous variation, additive effect, multiple genes, intermediates, range of phenotypes, few and distinct
- Natural selection, random fertilisation, selection pressure, favourable alleles, selective advantage, survive and reproduce, evolution, antibiotic resistance

If you're our student: Inheritance Crash Course Clips

1. Inheritance terms and concepts

Gene: A unit of inheritance that determines a specific trait in an organism. It is a sequence of DNA nucleotides that codes for specific polypeptide, and has a particular gene locus.

• Gene locus: The location of a gene along a chromosome

Genotype: The combination of alleles an individual has for a trait

Phenotype: The trait that is expressed as a result of genotype

Allele: One of the alternative forms of a gene, that occupies the same gene locus on a pair of homologous chromosomes.

- Homozygous: Two copies of an allele for a trait are present
- Heterozygous: One of each allele for a trait is present
 - *Pro Tip: AA = homozygous dominant. aa = homozygous recessive. Aa
 = heterozygous, there is no such thing as heterozygous
 dominant/heterozygous recessive.
- **Dominant allele:** Always expressed regardless whether the individual is homozygous or heterozygous for the trait
 - The dominant allele **masks the effect** of the recessive allele in heterozygous individuals.
- **Recessive allele:** Only expressed if the individual is homozygous recessive for the trait

الدالد	(If co-	(If
	dominant)	incomplete dominance)

Phenotype



Co-dominance*: When two different alleles for a particular trait are both expressed in an organism and influence phenotype.

- Let allele for red flower be IR
- Let allele for white flower be IW
- In a **heterozygous** individual (IRIW), if the phenotype turns out to be flowers with both red and white petals, these alleles are **co-dominant**.

Incomplete dominance*: When two different alleles are expressed resulting in phenotype being an intermediate between the two.

- Let allele for red flower be IR
- Let allele for white flower be IW
- In a **heterozygous** individual (IRIW), if the phenotype turns out to be pink flowers, these alleles show **incomplete dominance**.

*Pro Tip: Co-dominance and incomplete dominance can only be observed if individual is heterozygous for the trait.

Multiple alleles: When three or more alleles exist for a gene.

- e.g. for blood type there are the alleles: IA IB IO
- IA IB are co-dominant
- IO is recessive to IA and IB

*Pro Tip: For co-dominance, incomplete dominance, multiple alleles and sexlinked inheritance, we represent alleles with superscripts, such as IR, IW.

2. Monohybrid cross

- Monohybrid cross involves 1 trait, with 2 alleles
- Genetic crosses can predict expected offspring ratios

Discrepancy between observed and expected ratios

- As **fertilisation** is a **random** process, the **genotype** of each offspring is based on **chance**
- The smaller the **sample size** of offspring, the greater the **discrepancy** would be

Cross #1: 2 homozygous parents (pure-bred) with different alleles

• *Pro Tip: Pure-bred means offspring are homozygous for certain traits

Let T represent allele for tall plant (dominant)

Let t represent allele for dwarf plant (recessive)

• *Pro Tip: If letter used has capital and small letters which look very similar, (e.g. c and C), use c' for the recessive allele to avoid ambiguity



*Pro Tip: F1 and F2 are used when there is an initial cross, followed by a second cross between the offspring from the first cross. Otherwise, then in the last rows, replace F1 with 'offspring'.

Cross #2: 2 plants from F1 generation



[Memory shortcut]

- Full genetic diagram steps [Lockdown Period, Grab Food Only]
 - L: Let... (define your alleles, unless question already did)
 - P: Parents phenotype and genotype
 - G: Gametes are formed from parents
 - F: Fertilisation
 - **O: O**ffspring genotype and phenotypic ratio

Test Cross

- Used to determine the genotype of an individual, as heterozygous and homozygous dominant individuals appear the same
- The individual is crossed with a homozygous recessive individual, eg ?? X
 tt
 - If individual is **homozygous dominant**, offspring would all express the dominant phenotype
 - If individual is heterozygous, offspring ratio would be 1:1
 - If individual is **homozygous recessive**, offspring would all express the recessive phenotype

3. Bonus: All monohybrid cross combinations (O levels)

- Let A be the allele for Tall plant
- Let a be the allele for dwarf plant

Parents Crossed	Offspring Genotypes	Offspring Phenotypic Ratio
AA x AA	All AA	All Tall
аа х аа	All aa	All Dwarf
АА х аа	All Aa	All Tall

Аа х Аа	1 AA, 2 Aa, 1 aa	3 Tall : 1 Dwarf
Аа х аа	2 Aa, 2 aa	1 Tall: 1 Dwarf
Aa x AA	2 Aa, 2 AA	All Tall

4. Sex determination

Sex determination

- Sex chromosomes are either X or Y
 - XX is female
 - XY is male*
- Each chromosome comes from each parent
 - The mother's ovum definitely contains an X chromosome, as the mother's diploid cells have XX
 - The father's sperm can contain either an X or Y chromosomes, as the father's diploid cells have XY
 - Therefore sex of the zygote formed depends on the sperm, and there is a 50% chance of the zygote being a boy or a girl.

5. Mutations

Mutation: A sudden change in the structure of a gene or chromosome number

• Mutations that occur in an individual can be passed down to offspring

Mutagen: An environmental agent that increases mutation rate

- Ionising radiation: e.g. ultraviolet radiation, nuclear radiation, gamma rays
- Certain toxic **chemicals:** e.g. **tar** in cigarette smoke

• *Pro Tip: Mutagens simply cause more mutations in DNA. **Carcinogens** are a group of mutagens which cause mutations that increase chances of cancer.

Sickle-cell anaemia

- Due to a **single-base substitution** in the **haemoglobin gene**, the **codon** is changed
 - A different nucleotide will be coded for in mRNA after transcription
 - A different amino acid is coded for after translation
 - Instead of normal haemoglobin, results in abnormal haemoglobin
- Homozygous recessive individuals:
 - At **low oxygen concentrations**, abnormal haemoglobin **clumps** together, causing the cell to become **sickle-shaped**
 - Results in anaemia (body cells get insufficient oxygen) because:
 - Sickled RBCs are more fragile, break easily
 - Cannot carry O2 efficiently
 - Are actively destroyed by the **spleen**, leading to low RBC count
- Benefit to heterozygous individuals
 - Do not suffer the disease
 - Are more resistant to malaria*
 - *Pro Tip: Not in syllabus when the malaria parasite infects their RBCs to reproduce, it causes the RBC to sickle, killing both the RBC and malaria.
 - Hence they survive and reproduce better (passing on the sickle-cell allele)
 - Thus the **allele** is most abundant in malaria-stricken regions (e.g. sub-Saharan Africa)

Down Syndrome

- During formation of sperm/egg, a **chromosomal mutation** results in the **gamete** having two copies of chromosome 21
 - This can happen in either the mother or father, although most of the time in the mother*.
 - *Pro Tip: The older the mother, the higher the chance of this happening.
- Fertilisation with a normal gamete will result in zygote having three copies of chromosome 21 (trisomy 21), causing Down Syndrome.
 - The person has total 47 chromosomes instead of 46

Type of variation	Discontinuous	Continuous
Phenotypes	Few and distinct phenotypes	A range of phenotypes, with many intermediate forms
Number of genes involved	1 or few	Multiple genes, which have an additive effect
Environment	No effect on phenotype	Affects phenotype
Examples	Sex, blood type, ability to roll tongue, lobed or attached ears, eye colour	Skin/hair colour, height, weight

6. Discontinuous vs continuous variation

7. Natural Selection

Natural selection: The process whereby organisms better adapted to their environment tend to survive and reproduce.

- Variation exists between individuals
 - Due to: Mutation, meiosis, random fertilisation (as each parent produces genetically different gametes, fertilisation of a random sperm and a random egg increases the number of possible zygote variants)
- Organisms face selection pressures
 - eg. competition for limited resources, predators, disease outbreaks

- Individuals with favourable traits have a selective Advantage
- And are more likely to Survive and reproduce
- Hence passing on their **favourable alleles** to their **offspring**
- Over Time, more and more of the population have the favourable trait
- [OR, if question says **evolution** occurred, replace the above statement with this]: Accumulation of new genes by **mutation** and **natural selection** resulted in the evolution of the **species**.
 - *Pro Tip: Natural selection is needed for evolution to occur, but natural selection can occur without evolution.

[Memory shortcut]

- Explaining natural selection process [VAST]
 - V: Variation exists between individuals
 - A: selective Advantage
 - S: Survive and reproduce, passing favourable alleles to offspring
 - **T:** over **T**ime, more and more of the population has the favourable trait

Examples

- Dark peppered moths in England, 1900: due to industrial revolution, soot coated trees, giving dark moths a **selective advantage** (camouflage) over white moths.
- Antibiotic-resistant bacteria: Those with resistance survive and reproduce, resulting in a strain of antibiotic-resistant strain
- Darwin's finches of the Galapagos islands: Have different beak shapes due to the type of diet they are suited for, e.g. nuts, insects, fruit, etc.

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