

Topic on a Page

for IB Biology

Theme C – Interaction and Interdependence

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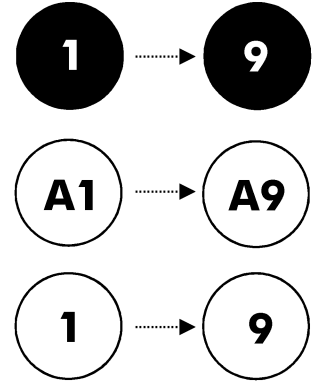
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Teacher's Introduction

This Topic-on-a-page resource has been designed to help your students revise the key points of each topic and test their knowledge after you have taught each section of the **IB Biology: Theme C – Interaction and Interdependence** specification from topics C1.1 to C4.2. Each page is closely tied to the IB specification, ensuring all aspects of the course are covered.

There are four sections to this resource, each with its own features:

1. **Summary posters:** these are the main pages which intend to clearly consolidate and recap all the key information from the IB Biology course.
2. **Activity worksheets:** these are identical to the Summary posters, but contain a variety of tasks, from filling in missing words to completing diagrams. The activity worksheets aim to ensure the student understands all the key knowledge required of them and gives them the opportunity to demonstrate how well they have remembered and understood the content of the course.
3. **Outline-only pages:** these are the Summary posters, but with most of the content removed. Students can research the topics, e.g. for homework, and fill in as much information as they can.
4. **Mark scheme:** full answers for the activity worksheets.



The Summary posters, Activity worksheets and Outline-only pages are designed to be A3 size, although they are still useable at A4 with no loss of detail. When photocopying activity pages on A3, we suggest photocopying the relevant worksheet on the reverse. If using at A4 size, we suggest photocopying each A3 'worksheet' (for writing answers) as a double-sided A4 page to avoid shrinking the space available for answers.

Each page presents information in a variety of ways, including:

- **Bullet-point processes** – complex processes and lists have been summarised into quick, easy-to-learn points.
- **Illustrative diagrams** – detailed diagrams that visually represent a concept or event.
- **Tips and tricks** – extra useful information that can help students when solving problems.

Additional higher level content is presented with a darker background and has been marked with this symbol for easy reference:



This resource is cross-referenced to the Pearson textbook *Higher Level Biology for the IB Diploma Programme (3rd edition)* by Alan Damon, Randy McGonegal and William Ward (ISBN 978-1292427744).

Additional information from the guide and textbook will be needed to explore these topics in greater detail.

We hope you find these pages useful during your teaching and your students' revision.

April 2025

C1.1 Enzymes and metabolism

Enzymes and metabolism

Enzymes play an important role in **metabolism**, a term which encompasses all the chemical reactions in a living organism. It includes a diverse, interdependent collection of reactions, and as such, many **different** enzymes are needed.

- Enzymes are **proteins**, chains of amino acids folded to form a **specific shape**. They are described as **globular** proteins.
- Their complex shape includes an **active site** made up of a few amino acids.
- The shape of an enzyme's active site is determined by the **sequence** of amino acids and the overall structure which creates the proper environment for **catalysis**.

Metabolic reactions are inefficient, and produce heat (thermal energy) which energy is transferred.

Endotherms (e.g. mammals and birds) rely on this heat to maintain their internal body temperature.

HL



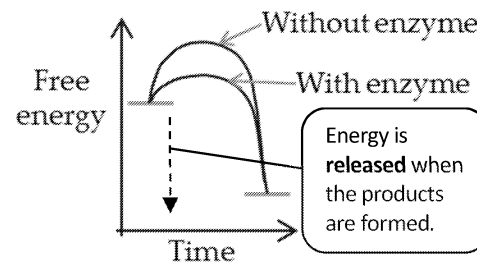
Type

- Anabolic** (building up)
 - Monomers → polymers
 - Requires energy
 - Condensation reactions
 - e.g. protein synthesis, photosynthesis
- Catabolic** (breaking down)
 - Macromolecules → monomers
 - Releases energy
 - Hydrolysis reactions
 - e.g. digestion, breakdown of substrates in respiration

Enzymes as catalysts

Enzymes **catalyse** chemical reactions by lowering the **activation energy** (the **minimum** energy needed to break substrate bonds so that a reaction can occur).

Reactions with a **lower** activation energy take place more easily, so the overall **rate** of the reaction is **higher**. Without this increase in rate, many essential reactions would occur too slowly for life to be maintained.



Intracellular – within a cell, e.g. glycolysis and Krebs cycle

Extracellular – outside a cell, e.g. chemical digestion in the gut

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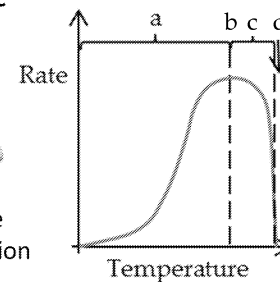
Temperature

As temperature increases during **a**, **kinetic energy** increases. There are more encounters between molecules (and more of them have energy greater than the activation energy) so more enzyme-substrate complexes are formed.

b is the **optimum temperature**, where the rate of enzyme-substrate complex formation is at its maximum.

During phase **c** enzymes **denature**; heat energy causes the active site to change shape so it is no longer **complementary**.

At **d** all enzymes are denatured.



Changes in pH can cause changes in the shape of the active site, causing it to be less complementary to the substrate. Different enzymes have different **optimum pH** values, and, therefore, are best in different parts of the body.

Collisions

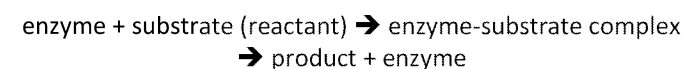
A collision is needed for a substrate molecule and the active site to interact. This can be made more likely by fixing one or both of the molecules in place:

- Large substrate molecules can be **immobilised** by attaching them to surfaces.
- Enzymes can be **embedded** in membranes to fix the orientation of the active site, e.g. in photosynthesis and respiration.

Collisions must occur with enough **kinetic energy** (speed) to exceed the activation energy for a reaction to happen.

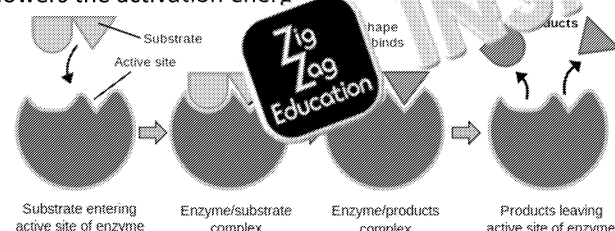
Mode of enzyme action

An enzyme binds with the substrate at the **active site**, forming an **enzyme-substrate complex**.



Note: enzymes are **not** reactants as they are not used up in a reaction and can be reused many times.

Induced-fit model of enzyme action: the active site changes shape to better fit the substrate, which causes the change in the substrate that lowers the activation energy.



Substrate concentration

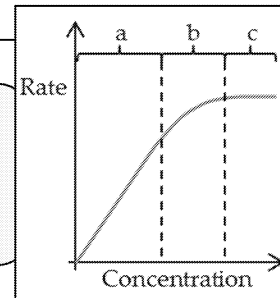
As substrate concentration increases during **a**, more substrates collide with enzyme active sites by **collision theory**.

During **b** almost all the enzymes' active sites are occupied by substrate.

During **c**, the addition of more substrate has **no effect** as all the available enzymes' active sites are occupied, so the rate of reaction remains constant.

Exam Tip!

The active site is **induced** to change by the substrate, but denaturing **disrupts** the shape.



Effects of different conditions on enzyme activity

Allosteric and competitive inhibition

- ★ **Non-competitive (allosteric)** inhibitors bind to a site somewhere other than the active site, thereby altering the shape of the active site.
- ★ **Competitive** inhibitors bind to an active site, blocking access for the substrate. They have a similar shape to the substrate, e.g. **statins** can bind to an active site involved in cholesterol synthesis and are prescribed to lower high cholesterol levels.

Both types of inhibitor bind **reversibly**. Increasing the substrate concentration can reduce the effects of competitive inhibitors, as more active sites are occupied by substrate than inhibitor.

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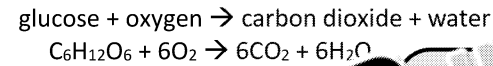


C1.2 Cell respiration

ATP and cell respiration

Cell respiration uses the energy released from **glucose** (or other carbon compounds) to produce **ATP**.

Equation:



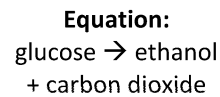
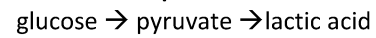
Aerobic respiration

Anaerobic respiration

Muscles (lactic acid fermentation)

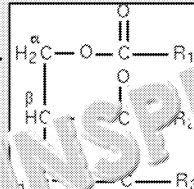
Plant and yeast cells (alcoholic fermentation)

Equation:



Other substrates?

- If there is insufficient glucose, then some cells respire using fatty acids (from lipids) or proteins as a substrate.
- The amount of energy stored in a molecule depends on the number of C, H and O present – greater numbers of oxidisable hydrogens and carbons, as well as fewer oxygens, results in higher **relative energy values**.
- Lipids** contain the most energy, while protein and carbohydrates carry a little less.
- Note that glycolysis and anaerobic respiration can only occur in full if the respiratory substrate is a **carbohydrate** – acetyl groups from breakdown of fatty acids enter the pathway into the mitochondria from acetyl-CoA.



ATP

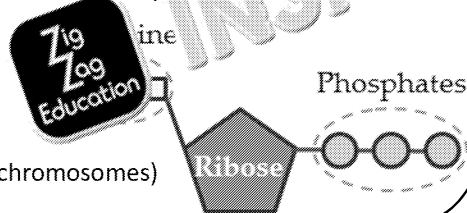
Adenosine triphosphate (ATP) is a phosphorylated **nucleotide** with a 5-carbon ribose sugar, an adenine base and three inorganic **phosphate** ions. The last two phosphate ions are bonded via **high-energy bonds** to the rest of the molecule.

ATP provides an **immediate** source of energy for cells. Phosphate ions are removed from ATP by **hydrolysis**, which creates energy and produces **adenosine diphosphate (ADP)** and phosphate.

Phosphates are reconnected through **condensation** reactions, which requires energy. This process occurs during photosynthesis in plants (**photophosphorylation**) and during respiration in animals (**oxidative phosphorylation**), and as such, ATP is continually used and synthesized in a cyclic pathway to ensure cells have the energy they need to function.

Hydrolysis of ATP is used in:

- active transport
- metabolic processes (anabolism)
- cell movement
- cell component movement (e.g. chromosomes)

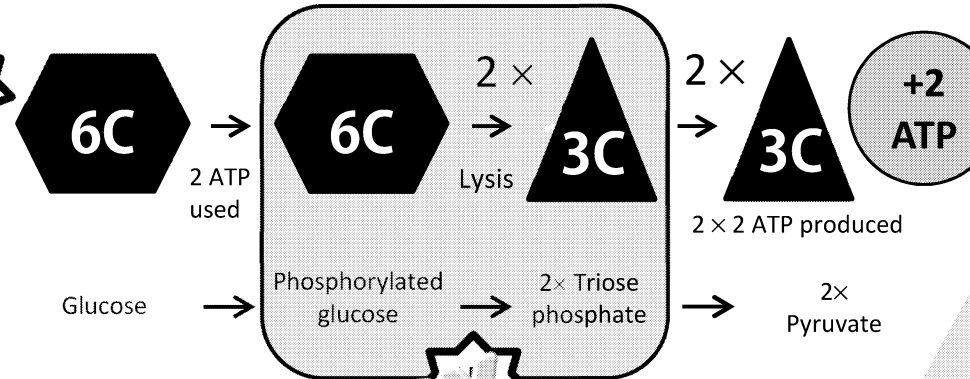


STAGE 1

Happens in the cytoplasm

Glycolysis

- Both anaerobic and aerobic respiration.
- Glucose is converted to 3C pyruvate.
- Via a series of different enzymes:
- Converts glucose to a **phosphorylated** form using ATP.
- Through **lysis**, forms two molecules of **triose phosphate (TP)**.
- TP undergoes **oxidation** to form pyruvate – producing two ATP molecules each.
- Reduces NAD to **reduced NAD (NADH)** in the process by accepting H^+ .



anaerobic respiration

- Can occur with glucose as the substrate.
- Does not involve the mitochondria; occurs in the cytoplasm.
- Produces ATP without oxygen – only glycolysis step (stage 1).
- Not as efficient as aerobic – 2 ATP per glucose molecule.
- Reduced NAD cannot be oxidised without oxygen, glycolysis could stop...
- However**, lactate (animals) or ethanol/ CO_2 (plants and microorganisms, e.g. yeast) is produced, which allows reduced NAD to become NAD.
- As a result, glycolysis can continue.

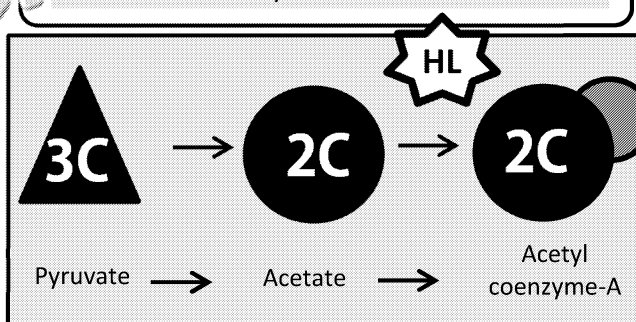
STAGE 2

The link reaction

O_2

Happens in the matrix

- First of the aerobic reactions, linking **glycolysis** and **Krebs cycle**.
- Pyruvate enters matrix by active transport and is oxidised/decarboxylated and dehydrogenated – producing **reduced NAD**.
- Acetyl group combines with coenzyme A: **acetyl coenzyme A**.
- 2C carbons from acetyl coenzyme A fed into Krebs cycle.



NAD

NAD is a **coenzyme** which cells use to carry out oxidation and reduction reactions.

- It is known as a **hydrogen carrier** as it accepts a hydrogen atom (hence an electron) when it is **reduced**.
- When it is **dehydrogenated** (oxidation), it loses a hydrogen atom (hence an electron).

Remember that oxidation is the loss of **oxygen**, and reduction is the gain of **oxygen**.

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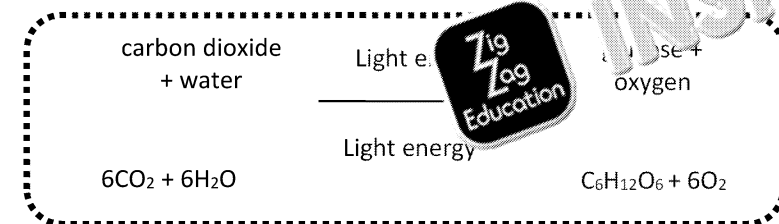


C1.3 Photosynthesis

What is photosynthesis?

Light energy is converted to chemical energy by plants, algae and cyanobacteria in photosynthesis.

- Water is split, releasing hydrogens.
- These reduce carbon dioxide to glucose.
- Oxygen is a by-product needed by other life for **respiration**.



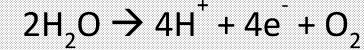
Steps of photosynthesis:

1. Light-dependent (known as the Calvin cycle)
2. Light-independent

Chloroplast

Stroma

Thylakoid



HL

(B) Photolysis

- An enzyme splits two water molecules in a process called **photolysis**, forming protons, electrons and oxygen.
- The protons (H^+) are used in photophosphorylation.
- The electrons replace those lost from chlorophyll during photoionisation.
- The oxygen is a waste product either used by respiration or released – accumulation of oxygen over time has many effects, including thinning the atmosphere to allow more sunlight through.

Photosynthetic pigments

- Pigments such as **chlorophylls** absorb light. They are located in **thylakoid membranes** and absorb light at particular **wavelengths** – pigments appear the colour of the light that they reflect.
- Pigments use the energy from light to **excite electrons** to higher energy levels, and these are used to form chemical bonds (i.e. light energy is converted to chemical energy).
- Different energy levels require a different amount of energy, so different pigments absorb different wavelengths of light to do this.
- Having many **accessory** pigments in addition to the primary pigment, chlorophyll *a*, increases the rate of photosynthesis substantially.

HL

Experiment

Pigments from leaves can be separated by **chromatography**. This allows different pigments that are present in leaves to be identified by the distance they travel in the solvent.

The distance travelled by each pigment is measured, and divided by the distance travelled by the solvent to get its **R_f value**.

(A) Light-dependent reaction - overview

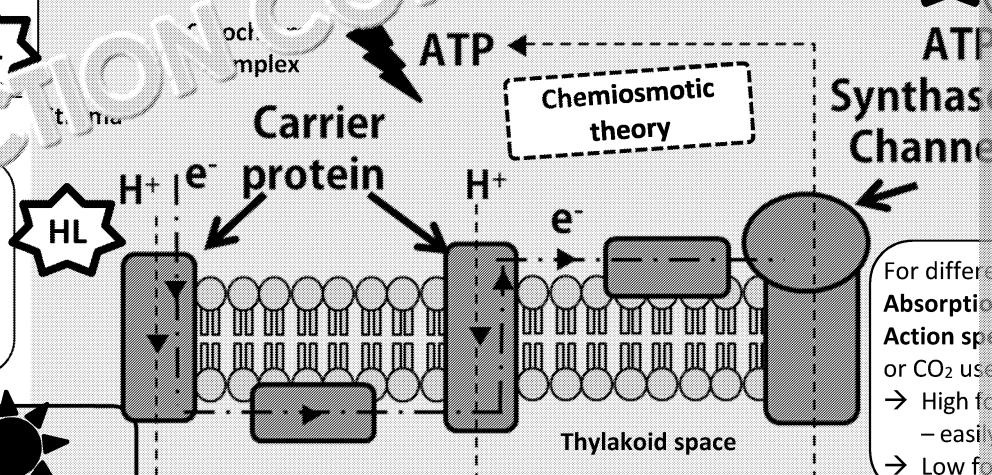
- Stage of photosynthesis that relies on sunlight.
- Light (**photons**) falling on pigments in **photosystem II** are transferred to chlorophyll *a* (P680).
- During **photoionisation**, electrons are excited and captured by electron acceptors in the reaction centre. **Photolysis** (B) also occurs.
- Electrons enter the **electron transport chain** (C) from electron acceptors. **Chemiosmosis** produces ATP and reduced NADP.
- Photons are absorbed by pigments in **photosystem I** and transferred to accessory pigments to chlorophyll *a* (P700).
- High-energy electrons are captured by electron acceptors and enter the electron transport chain, and replaced by low-energy electrons from photosystem II.
- **NADP reductase** helps move electrons from reduced NADP to NADP in the process.

Photosystem I: P700 (700 nm)
Photosystem II: P680 (680 nm)

(C) Electron transport chain (photophosphorylation)

- Electrons from chlorophyll pass along electron transfer chain, losing a small amount of energy each time they pass to a new **carrier**.
- Energy allows pumping of **protons** from stroma across thylakoid membrane.
- Forms **concentration gradient** of protons.
- Protons diffuse down gradient through ATP synthase, **producing ATP**.

HL



Cyclic vs non-cyclic photophosphorylation

Non-cyclic: two electrons from photosystem II pass into the electron transport chain and then to photosystem I and are used with hydrogen ions to produce one NADP molecule.

Cyclic: only if light is **not** limiting and reduced NADP accumulates. Electrons come from photosystem I. Does not produce oxygen or reduced NADP, only ATP.

Photosystems are found in thylakoids of chloroplasts, and in membranes of cyanobacteria. The **light-receiving complex** is a collection of chlorophyll and accessory pigments which absorb photons. The **reaction centre** contains a chlorophyll pigment capable of releasing electrons into the electron transport chain.

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Light effects

When night falls, GP cannot be reduced to TP. If no TP, then GP accumulates.

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Cell signalling

- In a **signal transduction pathway**, a signal is released from one cell and is detected by another, leading to a series of steps which enact an effect. This can be considered as a **receptor-effector relationship**.
- Four signalling chemicals that are used by organisms are:

Neurotransmitters in neurons

Act on neighbouring cells, e.g. diffuse across a synapse
Important for rapid response
Examples (usually hydrophilic – surface-binding): amino acids, peptides, amines, nitrous oxide

Hormones

Act on specific distant cells
Secreted by endocrine glands
Examples (usually hydrophobic – cross membrane and bind within a cell):
amines and proteins (hydrophilic – surface-binding),
steroids (hydrophobic – cross membrane and bind within a cell)

Cytokines

Glycoproteins (surface-binding)
Important for inflammation response and cell reproduction
Produce a cascade reaction

Calcium ions

Often second messengers
In muscles, regulate contraction
Also important for hormone secretion

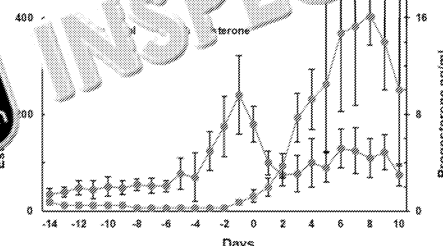
- There are many different **target** cells in the body
- Using different ligands means receptors must be **specific** – they have a complementary shape to the ligand
- Different ligands may have **short-** or **long-term** effects

Steroid hormones

- Steroids are **hydrophobic**, so bind to intracellular receptors
- Binding forms a **receptor-signal** complex
- Receptor-signal complexes can act as **transcription factors** in the nucleus when they bind to specific DNA sequences
- Binding promotes transcription of DNA, the first step in protein synthesis
- Examples: oestradiol, progesterone and testosterone

Oestradiol and progesterone

- Both are **steroid** hormones produced in the ovaries
- Both have effects on gene expression by affecting **transcription**
- Oestradiol works on the hypothalamus, which controls secretion of gonadotropin-releasing hormone from the pituitary gland, stimulating the ovaries to release eggs (and more oestradiol)
- Progesterone works on cells in the endometrium to thicken the uterus for pregnancy; if no pregnancy, production of progesterone decreases so the uterine lining is shed



C2.1 Chemical signalling

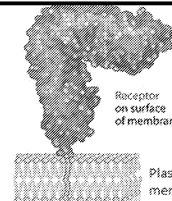
– additional higher level only

Receptors

- **Receptors** are protein structures that can detect a change in condition via the binding of a ligand. They might detect, for example, changes in temperature, pressure or pH.
- When a ligand binds, the receptor changes shape, leading to a signal transduction pathway.
- Receptors can be found on the surface of a cell, embedded in the plasma membrane (**transmembrane**), or within a cell in the cytoplasm or the nucleus (**intracellular**).

Intracellular receptors

Hydrophobic ligands can bind inside the cell as they can cross the cell membrane



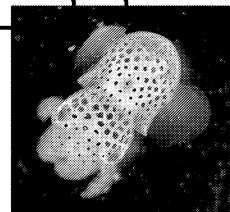
Transmembrane receptors

- Span the whole plasma membrane
- Hydrophilic domain is on the external (aqueous) side
- Hydrophobic domain is on the interior (cytoplasm) side
- **Hydrophilic ligands** bind outside the cell as they cannot cross the polar membrane
- Different types include:
 - (A) **Ion channel receptors** (ligands activate ion channels)
 - (B) **Protein-coupled receptors** (ligands activate G proteins)
 - (C) **Enzymatic receptors** (ligands activate intracellular enzymes)

Quorum sensing

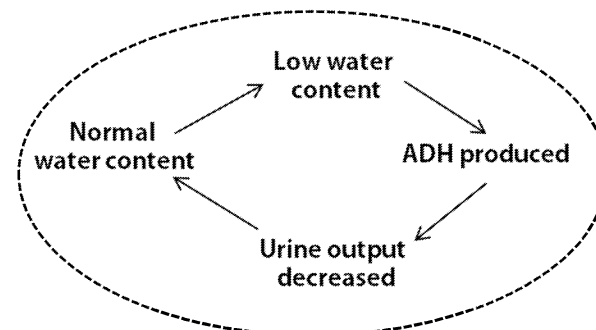
The marine bacterium *Vibrio fischeri* produces ligands called **autoinducers** when it reproduces. These pass through the cell membrane and into the surrounding environment.
The behaviour of the bacterial colony changes depending on the population density in the area:
More bacteria → More autoinducers → When threshold is reached, autoinducers re-enter bacterial cells → Autoinducers bind to protein LuxR → LuxR binds to DNA lux box → Lux box is activated → Luminescent protein luciferase produced

Some squid make use of these bacteria to camouflage themselves from below!



Example

A negative feedback loop that controls water content. If too low, the brain secretes a hormone known as ADH. This reduces urine output and restores water content.



Negative feedback

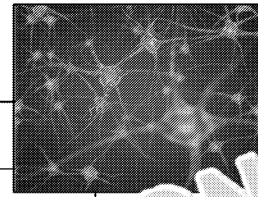
The most common **negative feedback** loop. By negative feedback, a condition is restored to optimal condition.

1. The body detects a change from optimal condition.
2. Causes an effect to return the body to optimal condition.
3. Receptor detects when condition has been neutralised.
4. Effector is turned off.

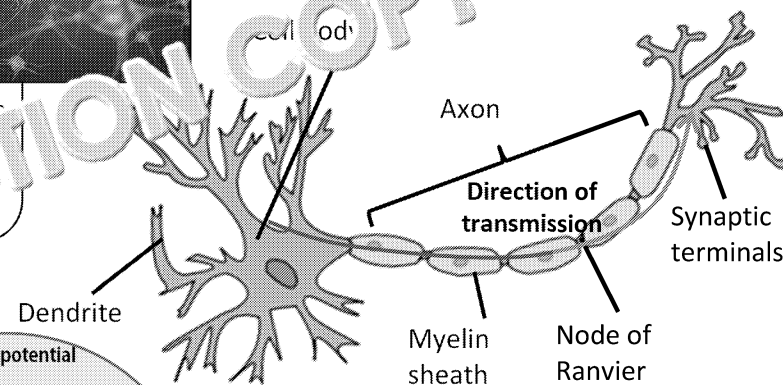
C2.2 Neural signalling

What is a neuron?

- Part of the nervous system which carries impulses across the body.
- Action potentials pass along neurons, and rely on charge differences inside and outside of cells.
- Neurons are separated by synapses which control where a signal is passed through the nervous system.



Consists of cell body and nucleus



Affected by

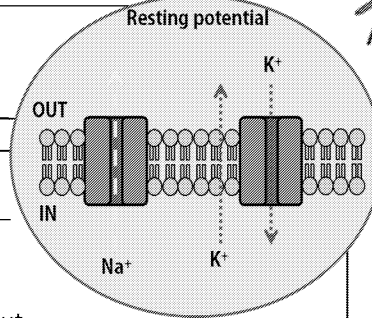
- Thickness (are 12x)
- Myelin
- Temperature (higher can inc)

Impulses

- Waves of electrical activity that travel along the neuron.
- Impulses are largely controlled by sodium-potassium pumps in the cell membrane.

Sodium-potassium pumps

- Move 3 Na^+ out and 2 K^+ in, through an active process (using ATP).
- Plasma membrane permeable to K^+ which diffuses back out.
- More positive ions move out than are moved back in (membrane is polarised).
- **Inside is negatively charged relative to outside.**
- This is the **resting potential**, it measures **-70 mV** in the neuron.



Myelin and saltatory conduction

- **Myelin** is the fatty sheath around an axon, made of Schwann cells. It acts as an insulator against ion movement.
- Myelin plays a crucial role in speeding up axon transmission.
- By covering the axon, ions can only cross the membrane where there is no myelin – at **nodes of Ranvier**.
- This means the action potential 'jumps' from one node of Ranvier to the next, speeding the impulse.
- This requires less energy than in non-myelinated neurons, where the entire length of an axon needs to be depolarised and repolarised.

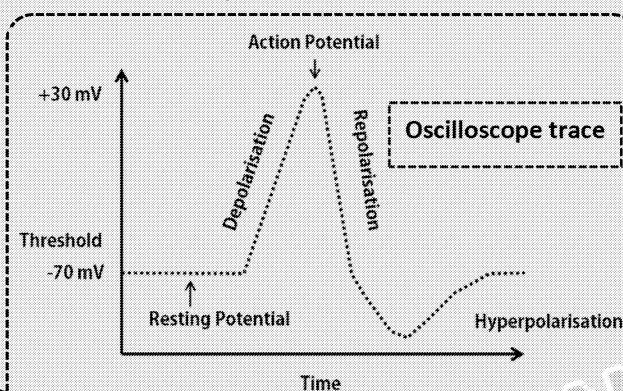
Action potential

When triggered by receptors on the membrane, a small change in the polarity of the neuron occurs. This must reach a **threshold potential**.

Once reached, voltage-gated Na^+ channels are opened, allowing Na^+ to flood back into the cell. Rapidly, the inside of the cell becomes positively charged (+30mV). This is the **action potential**.

A positively charged neuron is considered **depolarised**.

- At peak depolarisation (+30 mV), the Na^+ channels close.
- **Repolarisation** causes voltage-gated K^+ channels to open, allowing positively charged ions to exit the cell, restoring the neuron's charge.

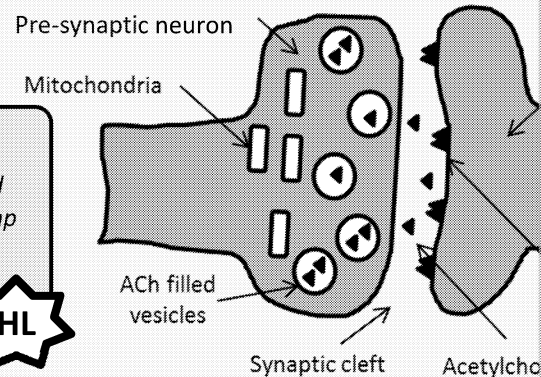


Depolarised regions initiate an action potential in the next region, causing a **self-propagating wave** which eventually reaches a synapse.

Anatomy of an action potential

Exam tip – 'Saltatory' comes from the Latin word 'saltare', which means jump – just like the action potential in this kind of conduction.

HL



Synapses

Neurons are not connected to each other – nor do they touch. A small (~20 nm) gap called the synaptic cleft exists between the synaptic terminals of one neuron and the cell body of another. When a signal passes along a neuron, it reaches a synapse and releases **neurotransmitters**, such as acetylcholine (ACh).

When an action potential reaches the synaptic terminal, depolarisation causes the uptake of Ca^{2+} .

- Ca^{2+} causes vesicles to bind to the membrane, and release ACh into the cleft, where it diffuses across the gap.
- The post-synaptic membrane has transmembrane receptors specific to ACh, which cause sodium channels to open – **one-directional signal**.
- Na^+ enters the neuron, potentially triggering an action potential.
- Bound ACh returns to the synaptic cleft, where it is degraded by enzymes (acetylcholinesterase) and recycled in the presynaptic neuron.

Consciousness

Consciousness **cannot** be explained by **reductionism** (just looking at the interaction of neurons in the brain). It is an example of **emergence**, which suggests that the whole is greater than the sum of the parts.

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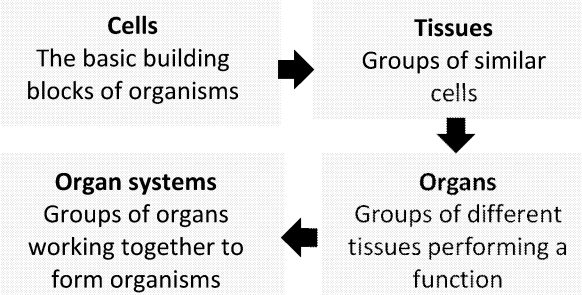


C3.1 Integration of body systems

Communication systems

- All cells must be in contact with each other. This does not mean they must touch!
- **Communication systems** are vital as the environment is ever changeable – internal and external environments are both able to change.
- The organism must **coordinate** the activities of all cells within it to respond to a change:
 1. Hormones used in plants and animals (slow but long-lasting effects)
 2. Neurons also used in animals (short lived effects)
- The two systems may work together. Stimuli detected by the nervous system can trigger the release of the hormone epinephrine.

Organisation in living organisms



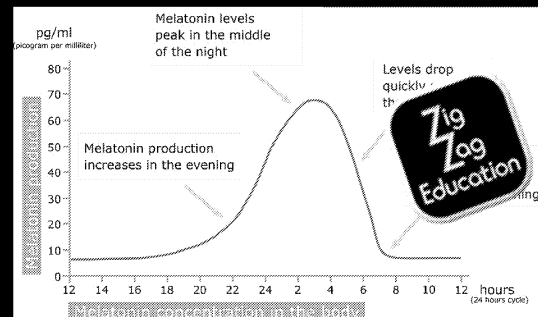
Emergent properties arise when the sum of the parts (cells, tissues, organs, organ systems) creates new features in the **organism** when they are integrated.

The endocrine system

- Glands that release hormones into the blood are called **endocrine glands**.
- The **hypothalamus** in the brain can stimulate or inhibit these in response to changes, including from the nervous system.
- The **pituitary gland** secretes hormones involved in many homeostatic processes, e.g. **osmoregulation**.

Sleep patterns

- Our wake and sleep cycle follows a **circadian** (24-hour) **rhythm**.
- The hormone **melatonin** regulates sleep levels, and is secreted by the **pineal gland**.
- High levels of melatonin induce sleepiness.



Neurons

These cells carry nerve impulses and include many different types, including:

- **Sensory neurons** – carry impulse from receptors to CNS
- **Interneurons** – connect sensory neurons together
- **Motor neurons** – carry impulse from cerebral hemispheres of the brain to effectors (neuromuscular junctions or motor end plates) **See page 5**

Some neurons have a protective sheath made of **myelin** which increases the speed of transmission

Receptor types

Receptor	Stimulus
Mechanoreceptor	Pressure
Chemoreceptor	Chemicals
Photoreceptor	Light
Thermoreceptor	Temperature
Nociceptor	Pain

The mammalian nervous system

- The nervous system is broadly divided into two parts – the **central nervous system** (CNS) and the **peripheral nervous system** (PNS).
- The CNS is the brain and the spinal cord – the PNS is the rest.
- The PNS can be further divided into the **sensory** and **motor** systems, either detecting or responding to stimuli.
- The motor system can be divided again into the **somatic** nervous system, over which we have control, and the **autonomic** nervous system, which is subconsciously controlled.

Reflex arcs

- It is vitally important for an organism to move away from danger.
- Simple pain reflexes are used by animals, consisting of a sensory neuron, a **relay** neuron in the grey matter of the spinal cord, and a motor neuron (skeletal muscle).
- The brain is not involved in a typical reflex arc.

Transport mechanisms (e.g. blood vessels) are needed for most multicellular organisms. Cells are supplied with nutrients, and waste products are removed.

Control of heart and ventilation rate

- At rest, the heart rate is controlled by the **sinoatrial node** (the pacemaker) and the ventilation rate by the **respiratory centres** in the medulla.
- The **medulla** (in the brain) receives signals from receptors to respond to changes in activity levels.
- **Baroreceptors** in the **aorta** and **carotid arteries** detect changes in blood pressure: **high blood pressure** → **artery walls stretched** → **more action potentials sent to medulla** → **sinoatrial node decreases heart rate and stroke volume**
- **Chemoreceptors** in the capillaries near the baroreceptors and brainstem detect changes in blood pH and composition (CO₂ and O₂ levels): **more respiratory** → **less O₂ and more CO₂ in blood** → **lower blood pH** → **more action potentials sent to medulla** → **respiratory centres increase heart rate and stroke volume** → **diaphragm and intercostal muscles** → **increase ventilation rate and volume of air moved**

Epinephrine (adrenaline)

A polar **hormone** released from the adrenal glands above the kidneys. Has **many effects** in different situations, including

- Increasing ventilation, heart rate, blood pressure, blood supply to muscles, pupil dilation, glucose production from glycogen and mental awareness following panic, stress, fear, excitement, etc.

- Tropism is a growth response to an external stimulus
- **Phototropism** is a response to light stimulus

Practical investigations

Phototropic responses can be investigated. Investigations can be performed with either from one side or from all sides of the light.

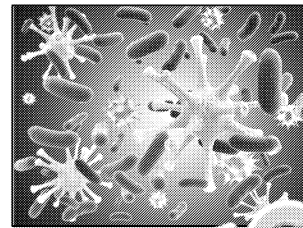
Phytohormones

Phytohormones are hormones that respond to stimuli and control growth.

Hormone	Effect
Auxin	→ Causes cell elongation → Produced in shoot tips and moves to roots via xylem
Cytokinin	→ Causes cell division → Produced in shoot tips and moves to roots via xylem
Ethylene (also called ethene)	→ Speeds fruit ripening → Works via protein synthesis → Gas spreads through fruit → synchronise

What are pathogens?

Microorganisms (viruses, bacteria, protists or fungi) that cause disease.



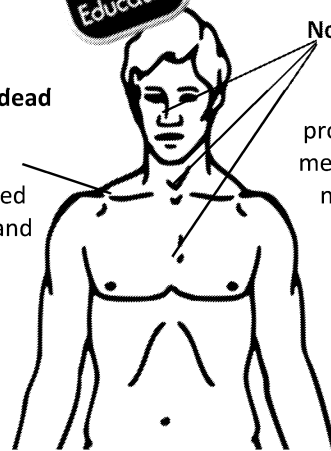
Primary defences

The first line of defence in the human body consists of non-specific barriers.

Skin

Epidermis = outer layer of dead cells that is difficult for microorganisms to break through. Continually replaced as deeper dermal cells die and migrate upwards.

Secretes **antimicrobial oils** that kill microorganisms



Nose, trachea and bronchi

Sticky **mucous** produced by mucous membranes lining the nose, trachea and bronchi traps microorganisms

Cilia waft trapped pathogens up and out of the body

Blood clotting

Blood clotting at cuts forms scabs to prevent entry of microorganisms

- Damaged blood vessels release chemicals to stimulate platelets to form a clot.
- Clotting factors** are released from platelets and liver to start a cascade of reactions:
 - Prothrombin** → **thrombin**
 - Thrombin catalyses conversion of **fibrinogen** to **fibrin**
 - Fibrin forms a mesh, and erythrocytes (red blood cells) are trapped to stabilise the clot

Innate immune system

- White blood cells respond to foreign antigens **in general** by recognising their type, e.g. bacteria
- Does not change over time**
- Phagocytes engulf** material by **endocytosis**

Adaptive immune system

- Responds differently to **specific** pathogens/antigens
- Becomes **more effective** over time as it builds up a catalogued **memory** of pathogens
- Memory cells are activated upon reinfection to give a **rapid** response

Response order

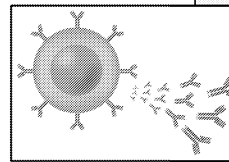
Primary response: initial response of T- and B-lymphocytes. Takes place while symptoms occur.

Secondary response: memory cells recognise the pathogen and allow a **rapid response to reinfection**. The response is much quicker than another primary response. A much larger number of antibodies are produced, and symptoms are usually less severe or non-existent.

C3.2 Defence against disease

1

Antibodies are Y-shaped substances that attack the outside of / inside of pathogens and are recognised by the immune system as non-self. They are usually proteins or glycoproteins.



Phagocytes and helper T-lymphocytes absorb and **display antigens** to stimulate further immune responses.

The antigens produced by a pathogen can be **highly variable**, and **new strains** complicate medical treatment.

Erythrocytes (red blood cells) can have (or not have) three different antigens, which means a blood transfusion from someone of a **different blood group** can trigger an immune response.

Blood types

	A protein	
	✓	✗
B protein	✓	AB
	✗	A

Each can be Rh positive or negative.

Phagocytosis

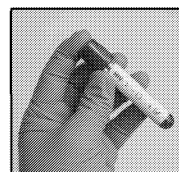
Phagocytes are **leucocytes** (white blood cells) that use **amoeboid movement** to move around the body. When they detect foreign antigens, they engulf their membrane to engulf the pathogen.

Lysosomes release **lysozymes** to digest the pathogen. Breakdown products are absorbed and antigens are **presented** to trigger lymphocyte response.

Phagocytes are **non-specific** and will target any antigen-bearing pathogen.

HIV and AIDS

Transmitted via: blood (e.g. sharing needles), sexual fluids and breast milk.



HIV positive: HIV (human immunodeficiency virus) virus enters the body and lay **dormant** in helper T-lymphocytes (CD4 lymphocytes) for years.

Acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS): when the viruses activate their DNA, replicate within and destroy CD4 T-lymphocytes cells. This leaves patients prone to **opportunistic infections** (e.g. pneumonia) as their immune system is weakened and fewer antibodies are produced.

Antibiotics and resistance

Antibiotics are designed to affect bacterial metabolism (e.g. production of new cell walls) and, therefore, have a **direct effect** on viruses which hijack a cell's metabolic processes. Antibiotics also do not affect human cells, as both eukaryotic and bacterial cells are prokaryotic.

Antibiotics kill **all non-resistant bacteria** in a population. Some bacteria will have a **mutation** which allows them to survive, and they form an **antibiotic-resistant** population which cannot be killed by that antibiotic.

Now, many strains of deadly bacteria are resistant to **multiple antibiotics**, so the diseases cannot be treated until **new antibiotics** are developed.

To limit the spread of resistant bacteria:

- Doctors prescribe antibiotics only when necessary
- Patients should always finish the full course
- Farmers could reduce the use of antibiotics
- Everyone should practise good hygiene, e.g. handwashing

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C4.1 Populations and communities

What is an ecosystem?

- **Populations** are groups of individuals of the same species living in the same area that can breed. Different populations of the same species may be **reproductively isolated**, e.g. by distance.
- Groups of interacting populations in the same area are **communities**.
- Ecosystem = community + abiotic factors



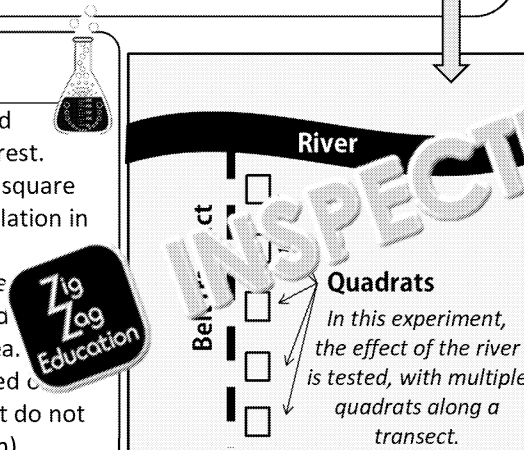
Random sampling

It is usually impossible to count every member of a population (individuals may be hiding, moving around, etc. and counting every organism would take too long), so scientists usually use an **estimate** obtained via **sampling**. There are two broad categories of sampling:

1. **Systematic sampling**: taking measurements at regular intervals on a line or grid
2. **Random sampling**: sampling arbitrarily to avoid bias towards certain areas. This creates a **sampling error**, which we try to minimise.

Quadrats

- Quadrats are squares placed randomly in an area of interest.
- Count the organisms in the square for an estimate of the population in that environment.
- Scale up the average count per quadrat by the ratio of quadrat area : whole population area.
- These methods are best used on **sessile** organisms (ones that do not move, or do not move much).



Capture-mark-release-recapture

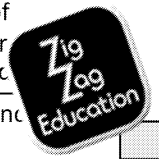
- Counting **motile** organisms using a quadrat is very difficult!
- Ecologists capture a small number of animals and mark them.
- They then release those animals back into the wild.
- After a short time, they perform another capture and recount.
- The size of the population can be estimated.

Assumes that:

- All animals are from the same population and do not make new individuals more likely to be caught/eaten
- No animals entered or left the population (closed population)
- No births or deaths during sampling

Lincoln index:

total population size = $\frac{\text{number of individuals marked in first capture} \times \text{total number of recaptured individuals}}{\text{number of marked recaptured individuals}}$
i.e. total population = $M \times N/R$

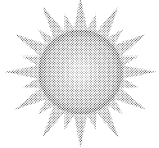


Carrying capacity (K)

- The maximum capacity of an ecosystem.
- Every ecosystem only has a certain amount of resources, which limits population. If the population gets too big, it crashes, bringing the population back down to carrying capacity.

Limiting factors

- Resources, e.g. food, water, sunlight, space, oxygen
- Predation
- Disease/pathogens
- Waste, e.g. CO₂



- **Negative feedback** of density-dependent factors keeps a population around the carrying capacity, even if it fluctuates
- **Density-independent** factors (e.g. as climate change) can cause significant changes.

Relationships between individuals

Competition

Two types of competition exist: **interspecific** and **intraspecific**.

- **Interspecific** is competition between **different** species. A **presence-absence** matrix can be used to indicate where the effects are.
- **Intraspecific** competition **within the same** species. Individuals compete for food, water, light, soil, mates, etc. to ensure their own survival.

- In competition, one wins and one loses, resulting in **zero-sum**.
- Individuals may also compete for resources they both need, such as hunting for children.

Endemic species (or those that can be outcompeted) (introduced from elsewhere by natural predators), e.g. tortoises and fast-birds.

Other interspecific relationships

Predation

- **Predators** (e.g. lions) eat **prey** (e.g. gazelles). Usually prey are living, but some predators are **scavengers** that eat animals which have recently died.
- The population of predators depends on prey. No prey = no food.
- However, prey depend on predators. Too many predators = prey might be wiped out!

Parasitism

- Parasites live on or in a **host** for food and as part of their life cycle (e.g. to reproduce).
- A host may be harmed by the interaction (e.g. ticks feed on other animals' blood).

Pathogenicity

- **Pathogens** (disease-causing microorganisms) spread infections among other organisms. The fungus *H. gramineus* causes ash dieback in ash trees.

Herbivory

- Some animals feed on plants, damaging or killing them (e.g. grasshoppers eat cereals).

Mutualism

- A form of interspecific cooperation, where two species both benefit.

Example 1

Rhizobium bacteria in root nodules of Fabaceae fix N₂ gas into ammonia which the plants can use, and get carbohydrates and a favourable environment

Example 2

Mycorrhizae in Orchidaceae consist of a fungal hyphae network passing nutrients to a plant or seed, and receiving the nutrients back when it dies

Example 3

Zooxanthellae tentacles carbon-fix corals and minerals

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C4.2 Transfers of energy and matter

Energy transfer and systems theory

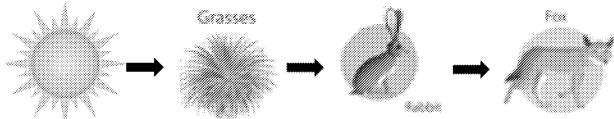
- Ecosystems are **open systems** where energy and matter can enter and leave.
- In **closed systems** (e.g. Earth as a whole), only energy can enter or leave.
- **Law of conservation of mass**: matter cannot be created or destroyed
- **Laws of thermodynamics**: energy is transferred through systems and can be transformed from one form to another, but not created or destroyed



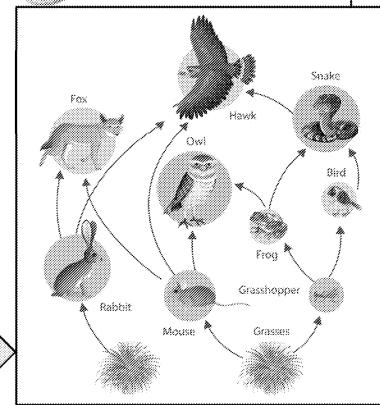
Food chains

- Used to represent feeding relationships.
- Arrows show direction of energy and biomass transfer.

Chemical energy → Producer → Consumer(s)

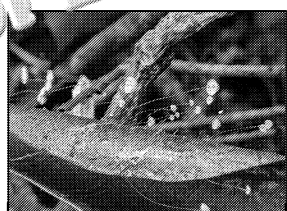


- **Autotrophs (producers)** synthesise organic compounds from simple inorganic substances.
- Can be **chemoautotrophs** or **photoautotrophs**, these use chemical reactions / sunlight as a source of energy.
- Carbon dioxide from either the atmosphere or the rocks is fixed to produce organic compounds.
- Plants use the products both for energy and in building macromolecules.
- **Heterotrophs (consumers)** need to ingest other organisms to get their food.
- They digest polymers (proteins, lipids, DNA/RNA) into monomers (amino acids, fatty acids, nucleic acids), and use these to build their own polymers via **assimilation**.
- Food web shows interlinking food chains.



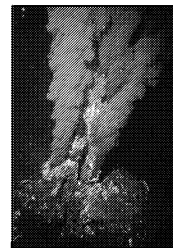
Decomposers

- Convert non-living organic matter and broken down dead parts, e.g. shed skin or dead leaves, into simple forms, and support soil formation (decomposition).
- **Saprotrophs** (e.g. fungi) secrete enzymes to digest nutrients, which they then absorb.
- **Detritivores** (e.g. worms, beetles, flies) ingest and digest material inside their bodies.



Energy sources

- Photosynthetic organisms include plants, algae and cyanobacteria.
- They use **photolysis** to oxidise water molecules, which releases electrons and hydrogen ions, used to produce **ATP**.
- ATP is used to produce organic compounds such as **glucose**.
- Chemoautotrophs often exist in places without sunlight, e.g. underground or deep in caves.
- They are usually bacteria which oxidise certain elements to produce energy.
- Iron-oxidising bacteria near hydrothermal vents convert iron(II) to iron(III). This releases electrons which are used to produce ATP.



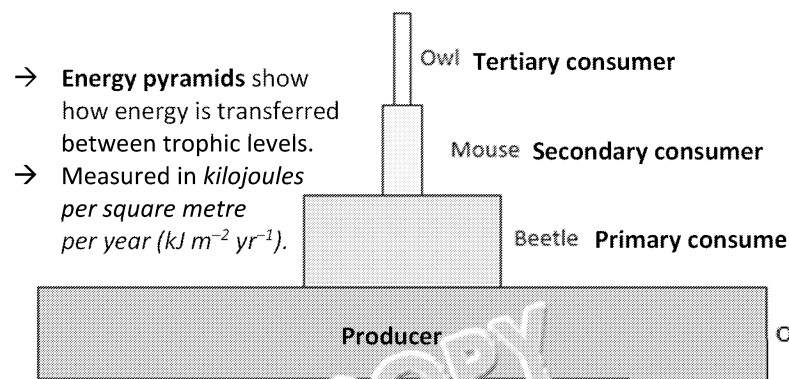
- Defined as...
- Measured...
- Gives an es...
- Tends to be...
- energy ava...
- Although to...
- per unit ma...

Photosynthesis and respiration

- You may have noticed that the processes of photosynthesis and aerobic respiration look similar.
- Both involve glucose, CO₂, O₂, H₂O and energy.
- Photosynthesis (in photoautotrophs) needs the CO₂ and H₂O from respiration.
- Respiration (in all autotrophs and heterotrophs) needs the O₂ and glucose from photosynthesis.
- We say that there is an **inter-relationship** between both processes, and autotrophs and heterotrophs depend on each other.

Trophic levels

- Show how many organisms energy in a food chain has passed through.
- Organisms in a food web could be part of more than one trophic level.



- **Energy pyramids** show how energy is transferred between trophic levels.
- Measured in **kilojoules per square metre per year (kJ m⁻² yr⁻¹)**.

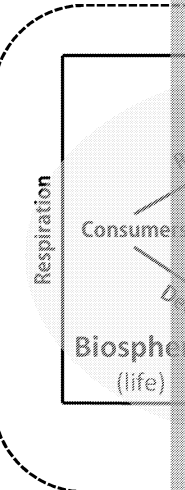
Reductions in energy

- Around 90 % of energy is lost at each trophic level, so levels decrease in size up an energy pyramid.
- A lot of energy is lost as **heat** as **cellular respiration** for movement (production of ATP) and maintaining body heat is not 100 % efficient.
- Not all individuals at a trophic level are consumed, and not all parts of organisms are eaten as food – instead they will **decay**.
- Some parts of organisms are **not digestible** or are not absorbed.

Fewer organisms / less **biomass** at higher trophic levels

Primary production

- **Production**...
- unit of time...
- **Primary p...** (producers or reprodu...)
- **Secondary** levels, whe...
- Because so other waste...
- **lower than**...



6CO₂ + 6H₂O
Inorganic ca...

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C1.1 Enzymes and metabolism

Enzymes and metabolism

1. Fill in the gaps.

Enzymes play an important role in **metabolism**, a term which encompasses all the chemical reactions in a living a) _____. It includes a diverse, interdependent collection of reactions, and as such, many **different** enzymes are needed.

- Enzymes are **proteins**, which are b) _____ folded to form a **specific** c) _____ **shape**. They are described as d) _____ proteins.
- Their complex shape includes an active site made of just a few e) _____.
- The shape of an enzyme's active site is specific to the g) _____ it works on, and it is the **interaction** between these h) _____ and the overall structure which creates the properties important for **catalysis**.

2. How do organisms maintain their internal body temperature?

HL

Types

7. Label each of the following as C (catabolic).

- Monomers → Polymers
- Releases energy
- Hydrolysis reactions
- e.g. protein synthesis and photosynthesis
- Condensation reactions
- Requires energy
- Macromolecules → Monomers
- e.g. digestion, breakdown of substrates in respiration

3. Give one example of an intracellular process and one example of an extracellular process.

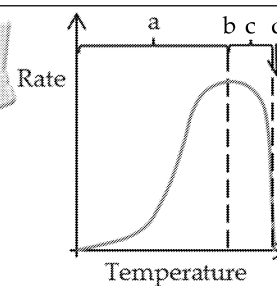
HL

Enzymes as catalysts

4. Draw a graph comparing activation energy of a reaction with and without an enzyme.

Temperature

As temperature increases during a, **kinetic energy** increases. There are more encounters between molecules (and more of them have enough energy to overcome the activation energy) so the rate of enzyme-substrate complexes increases.



8. What happens at b and c?

9. Suggest why saliva works better in the stomach.

5. Give two ways to increase the likelihood of collision of a substrate and active site.

Substrate concentration

As substrate concentration increases during a, more substrates collide with enzyme active sites by **collision theory**.

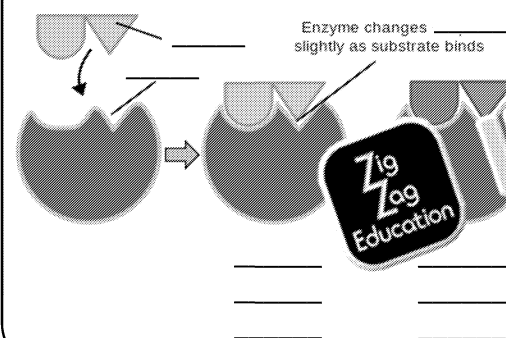
During b almost all the enzymes' active sites are occupied by substrate.

10. Explain why the rate of reaction is constant at c.

Effects of different concentrations of substrate on enzyme action

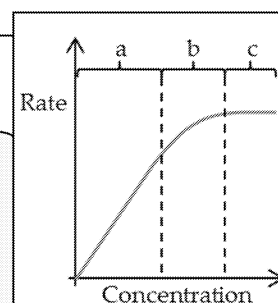
Mode of enzyme action

6. Label the induced-fit model of enzyme action.



Exam Tip!

The active site is **induced** to change by the substrate, but denaturing **disrupts** the shape.



Allosteric and competitive inhibition

11. Describe how a) allosteric inhibition works b) competitive inhibitors work

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C1.2 Cell respiration

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ATP and cell respiration

1. Write the a) word and b) symbol equations for aerobic respiration.
2. Give two uses of yeast in the food and drink industry.
3. Explain the reason for muscle pain after prolonged exercise, and compare how this process is different in plants and microorganisms.



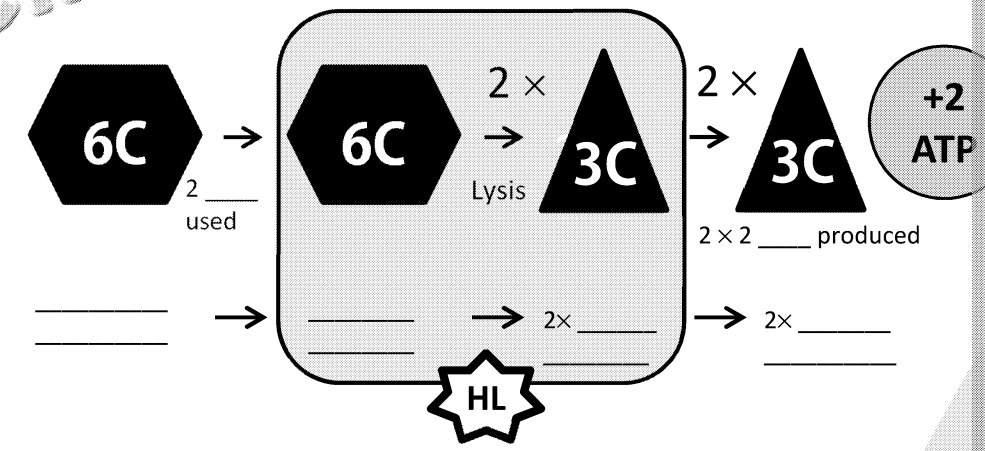
STAGE 1

Happens in the

O_2

Glycolysis

3. Complete the glycolysis schematic below. The parts in grey are additional HL only



Other substrates?

HL

4. Explain why sugars are often reduced in an attempt to lose weight.



Summary – anaerobic respiration

O_2

10. Which substrate is used in anaerobic respiration?
11. What does anaerobic mean?

ATP

5. a) Name the molecule produced when one phosphate is removed from ATP.
b) Which process reconnects phosphate ions?
c) Give one process in plants and one process in animals where ATP is formed.
6. Give four processes that make use of the hydrolysis of ATP.
7. Draw the structure of ATP.



STAGE 2

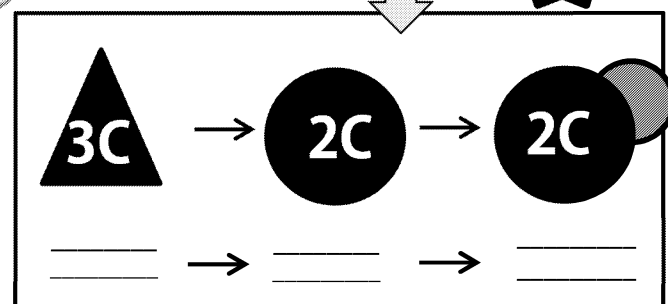
Happens in the

The link reaction

12. Is the link reaction part of aerobic or anaerobic respiration?

13. Complete the link reaction schematic below.

HL



NAD

14. Fill in the gaps.
NAD is a a)
enzymes in cell respiration carry out b)
c) reaction
• It is known as a d)
as it accepts a hydrogen (hence an electron) which is e)
• When it is f) during **oxidation**, it loses hydrogen / an electron
Remember that oxidation is g) of **oxy**
reduction can be h) of oxygen.

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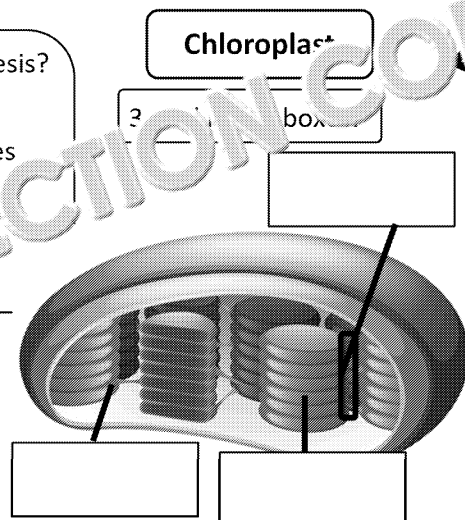
8. Fill in the four boxes to show the location of different stages of respiration.

C1.3 Photosynthesis

What is photosynthesis?

1. Where does the source of energy come from in photosynthesis?
2. Why is it biologically important that photosynthesis produces oxygen as a by-product?

4. Write the word and symbol equation for photosynthesis.



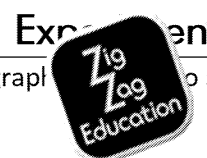
(B) Photolysis

9. What is the equation for photolysis?
10. Give one use of each of the products of photolysis.

Photosynthetic pigments

5. What do photosynthetic pigments do and where are they found?

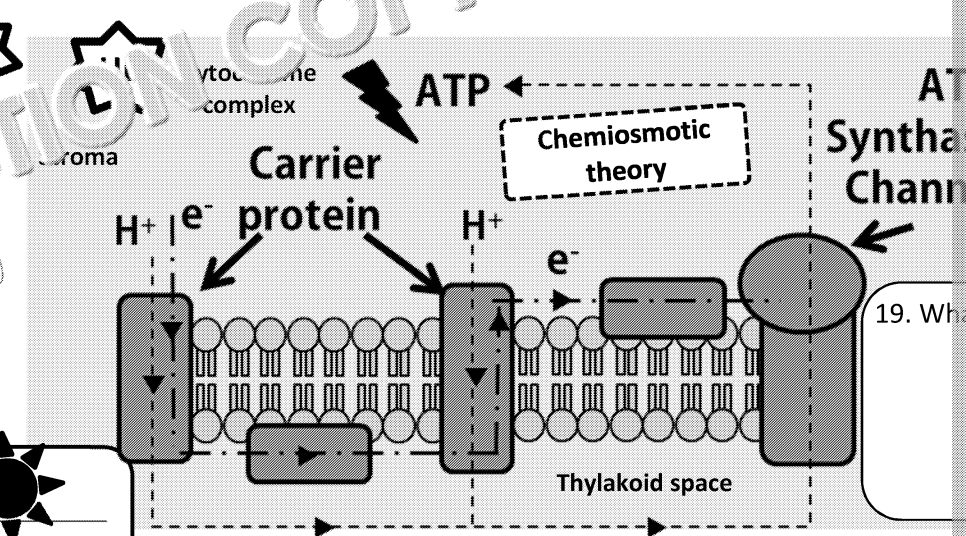
6. What are accessory pigments and what are their roles?



7. How can chromatography be used to study photosynthesis?

(C) Electron transport chain (photophosphorylation)

11. Describe the role of the electron transport chain in photosynthesis.



(A) Light-dependent reaction - overview

8. Fill in the gaps.
 - Stage of photosynthesis that relies on a) _____.
 - Light (**photons**) falling on pigments in b) _____ are transferred to chlorophyll *a* (P680).
 - During c) _____, electrons are excited and captured by electron acceptors in the reaction centre. d) _____ also occurs.
 - Electrons enter the e) _____ from electron acceptors.
 - **Chemiosmosis** produces f) _____ and re-_____.
 - Photons are absorbed by pigments in the light-receiving complex and transferred across accessory pigments to chlorophyll *a* (P700).
 - i) _____ electrons are captured by electron acceptors, passed to the electron transport chain and replaced by j) _____ electrons from photosystem II.
 - k) _____ helps move electrons between electron carriers, reducing NADP in the process.



Cyclic vs non cyclic photophosphorylation

12. Describe the difference between cyclic and non-cyclic photophosphorylation.

13. State the purpose of the light-receiving complex and the reaction centre of a photosystem.

21. Draw a line graph to show the level of GP over time on the graph.



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Cell signalling

1. How do the neural system and the hormonal system differ?

2. Give two other signalling chemicals.



3. Why are ligands specific to target cells?

Steroid hormones

4. Are steroid hormones hydrophobic or hydrophilic?

Oestradiol and Progesterone

5. Fill in the gaps.

→ Both are a) _____ hormones produced in the b) _____

→ Both have effects on gene expression by affecting c) _____

→ Oestradiol works on the d) _____, which controls secretion of gonadotropin-releasing hormone from the e) _____ gland, stimulating the ovaries to release f) _____ (and more oestradiol)

→ Progesterone works on cells in the g) _____ to thicken the uterus wall for pregnancy; production of h) _____ decreases so the uterine lining is shed



C2.1 Chemical signalling

– additional higher level only

Receptors

6. How do receptors work?

7. Describe the difference between intracellular and transmembrane receptors.

Quorum sensing

8. Briefly describe how quorum sensing works in *Vibrio fischeri*.

Feedback mechanisms

16. Explain why feedback mechanisms are essential in the human body.

(A) Chemical signalling

9. Briefly describe how receptors work.

10. What is a multipass protein?

(C)

13. Fill in the gaps.

Example: Tyrosine kinase

→ Single-pass protein with multiple phosphorylation domains

→ Works in pairs

- Two ligands (b) _____ domain
- Tyrosine (d) _____ phosphorylation
- Signal cascade
- Glucose transporter

Negative feedback

17. Describe the components of a negative feedback loop.

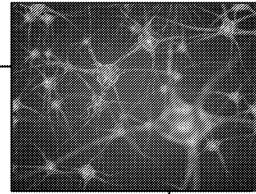
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C2.2 Neural signalling

1. What is a neuron?

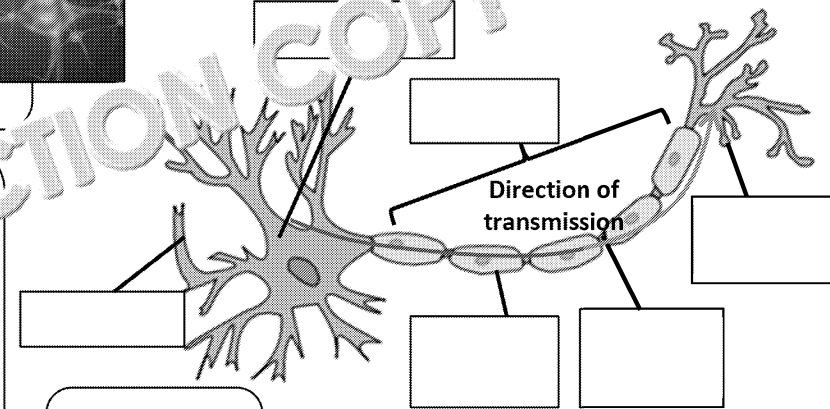


Consists of cytoplasm and nucleus

7. Give the impulse

Impulses

2. Explain, with a simple diagram, how the resting potential is maintained.



6. Label the diagram above.

Myelin and saltatory conduction

8. Define the following terms:

a) myelin sheath

b) nodes of Ranvier

c) action potential

Action potential



3. Fill in the gaps.

When triggered by receptors on the membrane, a small change in the

a) _____ of the neuron occurs. This must reach a

b) _____ potential.

Once reached, c) _____ are opened, allowing

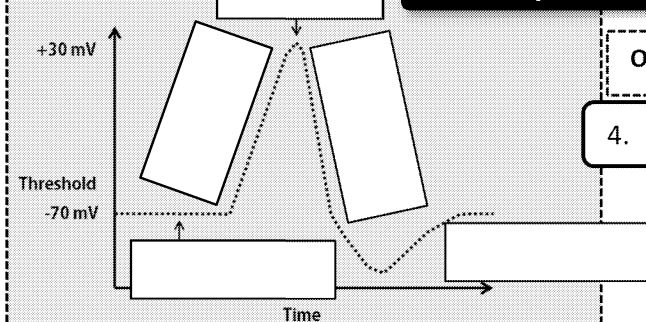
d) _____ to flood back into the cell. Rapidly, the inside of the cell becomes positively charged (+30mV).

A positively charged neuron is called an _____.

→ At peak g) _____ the h) _____ channels close.

→ i) _____ causes voltage-gated K^+ channels to open, allowing positively charged ions to exit the cell, restoring the neuron's charge.

Anatomy of an action potential



Oscilloscope trace

4. Label the graph.



Consciousness

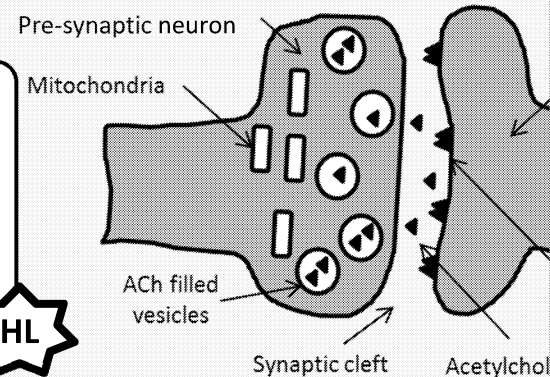


5. Fill in the gaps.

Consciousness **cannot** be explained by _____ (just looking at the interaction of b) _____ in the brain). It is an example of

c) _____, which suggests that the whole is greater than the

d) _____ of the parts.



Synapses

Neurons are not joined to each other – nor do they touch. A small (~20 nm) synaptic cleft exists between the synaptic terminals of one neuron and the dendrites of another. When a signal passes along a neuron, it reaches the end and releases **neurotransmitters**, such as acetylcholine (ACh).

9. How does an action potential cross a cholinergic synapse?

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C3.1 Integration of body systems

Communication systems

1. How do the nervous and endocrine systems differ?

2. Write the names of the cells and add arrows to show the communication.

Organisation in living organisms

The basic building blocks of organisms

Groups of similar cells

Groups of organs working together to form organisms

Groups of different tissues performing a function

3. What are emergent properties?

Neurons

4. Fill in the names of each neuron type below.

- - carries impulse from receptor to CNS
- - connect neurons together
- - carry impulse from cerebral hemispheres of the brain to effectors (neuromuscular junctions or motor end plates)

5. Complete the table below.

Receptor	Stimulus
Mechanoreceptor	
Chemoreceptor	
Photoreceptor	
Thermoreceptor	
Nociceptor	

The mammalian nervous system

6. a) What are the components of the CNS?
- b) What are the two divisions of the PNS?
- c) Name the part of the nervous system under voluntary control.

Reflex arcs

9. True or false? Correct each false statement.
- a) Reflex arcs help an organism to move away from danger.
- b) A simple reflex arc contains just a sensory neuron.
- c) The brain is always involved in a typical reflex arc.

The endocrine system

13. Fill in the gaps.
- Glands that release hormones are called **endocrine glands**.
- The **hypothalamus** in the brain can stimulate or inhibit these in response to changes, including from the **pituitary gland**.
- The **pituitary gland** secretes hormones involved in many homeostatic processes, e.g. **osmoregulation**.

Sleep patterns

14. Sketch a graph to show how melatonin levels change throughout the day, and annotate it to explain how this regulates sleep.

Control of heart and ventilation rate

15. Where are baroreceptors found and how do they control heart rate?
16. Following running 100 m at high speed, the heart rate and ventilation rate are significantly increased. Explain how the endocrine system brings about this change.

Epinephrine (adrenaline)

17. State five effects of the hormone epinephrine.

18. a) What is a tropic hormone?
- b) Name one example of a tropic hormone.

Phytohormones

19. Complete the table below, including where they are produced and how they are transported.

Hormone	Where produced	How transported
Auxin		
Cytokinin		
Ethylene (also called ethene)		

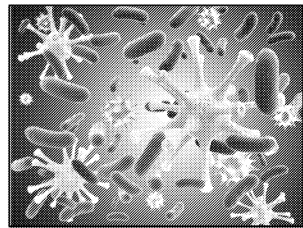
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C3.2 Defence against disease

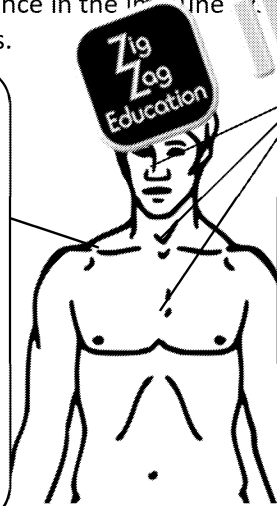
1. What are pathogens?



Primary defences

The first line of defence in the immune system consists of non-specific barriers.

2. State two functions of the skin as a primary defence.



3. State two functions of the nose, trachea and bronchi as primary defences.

Blood clotting

4. Fill in the gaps.

Blood clotting at cuts forms a) _____ to prevent entry of microorganisms.

- Damaged blood vessels release chemicals which b) _____ to form a clot.
- Clotting factors** are released starting a cascade pathway:
 - c) _____ → **thrombin**, an enzyme
 - Thrombin catalyses conversion of d) _____ to **fibrin**
 - Fibrin forms a mesh, and cells e) _____ are trapped to stabilise the clot

5. Compare the innate and adaptive immune systems.

Response order

6. Compare the primary and secondary responses of the immune system.

1 Antigen

7. What are antigens?

8. Which two cell types absorb and display antigens to stimulate further immune responses?

9. Explain why someone of blood type A should not receive a transfusion of blood type B.

Blood types

10. Complete the table to show the four blood types.

		A protein	
B protein		✓	x
		x	

2 Phagocytosis

11. Explain the process of phagocytosis.

HIV and AIDS

13. Give three ways that HIV can be transmitted.

14. What is AIDS and why is it dangerous for HIV-positive individuals?

Antibiotics and resistance

15. Explain why antibiotics are ineffective against HIV.

16. a) How do antibiotic-resistant strains of bacteria develop?

b) Give two ways we can limit the spread of these strains.

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What is an ecosystem?

1. Define the following terms:

- a) population
- b) community
- c) ecosystem



Random sampling

2. a) Give two reasons why sampling may be used to estimate the size of a population.

b) Explain the difference between random sampling and systematic sampling.

Quadrats

3. Describe how you could use quadrats to estimate the population size of plants in a field.



Capture-mark-release-recapture

4. On Friday morning, 60 beetles were caught, marked and released. On Saturday morning, 80 beetles were caught, and 32 of them bore a mark from Friday. Use the Lincoln index to estimate the total population size of beetles in the area.

5. State four assumptions of the capture-mark-release-recapture method.

Lincoln index

total population size = $\frac{\text{number of individuals marked in first capture} \times \text{total number of recaptured individuals}}{\text{number of marked recaptured individuals}}$
i.e. total population = $M \times N/R$



C4.1 Populations and communities

6. a) Why does the population fluctuate around the dashed line?

- b) Label 1–5 and X on the sigmoid growth curve.
- c) Explain the overall shape of the curve.

Limiting factors

7. List four limiting factors which could affect a plant population.

Relationships between individuals

Competition

9. Describe the difference between interspecific and intraspecific competition.

10. Give two examples of cooperation seen in animals of the same species.

Other interspecific relationships

12. Fill in the gaps.

Predation: a) _____ (e.g. lions) eat b) _____ (e.g. gazelles).

c) _____ eat animals which have recently died.

Parasitism: Parasites live on or in a d) _____ for food and as part of their life cycle (e.g. to reproduce). The parasite may cause e) _____ as part of the interaction (e.g. ticks feed on other animals' blood).

f) _____ are pathogens which spread infections among other organisms. The fungus *H. fraxine* causes ash dieback in ash trees.

g) _____ → Some animals feed on plants, damaging or killing them (e.g. grasshoppers eat cereals).

Mutualism: A form of h) _____ cooperation, where two species both benefit.

13. Give one example of a mutualistic relationship, stating how each organism benefits.

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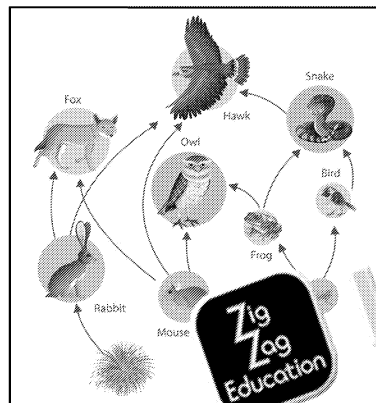
Energy transfer and systems theory

1. Explain whether an ecosystem is an example of a closed or an open system.
2. Fill in the gaps.
 - **Law of conservation of mass:** a) _____ created or b) _____
 - **Laws of thermodynamics** _____ through a system and can be d) _____ from one form to another, but not e) _____ destroyed



Food chains

3. What do arrows represent in food chains?
4. Label the elements of the food web with all the letters which apply to them: A) Autotroph, B) Consumer, C) Heterotroph, D) Producer



5. Give an example of one food chain with four organisms from this food web.
6. Fill in the gaps.

Heterotrophs digest a) _____ (proteins, lipids, DNA/RNA) into b) _____ (amino acids, fatty acids, nucleic acids), and use these to build their own polymers via c) _____.

Decomposers

7. Why are decomposers important in ecosystems?
8. Describe the difference between a saprotroph and a detritivore.



C4.2 Transfers of energy and matter

Energy transfers

9. a) How do photoautotrophs and chemoautotrophs differ?
b) Give one example of each.

13. Fill in the gaps.
 - Defined as _____
 - Measured as _____
 - Gives an indication of _____
 - Tends to increase as more organisms are added
 - Although _____

Primary production

14. What are the units used to measure primary production?
15. a) Define gross primary production (GPP).
b) Explain the difference between GPP and net primary production (NPP).

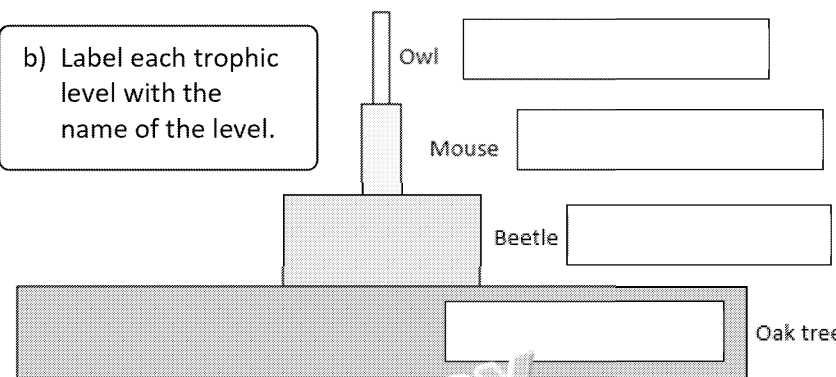
Photosynthesis and respiration

10. Explain how photosynthesis and respiration are interrelated.

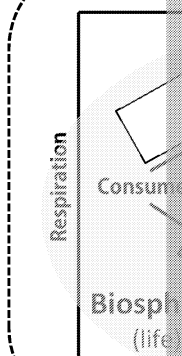
Trophic levels

The energy pyramid below has four trophic levels. Which units are used?

- b) Label each trophic level with the name of the level.



17. Label the process shown in the diagram.



19. Give the equation for photosynthesis.

Losses in energy

22. a) Approximately what percentage of energy is lost at each trophic level?
b) Give three reasons for these energy losses.

- 22.a) Sketch a diagram showing the flow of energy through an ecosystem.

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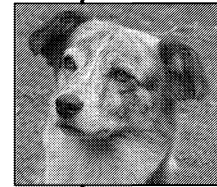


C1.1 Enzymes and metabolism

Enzymes and metabolism

Metabolic reactions are
inefficient

HL



Type

Enzymes as catalysts

Intracellular –
Extracellular –

HL

Temperature

Collisions

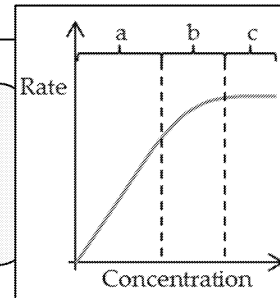
Substrate concentration

Effects of different conditions
on enzyme activity

Mode of enzyme action

Allosteric and
competitive inhibition

Exam Tip!
The active site is
induced to change by
the substrate, but
denaturing **disrupts**
the shape.



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Zig
Zag
Education

C1.2 Cell respiration

STAGE 1

Happens in the cytoplasm

O_2

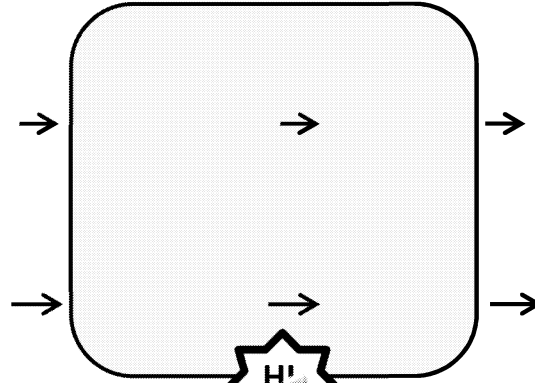
Glycolysis

Overall equation:

Intermediate steps:

HL

HL



H^+

Other substrates?

HL

Summary of anaerobic respiration

O_2

Reduced NAD cannot be oxidised without oxygen...

HL

STAGE 2

The link reaction

O_2

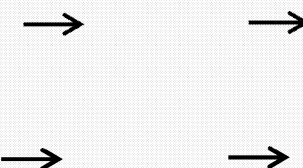
Happens in the matrix

Pyruvate enters matrix...

HL

HL

NAD



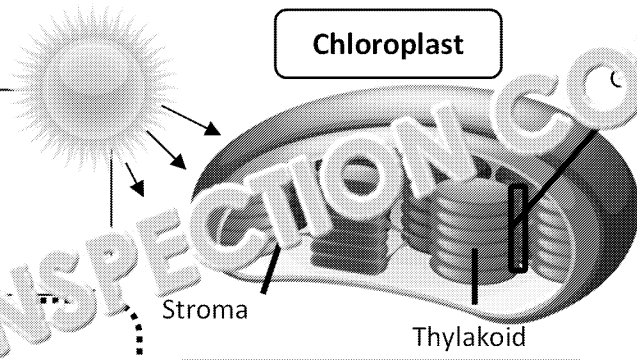
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C1.3 Photosynthesis

What is photosynthesis?



Chloroplast

→

HL

(B) Photolysis

Steps of photosynthesis:

HL

Photosynthetic pigments

(C) Electron transport chain (photophosphorylation)

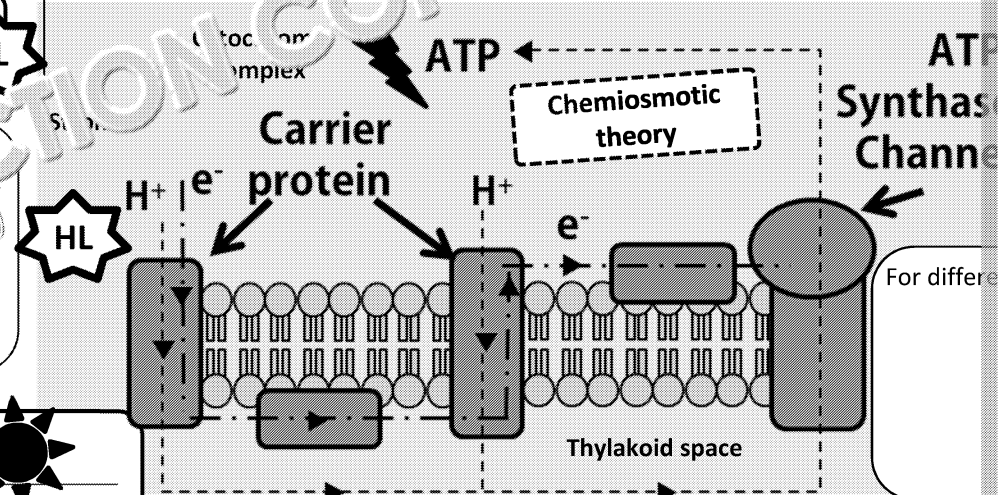
HL

Experiment

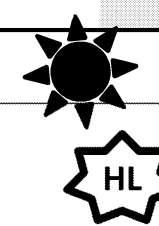
Pigments from leaves can be separated by chromatography



HL



(A) Light-dependent reaction - overview



Cyclic vs non-cyclic photophosphorylation

Photosystems

Light effects



HL

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Cell signalling

Neurotransmitters
in neurons

Hormones



Cytokines

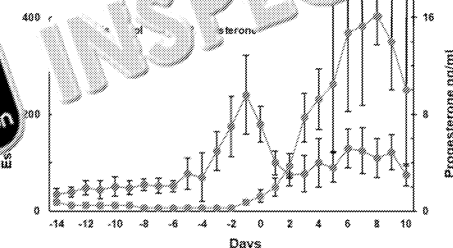
Calcium ions

→ There are many different **target** cells in the body

Steroid hormones



Oestradiol and progesterone



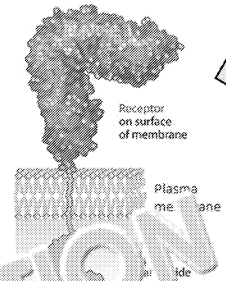
C2.1 Chemical signalling

— additional higher level only

Receptors

Intracellular receptors

Transmembrane receptors



Quorum sensing

Example

feedback

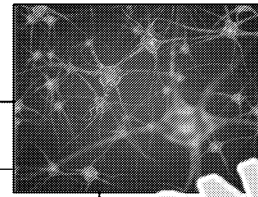
Negative

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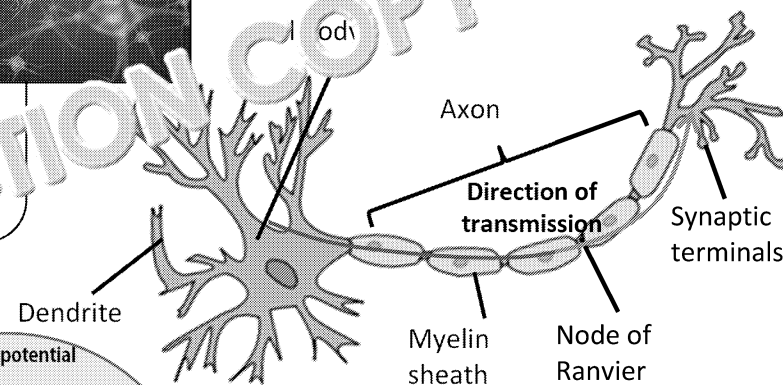


C2.2 Neural signalling

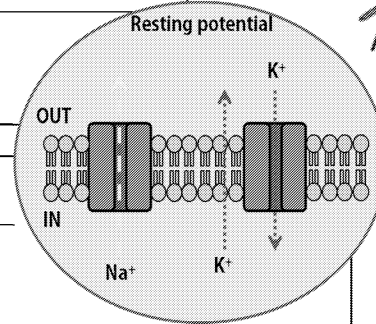
What is a neuron?



Consists of cell body and nucleus



Sodium-potassium pumps

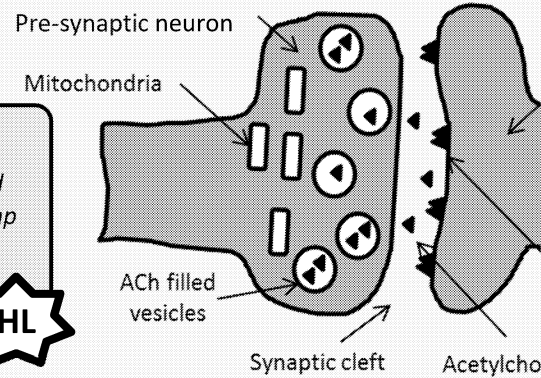


Myelin and saltatory conduction

Action potential



Exam tip – 'Saltatory'
comes from the Latin word 'saltare', which means jump – just like the action potential in this kind of conduction.



Synapses



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C3.1 Integration of body systems

Communication systems

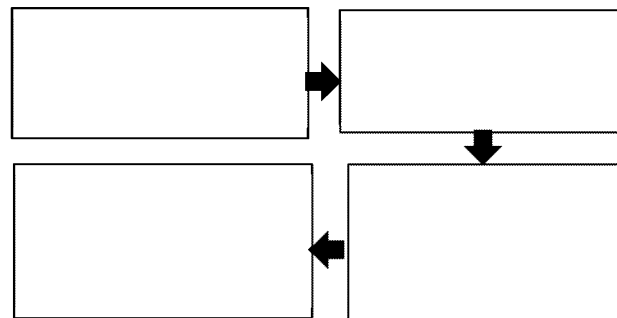


Neurons

The mammalian nervous system



Organisation in living organisms



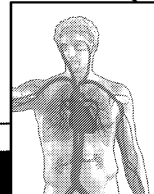
Receptor types

Receptor	Stimulus

Reflex arcs

Emergent properties

Transport mechanisms



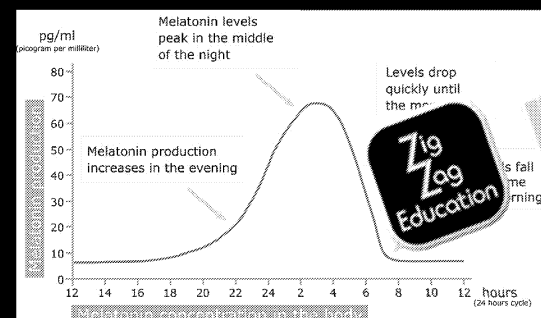
The endocrine system



Control of heart and ventilation rate

Practical

Sleep patterns



Epinephrine (adrenaline)

Phytohormones

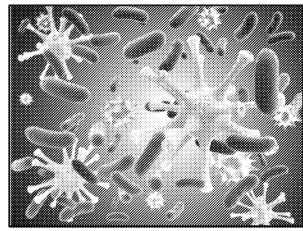
Hormone	

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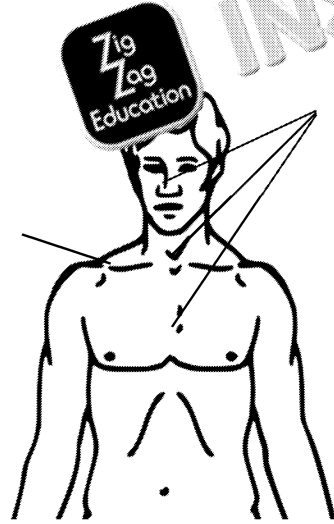
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What are pathogens?



Primary defences



Blood clotting

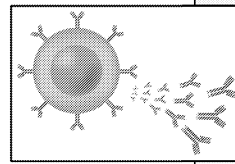
Innate immune system

Adaptive immune system

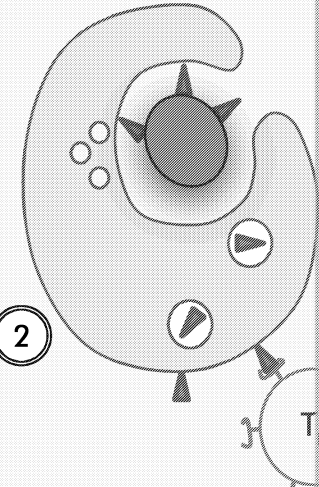
Response order

C3.2 Defence against disease

1 Antigen



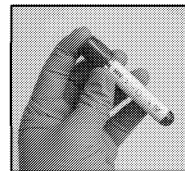
2



Blood types

Phagocytosis

HIV and AIDS



Antibiotics and resistance

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C4.1 Populations and communities

What is an ecosystem?



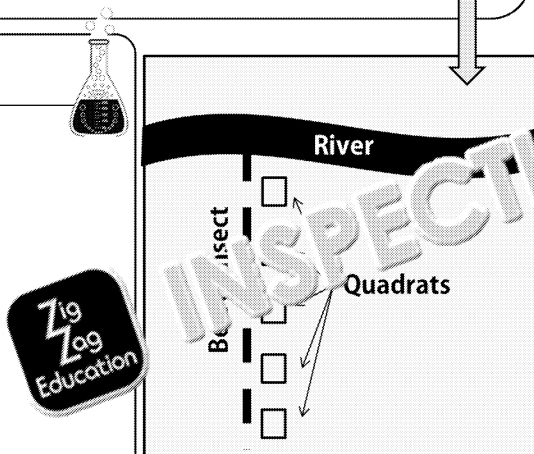
Random sampling

Carrying capacity (K)

Limiting factors

- Negative feedback of density-dependent factors
- Density-independent factors

Quadrats

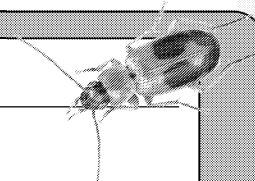


Competition

Endemic species

Other interspecific relationships

Capture-mark-release-recapture



Lincoln index:

Assumes that:

Example 1

Example 2

Example 3

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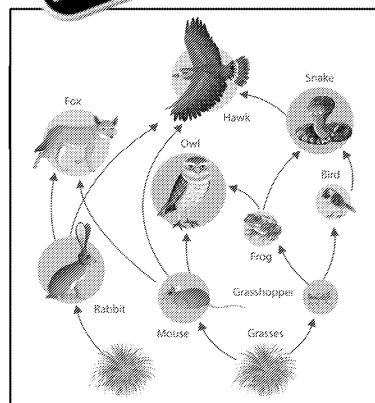
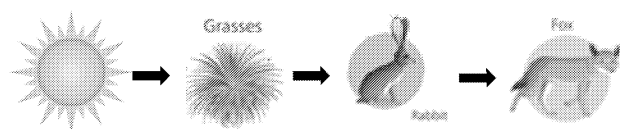


C4.2 Transfers of energy and r

Energy transfer and systems theory



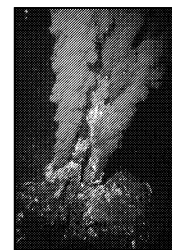
Food chains



Decomposers

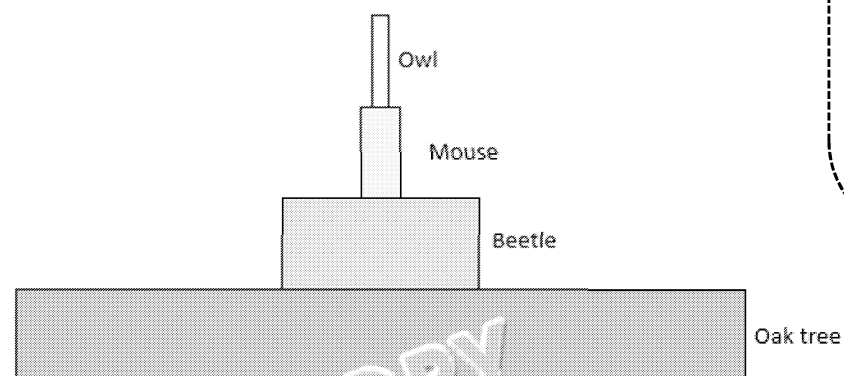


Energy sources



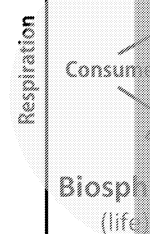
Photosynthesis and respiration

Trophic levels



Reductions in energy

Pr



Ph

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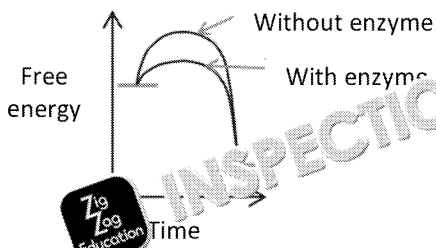


IB Topic on a Page, Theme C: Mark

C1.1 Enzymes and metabolism

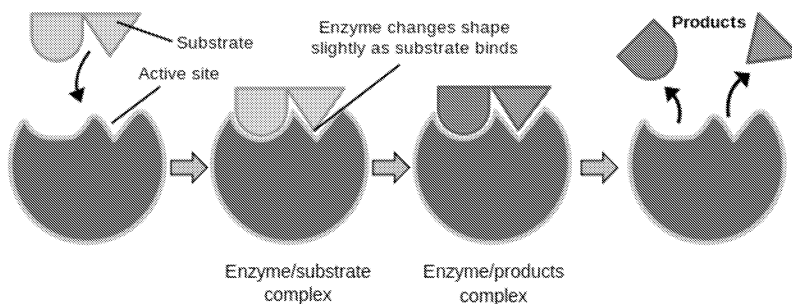
1. organism, amino acids, 3D, globular, amino acids, active site, substrate, amino acid
2. (HL) They use heat produced from metabolic reactions, which are inefficient.
3. (HL) Intracellular: Any correct example, e.g. glycolysis / Krebs cycle
Extracellular: Any correct example, e.g. chemical digestion in the gut

- 4.



5. Immobilise large substrate molecules/enzymes
Embed enzymes in membranes to fix the orientation of the active site

- 6.



7. Monomer → macromolecules (A)
Releases energy (C)
Hydrolysis reactions (C)
e.g. protein synthesis, glycogen formation and photosynthesis (A)
Condensation reactions (A)
Requires energy (C)
Macromolecules → monomers (C)
e.g. protein synthesis, oxidation of substrates in respiration (C)
8. b is the optimum temperature, where the rate of enzyme-substrate complex formation is maximum.
During phase c enzymes denature; heat energy causes the active site to change shape.
9. An enzyme found in saliva would have an optimum pH which is close to neutral, so in the stomach would cause it to become denatured, changing the shape of the active site.
10. During c, the addition of more substrate has no effect on the rate, as all the available active sites are occupied, so the rate of reaction cannot increase.
11. a) (HL) Allosteric inhibitors are non-competitive and they bind to an allosteric site, not the active site. This alters the structure of the enzyme and the shape of the active site.
b) (HL) Competitive inhibitors bind directly to an enzyme's active site and block the substrate (they have a similar shape to the substrate).
12. a) (HL) Any correct example of a linear metabolic pathway, e.g. glycolysis
b) (HL) Any correct example of a cyclical metabolic pathway, e.g. Krebs cycle / Citric Acid Cycle
13. 1. Place test tubes of **starch solutions** in a water bath at 37 °C.
2. Add a **buffer** with a different pH value to each test tube of starch solution.
3. Set up **spotting tiles** with drops of iodine in rows.
4. Add **amylase** into one of the test tubes and start the **stopwatch**.
5. Every 20 seconds, use a **pipette** to **take a sample** from the test tube and add it to a drop of iodine on a spotting tile.
6. If the reaction has taken place, **iodine** will turn from yellow-red to blue-black.
7. Repeat steps 5 and 6 for each of the test tubes. Record the time it takes for the reaction to stop.
14. (HL) Any correct example of a product of an enzyme-driven metabolic pathway inhibits the action of the enzyme, stopping much product being produced. The inhibition is reversible, so when the concentration of the product decreases, the other enzyme starts to bind to its substrate again.
15. (HL) irreversibly, antibiotic, transpeptidase, reproduce, resistance, transpeptidase

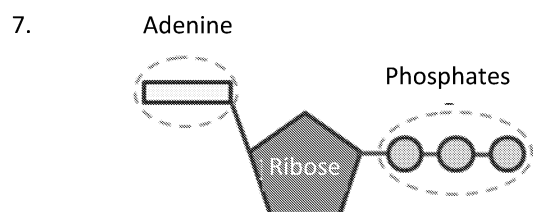
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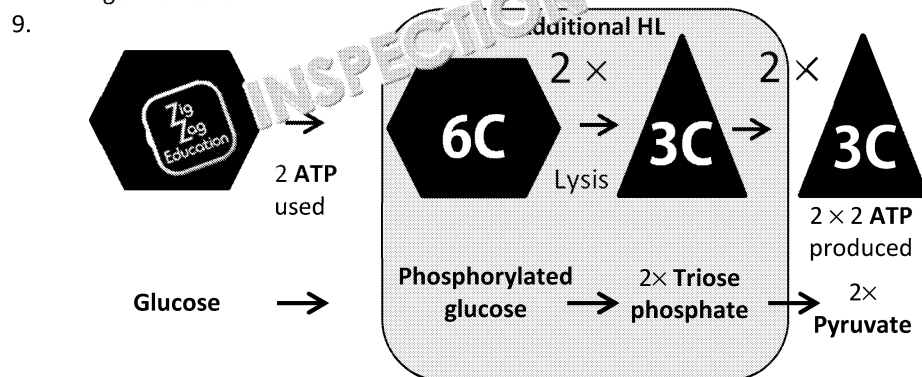


C1.2 Cell respiration

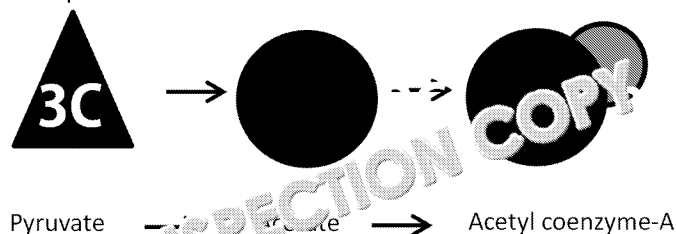
- glucose + oxygen → carbon dioxide + water
 - $C_6H_{12}O_6 + 6O_2 \rightarrow 6CO_2 + 6H_2O$
- (HL) Any two correct examples using yeast, e.g.
 - brewing
 - baking
- Excessive exercise produces lactic acid because of anaerobic respiration. Lactic acid is produced in plants and microorganisms, anaerobic respiration produces ethanol and CO_2 .
- (HL) If there are no carbohydrates, the body looks for another fuel source. Fat stores lipids are respired instead of glucose. Fat is used for energy, and is, therefore, removed.
- Adenosine diphosphate / ADP
 - Condensation
 - Phosphorylation / any correct example, e.g. photophosphorylation / photosynthesis
 Any correct example, e.g. oxidative phosphorylation / respiration
- Any four correct examples, e.g.
 - Active transport
 - Metabolic processes / anabolism
 - Cell movement
 - Movement of cell components (e.g. chromosomes)



- Stage 1: cytoplasm
 Stage 2: matrix
 Stage 3: matrix
 Stage 4: cristae



- Glucose
- Without oxygen
- Aerobic respiration
- (HL)

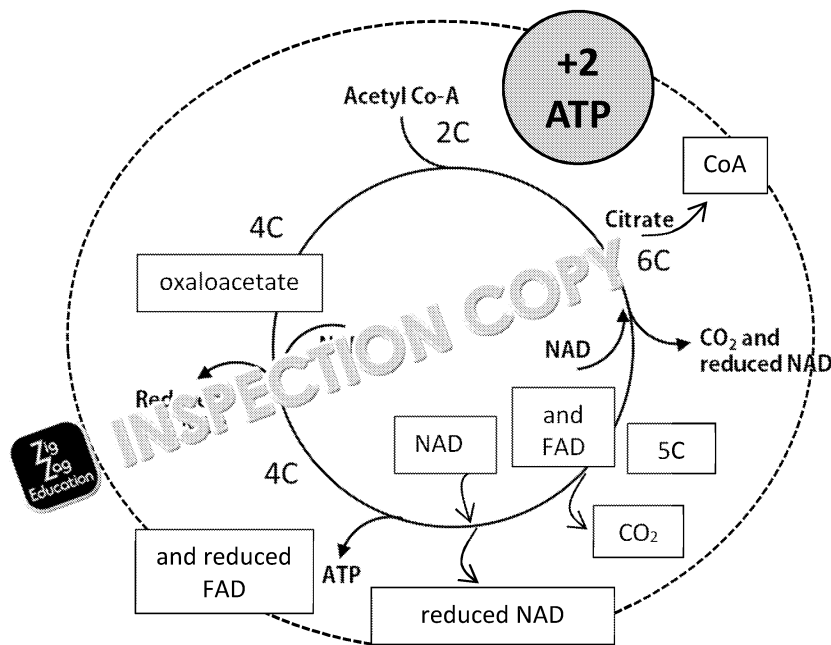


- (HL) co-oxidation, reduction, hydrogen carrier, reduced, dehydrogenated, gas
- CO_2 / carbon dioxide

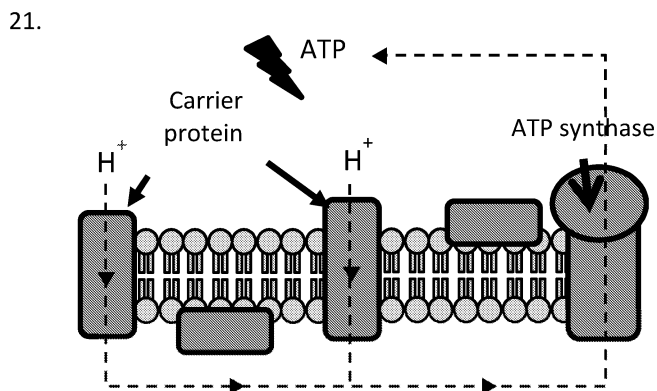
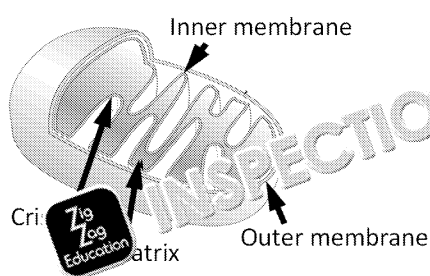
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16.
17. (HL)



18. Respirometer
19. Any four correct reasons, e.g.
 - Temperature moves away from the optimum
 - CO₂ concentration increases
 - O₂ concentration decrease / anaerobic respiration starts
 - Glucose concentration decreases
20. high-energy electrons, energy, active transport, protons / proton gradient, ATP synthase
21.

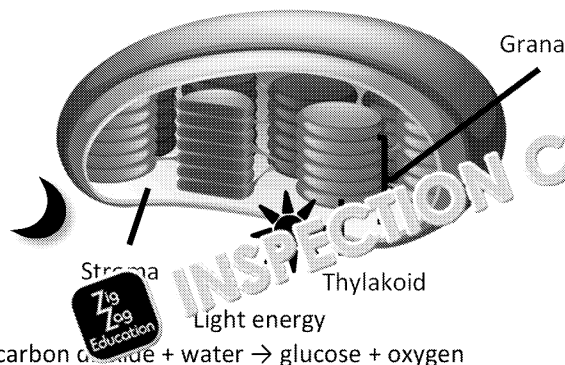


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C1.3 Photosynthesis

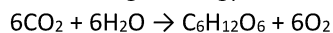
1. Sunlight
2. It is needed for respiration in most organisms.
- 3.



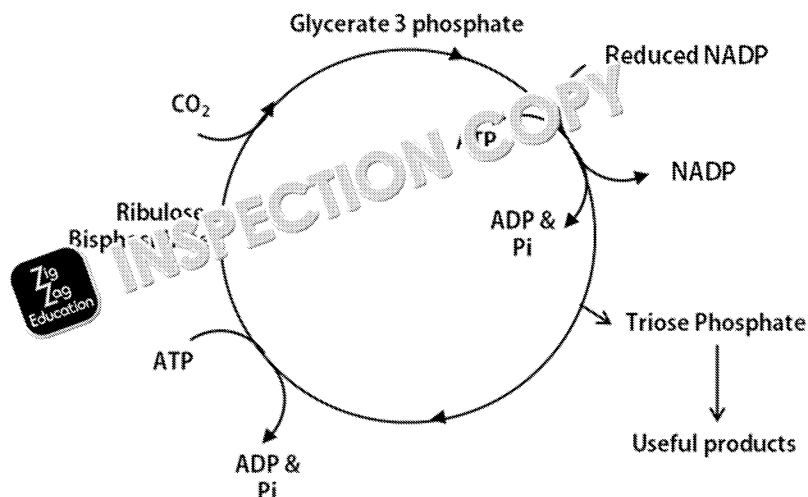
4. Light energy

carbon dioxide + water → glucose + oxygen

Light energy



5. Photosynthetic pigments absorb light at specific wavelengths and reflect the rest. They excite electrons to higher energy levels in order to form chemical bonds. They are found in the membranes of chloroplasts.
6. **(HL)** Accessory pigments increase the rate of photosynthesis as they increase the amount of light that can be absorbed.
7. Pigments from leaves can be separated by chromatography in order to identify which wavelengths of light are absorbed.
8. **(HL)** sunlight/light, photosystem II/P680, photoionisation, photolysis, electron transport chain, photosystem I/P700, high-energy, low-energy, NADP reductase
9. **(HL)** $2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow 4\text{H}^+ + 4\text{e}^- + \text{O}_2$
10. **(HL)** Hydrogen/protons: photophosphorylation
Electrons: Replace those lost from chlorophyll during photoionisation
Oxygen: Respiration
11. **(HL)** Electrons are passed along the electron transport chain, releasing a small amount of energy each time. This energy is used to pump protons from the stroma across the thylakoid membrane, forming a proton gradient. Protons then flow down the gradient through ATP synthase, which produces ATP.
12. **(HL)** Cyclic photophosphorylation only occurs if light is not limiting and reduced NADP is not available. Electrons from photosystem I, and only ATP is produced (not oxygen or reduced NADP). Non-cyclic photophosphorylation can happen in light or dark conditions. The electrons from photosystem II are passed to photosystem I. They are used to reduce one NADP molecule.
13. **(HL)** The light-receiving complex is a collection of chlorophyll and accessory pigments. The reaction centre contains chlorophyll and releases electrons into the electron transport chain.
14. **(HL)** In the light-independent reaction / Calvin cycle, Rubisco catalyses the reaction of carbon dioxide with ribulose biphosphate to form molecules of GP. The GP is then reduced to TP using reduced NADP and ATP.
15. **(HL)** Catalyses **inorganic → organic** / **organic → inorganic** carbon
Relatively **fast** / **slow** to work
Not effective in **low** / **high** CO_2
Needs **low** / **high** concentrations
16. **(HL)**



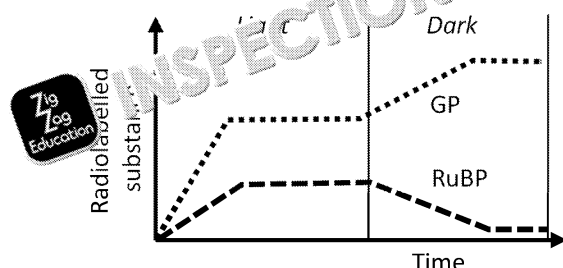
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17. (HL) 5/6
18. Any two correct methods to measure rate of photosynthesis, e.g. counting oxygen bubbles
19. Absorption spectra show the amount of light being absorbed, whereas action spectra show the rate of photosynthesis for different pigments/wavelengths of light.
20. Any three correct limiting factors, e.g.
 - Light intensity
 - CO₂ concentration
 - Temperature
 - Water availability

21. (HL)



22. Free-air carbon dioxide enrichment
23. b

C2.1 Chemical signalling (HL only)

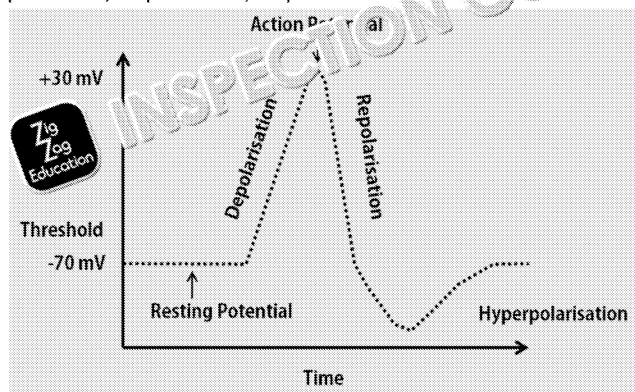
1. The neural system acts on neighbouring cells and is for rapid, short-lived responses, while hormones act on distant cells and generally act more slowly and for a longer period.
2. Cytokines and calcium ions
3. Ligands need to have a complementary shape to their target cells, which come in many shapes and sizes.
4. Hydrophobic
5. steroid, ovaries, transcription, hypothalamus, pituitary, uterus, endometrium, progesterone
6. A receptor is a protein structure that can detect a change in a condition via the binding of a ligand. When a ligand binds, the receptor changes shape, setting off a signal transduction pathway.
7. Intracellular receptors are found inside cells and bind hydrophilic ligands which can cross the cell membrane. Transmembrane receptors span the whole plasma membrane and have a hydrophilic domain outside the cell where hydrophobic ligands bind.
8. When there are more bacteria present in an area, more autoinducers are produced. When a threshold is reached, the autoinducers re-enter the bacterial cells and bind to a specific DNA sequence called a DNA lux box, which is activated and produces luciferase, a luminescent protein.
9. Acetylcholine ligands bind to receptors and cause ion channels to open. Positive sodium ions enter the cell through the channel, which changes the voltage of the cell membrane, causing an effect in the cell.
10. Multi-pass proteins have several domains passing through a single membrane.
11. G protein-coupled receptor
12. a) G protein
b) Ligands
13. transmembrane, insulin, extracellular, intracellular, kinase, phosphorylations, blood glucose
14. Adrenal glands
15.
 1. Epinephrine binds to GPCR
 2. G protein activated
 3. Adenyl cyclase enzyme activated
 4. ATP converted to cyclic AMP (cAMP)
 5. cAMP binds to protein kinase A (PKA) activating it
 6. Phosphorylase kinase activated
 7. Glycogen phosphorylase activated
 8. Glycogen converted to glucose
16. They act as a switch to control whether to stop a signal pathway in response to a stimulus.
17. Any correct example of negative feedback, e.g. a reduction in water content causes the release of ADH, which means less urine is produced and more water is conserved.
18. Any correct example of negative feedback, e.g. when the skin is cut, clotting factors are released, which releases more clotting factors.

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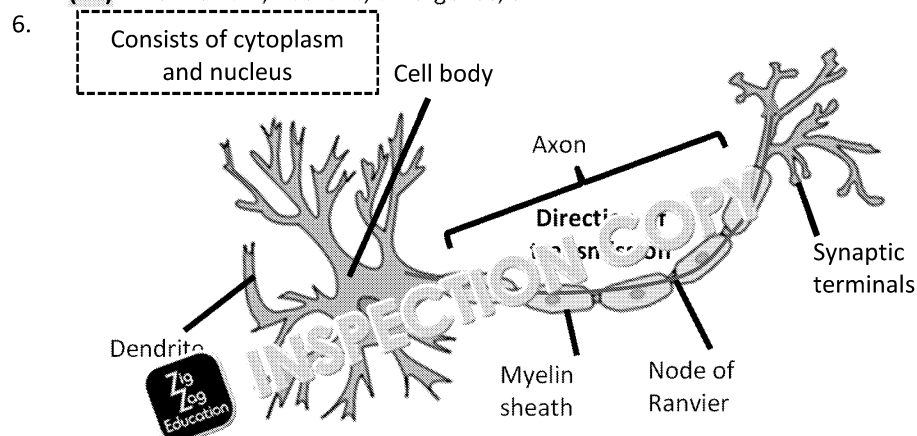


C2.2 Neural signalling

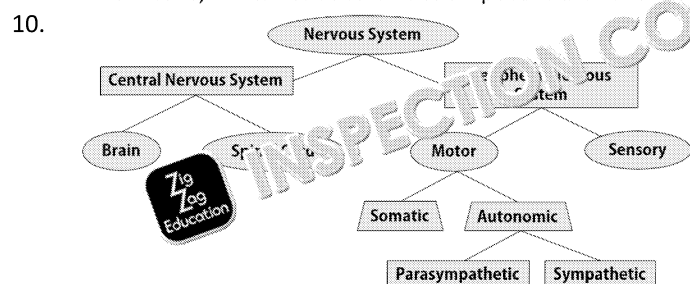
1. A neuron is part of the nervous system which carries impulses / action potentials across other neurons.
2. Sodium is pumped out, and potassium is pumped in in a 3 : 2 ratio through an active process. The plasma membrane is permeable to potassium and allows it to leak out, so more positive ions leave than are brought into the cell. The inside is therefore negatively charged, relative to outside, and this is the resting potential.
3. (HL) polarity, threshold, voltage-gated Na^+ channels. Membrane potential, action potential, depolarised, depolarisation, repolarisation, hyperpolarisation (HL)



5. (HL) reductionism, neurons, emergence, sum



7. Any three correct factors, e.g.
 - Axon thickness
 - Myelination
 - Temperature
8.
 - a) Fatty layer that wraps around axons to increase the speed of the impulse
 - b) Spaces on myelin sheath where an action potential can form
 - c) A peak of depolarisation within a neuron
 - d) (HL) Jumping of action potential across an insulated axon
9. An action potential reaches the synaptic knob, and Ca^{2+} causes binding of vesicles to the knob. The neurotransmitter (acetylcholine) is released into the cleft. The post-synaptic membrane has receptors for the neurotransmitter, and sodium channels open when the neurotransmitter binds to the receptors, which leads to an action potential in the next neuron.



11. A neuromuscular junction links a neuron and a muscle fibre, whereas an ordinary synapse links two neurons.
12. (HL) outside, endogenous, neonicotinoid, ACh, cocaine, dopamine, dopamine, tolerance

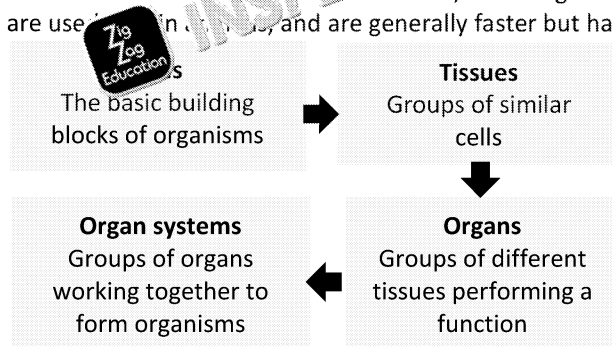
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13. (HL) The capsaicin is detected by nociceptors and causes ion channels to open. An inf potential to be reached, and an action potential is generated, which travels to the bra
14. a) (HL) Any correct example of an excitatory neurotransmitter, e.g. acetylcholine
b) (HL) Any correct example of an inhibitory neurotransmitter, e.g. GABA
15. (HL) The all-or-nothing principle states that a single synapse acting on a neuron might threshold, in which case, nothing happens.
16. a) (HL) An impulse which does not travel further, because it causes local hyperpolarisation
b) (HL) An impulse which continues to travel, because it causes local depolarisation

C3.1 Integration of body systems

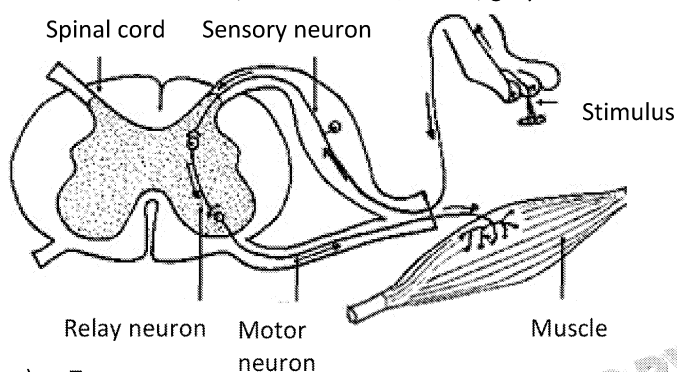
1. Hormones are used in plants and animals, and are generally slow to take effect but have long-lived effects.
2. Enzymes are used in animals, and are generally faster but have more short-lived effects.



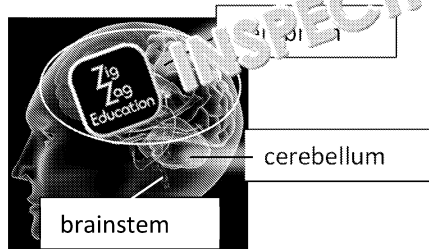
3. When the sum of the parts (e.g. cells, tissues, organs and organ systems) creates new properties, they are integrated.
4. sensory neurons, relay neurons / interneurons, motor neurons
- 5.

Receptor	Stimulus
Mechanoreceptor	Pressure
Chemoreceptor	Chemicals
Photoreceptor	Light
Thermoreceptor	Temperature
Nociceptor	Pain

6. a) Brain
b) Motor system, sensory system
c) Somatic nervous system
7. unconscious reflexes, white matter / axons, grey matter
8. Spinal cord



9. a) True
b) False. A relay neuron links the sensory and motor neurons.
c) False. The brain is never involved in a reflex arc.
- 10.

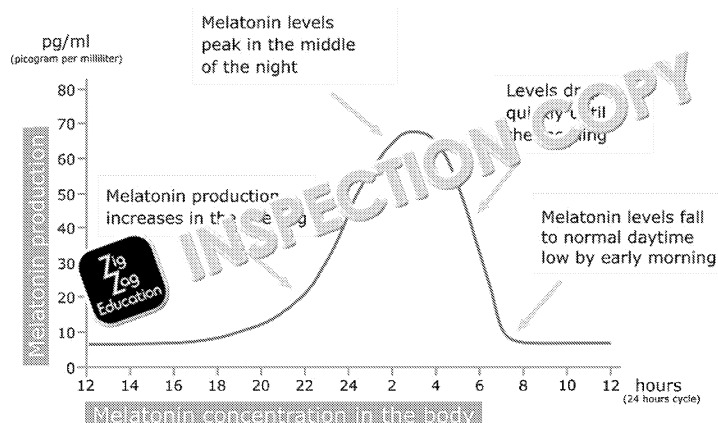


Structure	Function
Cerebrum	Higher functions, Motor control
Cerebellum	Balance and coordination, 'Muscle memory'
Brainstem / medulla oblongata	Control of breathing, Heart rate, Blood pressure

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11. Coordination of neurons in the ENS allows contraction of muscles behind a round muscle canal and relaxation of muscles in front of the bolus to move it along smoothly.
12. Cells must be supplied with nutrients and waste products removed, as multicellular organisms cannot rely on simple diffusion.
13. blood, endocrine, hypothalamus, nervous, pituitary gland
- 14.



Higher levels of melatonin induce sleepiness.

15. Baroreceptors are found in the aorta and carotid arteries. Changes in blood pressure stretch artery walls, which changes the frequency of action potentials sent to the medulla, where sinoatrial node change heart rate and stroke volume.
16. During intense exercise, more respiration takes place than normal, leading to less oxygen in the blood. This lowers the blood pH as carbonic acid forms, and this change is detected by chemoreceptors in capillaries near the baroreceptors and in the brainstem. More action potentials are sent to the sinoatrial node increase the heart rate and stroke volume, as well as ventilation and increasing via the increased action of the diaphragm and intercostal muscles.
17. Any five from:
 - Increased ventilation
 - Increased heart rate
 - Increased blood pressure
 - Increase blood supply to muscles
 - Pupil dilation
 - Glucose release from glycogen
 - Increased mental awareness
18. a) **(HL)** A growth or turning response to an external stimulus.
b) **(HL)** Any correct example, e.g. phototropism (positive response to light) or gravitropism (negative result of gravity).
19. **(HL)**

Hormone	Functions
Auxin	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Causes cell elongation • Produced in shoot tips and sent to roots via phloem
Cytokinin	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Causes cell division • Produced in root tips and sent to shoots via xylem
Ethylene (also called ethene)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Speeds fruit ripening and drop • Works via positive feedback – more ripening = more ethylene • Gas spreads to nearby fruit to synchronise ripening

20. **(HL)** Auxin accumulates on the dark parts of shoots and promotes synthesis of hydrolytic enzymes leading to acidification of the apoplast in the cell walls. This activates wall-loosening expansins (enzymes) to loosen the cell walls, making them become less rigid, thus allowing bending. This bends the shoot towards light (away from the dark).

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C3.2 Defence against diseases

1. Microorganisms that cause disease
2. The epidermis is a thick layer of dead cells that is difficult for microorganisms to break through. The skin also secretes antimicrobial oils that kill microorganisms.
3. Sticky mucous is produced by mucous membranes in the nose, trachea and bronchi. Cilia in the nose, trachea and bronchi waft trapped pathogens up and out of the body.
4. scabs, platelets, prothrombin, fibrinogen, erythrocytes / red blood cells
5. The innate immune system responds to foreign antigens in general, while the adaptive immune system responds differently to specific pathogens/antigens. The innate immune system does not change, while the adaptive immune system becomes more effective over time as it builds up a memory of pathogens.
6. The primary response happens initially when first infected, and occurs at the same time as the secondary response. The secondary response is a more rapid response to a pathogen which has already been encountered. More antibodies are produced and symptoms may not develop at all.
7. Antigen: foreign substances made of glycoproteins or proteins which are displayed on the surface of cells produced by pathogens. They are recognised as non-self by the immune system.
8. Phagocytes and helper T-lymphocytes
9. The protein B on the foreign blood will be recognised by the immune system as non-self, while the protein A on their blood is not.
- 10.

		A protein	
		✓	✗
B protein	✓	AB	B
	✗	A	O

11. Phagocytes (white blood cells / leucocytes) detect foreign antigens and project their antigens/pathogens. Lysosomes inside the phagocytes release lysozymes to digest the pathogens. The antigens are presented to trigger a lymphocyte response.
12. cell-mediated, helper T-lymphocytes, cytokines, mitosis, T-lymphocytes, memory T-lymphocytes, clonal selection, mitosis, adaptive, antigen, plasma B-cells, agglutination, phagocytes, activated T-lymphocyte
13. Any three correct answers, e.g.
 - Sharing needles
 - Blood transfusions
 - Unprotected sexual contact
 - Breastfeeding
14. AIDS stands for acquired immune deficiency syndrome. An HIV positive individual will have a weakened immune system because the HIV virus replicates within specific T-lymphocytes and destroys them, which means fewer antibodies are produced in response.
15. Antibiotics target bacterial metabolism and so don't have any effect on either viruses or fungi which replicate inside.
16. a) When a bacterial population is exposed to antibiotics, some of them will have a chance to survive and reproduce to form an antibiotic-resistant population.
b) Any two correct suggestions, e.g.
 - Frequent handwashing and/or good hygiene
 - Finishing courses of antibiotics (not stopping when symptoms are gone)
 - Not prescribing antibiotics unnecessarily
 - Not using / reducing use of antibiotics in animal feed on farms
17. A modified / a dead / an inactive pathogen, or the DNA of a pathogen coding for specific antigens.
18. If enough of a population are immunised against a disease, the transmission of the disease is stopped, which means a non-immunised individual is unlikely to catch the disease.
19. A disease which can be passed from a non-human vertebrate to a human
20. rabies, dog, COVID-19, coronavirus/lung, tuberculosis, lungs, Japanese encephalitis
21. $\frac{28-7}{\left(\frac{7+28}{2}\right)} \times \frac{21}{7.5} \times 100 = 120\%$
22. $\frac{7-28}{28} \times 100 = -75\%$

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C4.1 Populations and communities

1.
 - a) A group of individuals of the same species living in the same area that can breed
 - b) A group of populations interacting in the same area
 - c) A community plus the abiotic factors of an area
2.
 - a) Any two appropriate suggestions, e.g.
 - Not all individuals may be accessible (e.g. some may be hiding)
 - It would take too long to count every individual
 - It may be impractical to count every individual (e.g. if individuals are moving)
 - b) Random sampling avoids bias towards certain areas by sampling arbitrarily. Systematic measurements at regular intervals (or along a line or grid).
3. Divide the field into a series of uniform areas, and randomly select a set of coordinates. Count the number of individuals of each species in every quadrat. Take the average across this up to 10 quadrats. $\text{Average quadrat area} : \text{whole field}$.
4. Total population size = (number of individuals marked on Friday \times total number of recaptured individuals on Saturday) / number of marked recaptured individuals on Saturday
 $= (60 \times 80) / 32$
 $= 150$
5. Four assumptions are:
 - All individuals come from the same population
 - Marking doesn't make individuals more likely to be caught or eaten
 - There was a closed population (no individuals left the population)
 - There were no births or deaths during sampling
6.
 - a) The dashed line is the carrying capacity, which is the maximum number of individuals the population increases above this amount, it crashes, bringing the population back down.
 - b)
 - 1: Exponential/logarithmic phase
 - 2: Transitional phase
 - 3: Plateau/stationary phase
 - X: Carrying capacity
 - c) The population initially expands rapidly due to favourable conditions, plentiful resources, no disease or competition. The growth then slows as a higher number of individuals leads to disease spreads more quickly and resources may be attracted to the area. Once carrying capacity is approached, growth levels off as resources are limited.
7. Any four from:
 - Nutrients
 - Carbon dioxide
 - Water
 - Sunlight
 - Space
 - Disease/pathogens
 - Waste
8. Negative feedback
9. Interspecific competition occurs between different species. Intraspecific competition occurs within the same species.
10. Any two appropriate examples, e.g.
 - Hunting in packs
 - Taking turns to stay on watch
 - Taking turns to care for children
11.
 - a) Species only found in one place
 - b) Species introduced from elsewhere
12. predators, prey, scavengers, host, harm/damage, parasitism, herbivory, interspecific competition
13. Any appropriate example, e.g.
 - *Rhizobium* bacteria (get carbon dioxide / favourable environment) in root nodules, fix nitrogen into ammonia
 - Mycorrhizae (receive nutrients when plant dies) in Orchidaceae (receive nutrients from mycorrhizae)
 - Zootecellulae (receive carbon dioxide and minerals for photosynthesis) embedded in plant tissue (provide fixed nutrients)
14. A change in the population of the snowshoe hare causes a change in the population of lynxes. As the number of hares increases, this then allows the population of lynxes to increase as there is more food. However, once the number of lynxes rises high enough, the number of hares decreases as they are being eaten. This then leads to a decrease in lynxes as their prey becomes scarcer.

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15. a) $3 - 1 = 2$
b) Yes; $3.87 > 3.65$ so the null hypothesis is rejected
16. a) Bottom-up
b) Top-down
c) Top-down
17. A species producing secondary metabolites which interfere with the growth of other
Any appropriate example, e.g. garlic mustard produces sinigrin to inhibit seed germination
18. The antibiotic creates an area where bacteria cannot grow, creating more space for

C4.2 Transfers of energy and matter

1. Open, because energy and matter can enter and leave.
2. matter, destroyed, energy, transformed, created
3. Direction of energy and biomass transfer
4. A) and C) apply only to grasses. B) and C) apply to all other organisms, e.g. rabbit, fox
5. Grasses → Grasshopper → Frog → Owl
6. polymers, monomers, assimilation
7. They convert non-living organic matter into more usable forms and support soil formation
8. A saprotroph secretes enzymes to digest nutrients, which they then absorb. A detritivore feeds on dead organic matter inside its body.
9. a) Photoautotrophs use sunlight to produce ATP, whereas chemoautotrophs oxidise inorganic compounds.
b) Any one example of a photoautotroph, e.g. plant, algae, cyanobacteria or a named chemoautotroph must be a description of or named element-oxidising bacteria
10. Photosynthesis requires carbon dioxide and water produced from respiration, and respiration requires oxygen produced from photosynthesis. Their chemical equations are the reverse of each other.
11. a) $\text{kJ m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$
b) Oak tree = Producer, Beetle = Primary consumer, Mouse = Secondary consumer
12. a) 90 %
b) Any three valid reasons, e.g.
 - Energy is lost as heat via cellular respiration / from movement
 - Maintaining body heat is not 100 % efficient
 - Not all individuals at a trophic level are consumed
 - Not all parts of organisms are eaten as food
 - Some parts of organisms are not digestible / not absorbed
13. dry, mass, time, more, less, greater/more, more, remain/are similar
14. $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$
15. a) (i) Biomass generated by autotrophs at a certain time and place
(ii) Biomass generated in the second plus trophic levels
b) Some biomass will always be lost, e.g. as carbon dioxide or other waste materials
16. sink, uptake, source, release
17. a) respiration
b) combustion
c) photosynthesis
d) feeding
e) decomposition
18. lightning strikes, energy, fuel, renewable, growth rate, non-renewable, million
19. $6\text{CO}_2 + 6\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6 + 6\text{O}_2$
20. respiration, photoautotrophs, atmosphere
21. Methane / CH_4
22. a) Should be an increasing curve
b) Photosynthetic organisms absorb more carbon dioxide in seasons which are warmer and darker seasons
23. Any three named chemical elements used by organisms, e.g. carbon, nitrogen, sulfur
Decomposers recycle elements from decaying organisms and provide them in a more usable form for growing organisms

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