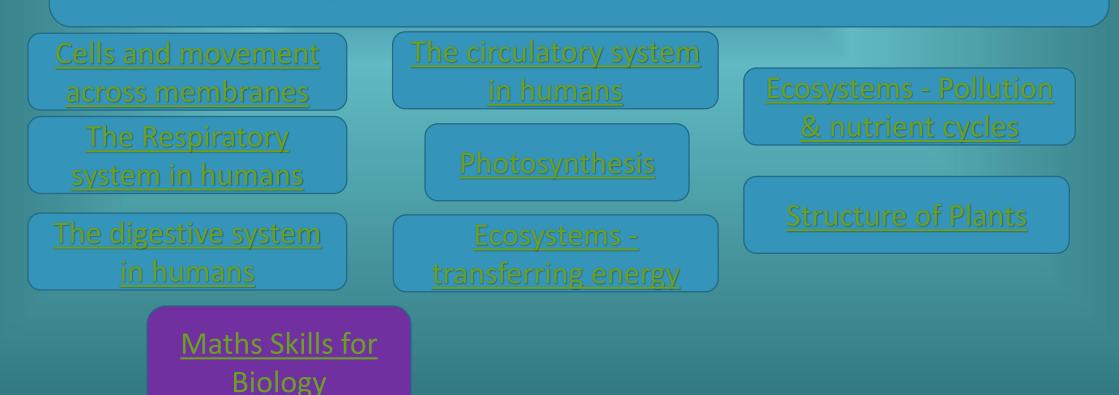
Overview

Cells, Organ Systems & Ecosystems



Key Points to Learn		Key Points to Learn	
1. Early light	Use light and lenses. Have magnifications of 100 to 2 000	14. Vacuole	Sac filled with sap. Keeps cell rigid
microscopes		15. Cell wall	Made of cellulose. Supports cell
2. Electron	Modern. Use a beam of electrons.	16. Chloroplasts	Green and full of chlorophyll
microscope	Magnifications of up to 2 000 000	17. Chlorophyll	Absorbs light for photosynthesis
3. Magnification	How much bigger an image appears than the real object e.g. Magnification of 100, image looks 100 times bigger	18. Eukaryotic cells	Animal cells and plant cells. Have cell membrane, cytoplasm and nucleus
	than object magnification = $\frac{size \ of \ image}{size \ of \ object}$	19. Prokaryotic cells	Bacteria. Do not have a nucleus. Genetic material is looped
	size of object	20. Diffusion	Particles spreading out in gas/liquid Move from high $ ightarrow$ low
4. Resolving power	Smallest size microscope can show		concentration. Dissolved substances like O and CO move in/out of cells 2^{2}
5. Typical Animal cell	· O · · · · · Mitochondria Cell membrane		by diffusion
	Ribosomes Nucleus Cytoplasm	21. Factors affecting diffusion	 Difference in concentration (concentration gradient) Temperature Surface area to diffuse through
6. Typical Plant cell	Mitochondria Cell membrane Ribosomes Nucleus Cytoplasm Vacuole Cell wall	22. Osmosis -Diffusion of water -movement across cell within membrane 	Diffusion of water through partially permeable membrane (surface that only lets small particles through). Moves from dilute solution → more concentrated solution
	Chloroplasts	23. Active transport	Moves substances from low $ ightarrow$ high concentration. Needs energy
7. Specialised animal cells	e.g Sperm – tail to swim	24. Enzymes	are involved in all metabolic reactions building large molecules
8. Specialised plant cells	e.g Root hair - absorb water and ions	Substrate They 'fit' Products	from small ones as well breaking down large molecules into small ones.
9. Mitochondria	Perform respiration to release energy	Active site Enzyme	stylised diagrams of enzyme/substrate interactions
10. Cell membrane	Controls movement in/out of cell	25. Lock & Key	the effect of temperature and pH on enzyme activity including
11. Ribosomes	Makes proteins by protein synthesis	26. Enzyme Stability	the effect of boiling which denatures most enzymes
12. Nucleus	Controls activities of cell. Genes to build new cells	27. Structure of enzymes	Different enzymes contain up to 20 different amino acids linked
13. Cytoplasm	Jelly like liquid where most reactions happen		together to form a chain which then folds into the globular enzyme shape.

Key Points to Learn		Key Points to Learn		
1. Aerobic Respiration	1. Aerobic Respiration Process by which all living things get energy from glucose and oxygen Glucose + Oxygen \rightarrow Carbon dioxide + Water $C_6H_{12}O_6 + 6O_2 \rightarrow 6CO_2 + 6H_2O$		Tiny hair-like cells. Produce mucus. Mucus and cilia help protect the respiratory system. Particles and bacteria stick to mucus and cilia move the mucus out of the respiratory system to the back of the throat.	
	Happens continuously in plants an animals. Provides lots of energy	10. Bronchi	Pipe into each lung	
	Exothermic reaction - gives off heat Occurs within mitochondria in cells	11. Bronchioles	Smaller and smaller tubes that end with alveoli Thin sac-like structures	
2. ATP - Adenosine triphosphate	chemical that provides energy to drive many processes in living cells. Less ATP broken down in anaerobic compared to aerobic.	12. Alveoli Thin sac-like structures within the lungs. Covered in blood vessels to help gas exchange		
3. Anaerobic Respiration - Animals	Glucose → Lactic acid Much less energy provided than aerobic respiration	13. Gas exchange	within the lungs. Covered in blood vessels to help gas exchange	
4. Lactic Acid	Causes muscles to tire and cramp		capillary network carbon dioxide	
5. Oxygen Debt	Requires more oxygen after exercise is complete to break down the lactic acid		around alveolus key oxygen carbon dioxide	
6. Lung Structure	Organs for gas exchange. Take in O ₂ release CO ₂ Trachea Bronchi Lung	14. Composition of air	Gas Inhaled Exhaled Oxygen 21% 17% CO2 Tiny amount 3% Nitrogen 79% 79% Water Small amount Large amount	
	Alveoli	15. Limewater	Turns cloudy when CO ₂ goes through it	
7. Thoracic muscles	Intercostal muscles between ribs Diaphragm	16. Smoking	chemicals in cigarette smoke paralyse cilia particles clog the mucus which prevents their function Tar = cancer Nicotine = addictive	
8. Breathing	Not the same as respiration. Method of obtaining oxygen from the air	17	Diseases caused: emphysema, bronchitis, Asthma	
9. Trachea	Pipe from mouth to bronchi	17. Lung volume changes	movement of air takes place due to differences in pressure between the lungs and outside the body	

Key Points to Learn		Key Points to Learn	
1. Digestion	breakdown of large molecules into smaller molecules so they can be absorbed for use by body cells	12. Mouth	Chews food. Starch digestion begins by carbohydrase/ amylase in saliva
2. Human digestive	Mouth	13. Stomach	Churns food. Partial digestion - secretes protease
system	Gullet Stomach	14. Liver	Makes bile to be stored in gall bladder
	Liver	15. Pancreas	Puts lipase, proteases and carbohydrase into the small intestine
	Gall-bladder Pancreas Small intestine Large intestine	16. Small Intestine	Continued digestion of carbohydrates to glucose, proteins to amino acids, fats to fatty acids and glycerol and absorption of digested molecules Majority of digestion occurs here.
	Anus	17. Large Intestine	Absorption of water
3. Carbohydrate	Types of sugars: glucose, starch, cellulose. Used for energy Test: Starch turns iodine bluey black Test: Glucose: Benedicts + heat turns blue to brick red	18. Bile	Bile emulsifies large droplets of fat into small droplets to increase the surface area for enzyme action. It also increases the pH in the small intestine to the optimum pH for lipase activity.
4. Proteins	Made up of amino acids. Used to make enzymes, tissues and cells. Found in meat, fish, pulses, milk Test: Biuret reagent turns from blue to purple	19. Peristalsis	The action of contraction and relaxation of muscles in peristalsis in forcing food through the digestive system.
5. Starch	(a carbohydrate) made up of a chain of glucose molecules	Contractor Bous	
6. Lipids	Fats made up of fatty acids and glycerol. Used to provide energy	20. Absorption	The small intestine has a relatively large surface area, created by villi, which contain blood vessels. It has a rich blood supply which maintains a steep diffusion gradient.
7. Metabolism	The sum of all the reactions in a cell or		
	the body of an organism	21. Balanced Diet	protein, carbohydrates and fats, minerals (iron), vitamins (vitamin C), fibre and water. Iron is needed for the production of
8. Carbohydrase	Enzyme that turns starch to glucose.		haemoglobin, vitamin C is needed to maintain healthy tissue
9. Amylase	Type of carbohydrase enzyme. Breaks down glucose. Made in salivary glands, pancreas, small intestine	22. Excesses	Excess sugar can lead to type 2 diabetes, obesity, tooth decay. Excess fat can lead to obesity, heart disease and circulatory
10. Protease	Enzyme breaks down protein. Made in stomach, pancreas, small intestine		disease. Excess salt (sodium) can lead to high blood pressure.
11. Lipase	Enzyme breaks down lipids. Made in pancreas, small intestine	23. Energy from food	foods have different energy contents and that energy from food, when it is in excess, is stored as fat by the body

Human digestive system

Key Points to Learn		Key Points to Learn		
1. Red blood cell	Contain haemoglobin for transport of oxygen Biconcave No nucleus Cell membrane 	8. Arteries	 Carry blood away from the heart (always oxygenated apart from the pulmonary artery which goes from the heart to the lungs). Have thick elastic and muscular walls. Have small passageways for blood (internal lumen). Contain blood under high pressure 	
2. Phagocyte (white blood cell)	Defence against disease. Cell membrane, cytoplasm & nucleus.	9. Coronary arteries	Blood vessels that supply heart with oxygen	
3. Platelets	Used in clotting, help to form scabs	10. Veins	Carry blood to the heart (always deoxygenated apart from the pulmonary vein which goes from the lungs to the heart). • Have thin, less muscular walls.	
4. Plasma	Straw coloured liquid part of blood. Used for transport of carbon dioxide, soluble food, urea, hormones and the distribution of heat	Fibrous layer of connective tisue	 Have larger passageways for blood (internal lumen). Contain blood under low pressure. 	
5. The Heart	Organ made of muscle that pumps blood in two loops around body: Right (thin wall) Left (thick wall) Pulmonary Aorta (to artery body)	Endothelium Lumen	 Have valves to prevent blood flowing backwards. 	
	 involving one system for the lungs – pulmonary and one for the other organs of the body – systemic 	11. Capillaries	 Found near every living cell of the body. Walls are one cell thick, this allows for the diffusion of substances into the cells from the capillaries and out of the cells into the capillaries. Very low blood pressure. 	
6. Heart Valves	 The heart contains valves to prevent the blood flowing backwards: the right side has a tricuspid valve (a valve with three flaps) the left side has a bicuspid valve (a valve with two flaps) Both sides have semilunar valves – at the entrances to the pulmonary artery and aorta 	12. Cardiovascular disease	Risk Factors: high levels of fat and salt in the diet, high blood pressure, high blood cholesterol, smoking, genetic factors and a lack of exercise. Effects: Atheroma – blockage of vessel. Can cause heart attack	
7. Circulatory system	 Transports substances to/from body cells. Made up of: Blood Blood vessels (arteries, veins and capillaries) The Heart 	13. Treatment for cardiovascular disease Describe pros and cons	Statins – drugs that control cholesterol levels Angioplasty – surgery to remove blockage Lifestyle changes – healthy diet & exercise	

	Key Points to Lea	arn		Key Points to Learn	
1. Photosynthesis	 is the process by which plants materials, using energy from l The reverse of respiration Endothermic reaction – light 		7. Testing leaf for starch	Boil in water → ethanol → wash → iodine Turn Bunsen off before ethanol!	t <mark>hesis</mark>
2. Word Equation		ight energy → Glucose + Oxygen		Starch test with Iodine solution	<mark>hotosynthe</mark>
3. Rate of Photosynthesis	Can be measured by using pond weed and counting number of oxygen bubbles released	H	8. Plant leaf cell	Mitochondria Cell membrane Ribosomes Nucleus Cytoplasm Vacuole Cell wall Chloroplasts	I <mark>-</mark>
4. Calculating light intensity	Light intensity ∝ <u>1</u> Distance		9. Mitochondria	Perform respiration to release energy	
intener;	The symbol ∝ means 'is propo measured in meters.		10. Cell membrane	Controls movement in/out of cell	
	measureu in meters.		11. Ribosomes	Makes proteins by protein synthesis	
5. Limiting factors	Affected by	ests	12. Nucleus	Controls activities of cell. Contains genes to build new cells	
	light intensity	Light intensity	13. Cytoplasm	Liquid where most reactions happen	
	Affected by		14. Vacuole	Sack filled with sap. Keeps cell rigid	
	CO ₂ concentration	Rate of photosy-	15. Cell wall	Made of cellulose. Supports cell	
	concentration	CO ₂ Concentration	16. Chloroplasts	Green and full of chlorophyll	
	Affected by Temperature	Rate of photosy-	17. Chlorophyll	Absorbs light for photosynthesis	
	•	Temperature			

Key Points to Learn			Key Points to Learn		
1. Leaf structure cross-section	• Epidermal tissue • Xylem • Phloem	Palisade mesophyll Spongy mesophyll	8. Vascular bundles	Xylem – strong & tough – middle of roots to resist pulling up Xylem & Phloem in stems – near edge for wind protection Xylem surrounded by phloem	
	Guard cells	stomata	9. Transpiration	Evaporation from leaf pulls water through plant xylem. Affected by temperature, humidity, wind, light	
2. Plant Organs	Leaf – carries out photosynthesi Stem – supports Roots – take in water and miner		10. Translocation	Is the movement of materials in plants from sources to other parts of the plant – Active Transport Chemicals, such as pesticides, also move through the plant by	
3. Features of leaves	• Large surface area – To maxin			translocation.	
		on dioxide to diffuse into leaf cells ayer which reduces water loss, it is ough the leaf	11. Water	 Used in photosynthesis Transport - transpiration Fill the vacuoles to support cells 	
4. Stomata	The stomata control gas exchange in the Each stoma can be open or closed to: • regulate transpiration • allow gas exchange	Stoma closed Stoma open	12. Root Hairs	 Where most water absorption happens Long, thin, large surface area Water enters roots by osmosis from soil *concentration gradient* Active transport of nutrients – root hair cells – carrier proteins move ions <u>against</u> the concentration gradient 	
5. Diffusion	Of carbon dioxide, oxygen and w greatest when the stomata are o	vater vapour into (or out of) the leaf is open, during the day.	13. Potometer	Used to measure the rate of transpiration that's proportional to water uptake.	
6. Xylem	 Moves water and ions – from roots upwards by tra contain no cytoplasm 	oots upwards by transpiration			
	 are impermeable to water have tough walls containing a	a woody material called lignin	14. Plant nutrients	Nitrates N – amino acids, proteins, cell growth Phosphates P – DNA, cell membranes	
7. Phloem	Moves sugars and amino acids – translocation	- from leaves to rest of plant by		Potassium compounds K – enzymes for respiration & photosynthesis In fertilizers NPK values – relative proportions of minerals	
	Contain cytoplasm Sugars move: • from sources in the root to sin • from sources in the leaves to		15. Nutrient deficiencies	Nitrate – poor growth, yellow leaves Phosphate – poor root growth, discoloured leaves Potassium – Poor growth fruit & flowers, discoloured leaves	

TRIPLE ONLY

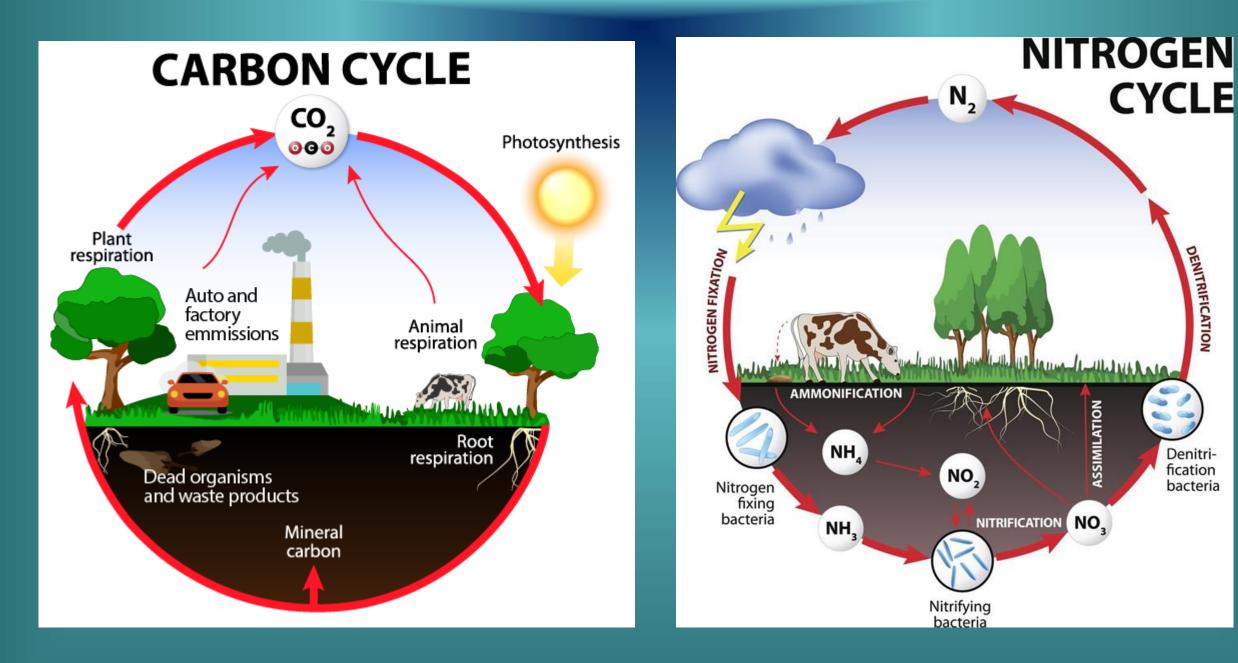
plants

Of

Structure

	Key Points to Learn		Key Points to Learn	
1. Food chains	A food chain shows the flow of energy and materials from one organism to the next in a habitat. It begins with a producer. Producer → Primary → Secondary consumer consumer	10. Pyramids	Shows the population at each stage in a food chain. Energy is lost up the pyramid due to growth, maintenance, repair, respiration & waste	
2. Food webs	 Interconnected food chains Shows energy flow in an ecosystem Interdependence - changes in the population of one species impacts on others in the web 		Sometimes the pyramid doesn't look like a pyramid Producer at the bottom always. Biomass pyramid shows amount of biological mass in the chain – these ALWAYS look like a pyramid	
3. Producer	Green plants or algae. Always first organism in a food chain/web. Produce most of the biomass for life on Earth eg phytoplankton	11. Biomass	Amount of biological mass in an organism	
4. Primary consumers	Eat producers eg snail		The percentage efficiency of energy transfer between trophic levels can be calculated: efficiency = $\frac{\text{energy transferred to next level}}{\text{total energy}} x_{100}$	
5. Secondary consumers	Eat primary consumers eg frog	12. Distribution	Where things are	
6. Tertiary	Eat secondary consumers eg kingfisher	13. Abundance	How many there are	
consumers		14. Predator	Consumers that kill and eat other animals	L
7. Types of consumption	Herbivore – plant eater Carnivore – meat eater Omnivore – eats both plants and animals – can inhabit more than one trophic level	15. Prey	Consumers that get eaten by predators	ey.
8. Decomposer	Microorganisms that feed on dead organisms and waste Release carbon back into atmosphere and minerals ions into soil	16. Predator- prey cycles	Numbers of both rise and fall in cycles	lòf
9. Trophic Levels	The position occupied by an organism in a food chain is known as its trophic level. Food chains are rarely longer than four trophic levels as energy is used up or lost at each level.		 Lots of plants means prey numbers increase Lots of prey means predator numbers increase Lots of predators means prey numbers decrease Less prey means predator numbers fall Less predators means prey numbers increase 	

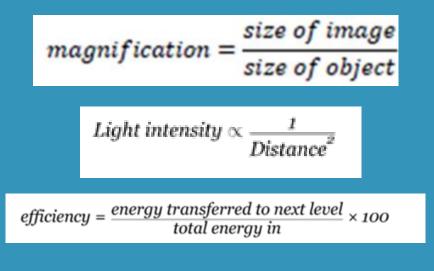
Key Points to Learn			Key Points to Learn	
1. Intensive farming	Advantage – increased yield Disadvantage – chemical pollution – run off, animal welfare concerns, antibiotic resistance	11. Maintaining biodiversity	Protection and regeneration of rare napitals	t cycles
2. Human need	The need to balance the human requirements for food and economic development with the needs of wildlife		 Reintroduction of field margins and hedgerows Reduce deforestation Reduce carbon dioxide emissions 	nutrient
3. Biodiversity	The variety of all different species in a particular ecosystem		 Recycling rather than dumping in landfill 	.nu
4. Ecosystem	A system that includes all living organisms (biotic) in an area and non-living (abiotic) factors	12. Indicator Species		on &
5. High biodiversity	 Ensures stability of ecosystems by reducing one species dependence on another 		e.g. Lichen on Trees, blood worms in waterways Pollution also indicated by pH and oxygen levels.	utic
biodiversity	 Future of human species on Earth relies on high biodiversity 	13. Disaccumulation	When heavy metals or pesticides, which cannot be broken down in	pollution
6. Negative human	Jegative humanHuman actions are reducing biodiversity. Actions such as:	Bioaccumulation	chains. These chemicals reach a toxic level in organisms.	Т
impact on biodiversity	 More waste More land use Population growth Using resources 	14. Eutrophication	Some pollutants affect the environment by disrupting the equilibrium in food chains. Sewage 	ystems
7. Pollution from	Pollution kills plants and animals which can reduce biodiversity		Nitrate leaching	COS
waste	 In water, from sewage, fertiliser or toxic chemicals In air, from smoke and acidic gas 	•		Ш
	 On land, from landfill and from toxic chemicals 	15.	Micro-organisms digest materials from their environment for life v processes. These materials are returned to the environment either in	
8. Land use	Humans reduce land available for animals by: Image: Comparison of the second	Microorganism and decay	waste products or when living things die and decay. When decay is prevented fossil fuels form.	
	 Quarrying Farming Dumping waste 	16. Carbon Cycle	Carbon is passed from the atmosphere, as carbon dioxide, to living things. It is then passed from one organism to the next in complex molecules, and returned to the atmosphere as carbon dioxide again.	
9. Destruction of peat bogs	Used for compost. Leads to reduction in size of this habitat. Decay or burning of peat releases carbon dioxide	17. Nitrogen	Nitrogen compounds found in cells include proteins. Nitrogen from the air is converted into soluble ions absorbed by plant roots It forms part of	
10. Deforestation	Removal of forests to : • grow cattle and rice fields • grow crops for biofuels	Cycle PTO FOR DIAGRAMS	nitrogen compounds in the plants, and is then passed from one organism to the next. It is returned to the atmosphere as nitrogen gas. Denitrifying bacteria – anaerobic – farmers try to prevent.	



Maths Skills

Prefix	Meaning	Standard form
Mega (M)	x 1000000	x 10 ⁶
kilo (k)	x 1 000	x 10 ³
milli (m)	÷ 1 000	x 10 ⁻³
nano (n)	÷ 1 000 000 000	x 10 ⁻⁹

Biology Formulae



Standard Form

In standard form, a number is always written as: $A \times 10^{n}$ A is always between 1 and 10. n tells us how many places to move the decimal point.

15 000 000 would be 1.5 × 10 ⁷ Move your decimal point to the <u>LEFT</u> is a <u>POSITIVE</u> number

0.000467 = 4.67 × 10 ⁻⁴ Move your decimal point to the <u>RIGHT</u> is a <u>NEGATIVE</u> number

Adding and subtracting numbers in standard index form

Convert them into ordinary numbers, do the calculation, then change them back if you want the answer in standard form.

 $4.5 \times 10^4 + 6.45 \times 10^5$

= 45,000 + 645,000

= 690,000

 $= 6.9 \times 10^{5}$

Multiplying and dividing numbers in standard form:

Here you can use the rules for multiplying and dividing powers. Remember these rules:

To multiply powers you add, eg, $10^5 \times 10^3 = 10^8$

To divide powers you subtract, eg, $10^5 \div 10^3 = 10^2$