



STEMpathy

Biology: AQA

Year 1 & 2

Revision Checklist

Created by STEMpathy | September 2025

Welcome to your revision checklist 🙌

This resource brings together the biology content you need to know for your exam board, broken down into a full, detailed checklist of points.

On the next page, you'll find a **master checklist** of the main topics – tick these off once you've completed the full set of checklist points for that topic.

The PDF is **fully interactive**, so you can jump between sections easily. Tap or click the boxes to add a ☒. To help you keep track of your progress, we've also added a simple scoring system:



Struggling



Ok



Confident

Master Checklist

Biological Molecules

Monomers and Polymers
Carbohydrates
Lipids
Proteins
Nucleic Acids are Important
Information-Carrying Molecules
ATP
Water
Inorganic Ions

Organisms Exchange Substances With Their Environment

Surface Area to Volume Ratio
Gas Exchange
Digestion and Absorption
Mass Transport

Genetic Information, Variation and Relationships Between Organisms

DNA, Genes and Chromosomes
DNA and Protein Synthesis
Genetic Diversity Can Arise as a Result of Mutation or During Meiosis
Genetic Diversity and Adaptation
Species and Taxonomy
Biodiversity Within a Community
Investigating Diversity

Cells

Cell Structure
All Cells Arise from Other Cells
Transport Across Cell Membranes
Cell Recognition and the Immune System

A Level only

Energy Transfers in and Between Organisms

Photosynthesis
Respiration
Energy and Ecosystems
Nutrient Cycles

Genetics, Populations, Evolution and Ecosystems

Inheritance
Populations
Evolution may lead to Speciation
Populations in Ecosystems

Organisms Respond to Changes in their Internal and External Environments

Stimuli, Both Internal and External, are Detected and Lead to a Response
Nervous Coordination
Skeletal Muscles are Stimulated to Contract by Nerves and act as Effectors
Homeostasis is the Maintenance of a Stable Internal Environment

The Control of Gene Expression

Alteration of the Sequence of Bases in DNA can alter the Structure of Proteins
Gene Expression is controlled by a number of features
Using Genome Projects
Gene Technologies allow the study and alteration of gene function allowing a better understanding of organism function and the design of new industrial and medical processes



Biological Molecules

Monomers and Polymers

Learning Outcome



The variety of life, both past and present, is extensive, but the biochemical basis of life is similar for all living things

Monomers are the smaller units from which larger molecules are made

Polymers are molecules made from a large number of monomers joined together

Monosaccharides, amino acids and nucleotides are examples of monomers

A condensation reaction joins two molecules together with the formation of a chemical bond and involves the elimination of a molecule of water

A hydrolysis reaction breaks a chemical bond between two molecules and involves the use of a water molecule



Carbohydrates

Learning Outcome



Monosaccharides are the monomers from which larger carbohydrates are made. Glucose, galactose and fructose are common monosaccharides

A condensation reaction between two monosaccharides forms a glycosidic bond

Disaccharides are formed by the condensation of two monosaccharides

Maltose is a disaccharide formed by condensation of two glucose molecules

Sucrose is a disaccharide formed by condensation of a glucose molecule and a fructose molecule

Lactose is a disaccharide formed by condensation of a glucose molecule and a galactose molecule

Glucose has two isomers, α -glucose and β -glucose, know the structure of each

Polysaccharides are formed by the condensation of many glucose units




Glycogen and starch are formed by the condensation of α -glucose

Cellulose is formed by the condensation of β -glucose

The basic structure and functions of glycogen, starch and cellulose. The relationship of structure to function of these substances in animal cells and plant cells

Biochemical tests using Benedict's solution for reducing sugars and non-reducing sugars and iodine/potassium iodide for starch



Lipids			
Learning Outcome			
Triglycerides and phospholipids are two groups of lipid			
Triglycerides are formed by the condensation of one molecule of glycerol and three molecules of fatty acid			
A condensation reaction between glycerol and a fatty acid (RCOOH) forms an ester bond			
The R-group of a fatty acid may be saturated or unsaturated			
In phospholipids, one of the fatty acids of a triglyceride is substituted by a phosphate-containing group			
The different properties of triglycerides and phospholipids related to their different structures			
The emulsion test for lipids			
Recognise, from diagrams, saturated & unsaturated fatty acids			
Be able to explain the different properties of triglycerides and phospholipids			



Proteins

General properties of proteins

Learning Outcome



Amino acids are the monomers from which proteins are made.

Know the general structure of an amino acid. Where NH_2 represents an amine group, COOH represents a carboxyl group and R represents a side chain. The twenty amino acids that are common in all organisms differ only in their side group

A condensation reaction between two amino acids forms a peptide bond

Dipeptides are formed by the condensation of two amino acids

Polypeptides are formed by the condensation of many amino acids

A functional protein may contain one or more polypeptides

The role of hydrogen bonds, ionic bonds and disulfide bridges in the structure of proteins

Proteins have a variety of functions within all living organisms. The relationship between primary, secondary, tertiary and quaternary structure, and protein function

Know the Biuret test for proteins

You should be able to relate the structure of proteins to properties of proteins named throughout the specification



Many proteins are enzymes

Learning Outcome



Each enzyme lowers the activation energy of the reaction it catalyses

The induced-fit model of enzyme action

The properties of an enzyme relate to the tertiary structure of its active site and its ability to combine with complementary substrate(s) to form an enzyme-substrate complex

The specificity of enzymes

The effects of the following factors on the rate of enzyme controlled reactions - enzyme concentration, substrate concentration, concentration of competitive and of noncompetitive inhibitors, pH and temperature

Appreciate how models of enzyme action have changed over time

Be able to appreciate that enzymes catalyse a wide range of intracellular and extracellular reactions that determine structures and functions from cellular to whole-organism level

Required practical 1: Investigation into the effect of a named variable on the rate of an enzyme-controlled reaction.



Nucleic Acids are Important Information-Carrying Molecules

Structure of DNA and RNA

Learning Outcome



Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) and ribonucleic acid (RNA) are important information-carrying molecules. In all living cells, DNA holds genetic information and RNA transfers genetic information from DNA to the ribosomes

Ribosomes are formed from RNA and proteins

Both DNA and RNA are polymers of nucleotides. Each nucleotide is formed from a pentose, a nitrogen-containing organic base and a phosphate group

The components of a DNA nucleotide are deoxyribose, a phosphate group and one of the organic bases adenine, cytosine, guanine or thymine

The components of an RNA nucleotide are ribose, a phosphate group and one of the organic bases adenine, cytosine, guanine or uracil




A condensation reaction between two nucleotides forms a phosphodiester bond




A DNA molecule is a double helix with two polynucleotide chains held together by hydrogen bonds between specific complementary base pairs

An RNA molecule is a relatively short polynucleotide chain




Be able to appreciate that the relative simplicity of DNA led many scientists to doubt that it carried the genetic code






DNA replication			
Learning Outcome			
The semi-conservative replication of DNA ensures genetic continuity between generations of cells			
The process of semi-conservative replication of DNA in terms of the unwinding of the double helix			
The process of semi-conservative replication of DNA in terms the breakage of hydrogen bonds between complementary bases in the polynucleotide strands			
The process of semi-conservative replication of DNA in terms the role of DNA helicase in unwinding DNA and breaking its hydrogen bonds			
The process of semi-conservative replication of DNA in terms the attraction of new DNA nucleotides to exposed bases on template strands and base pairing			
The process of semi-conservative replication of DNA in terms the role of DNA polymerase in the condensation reaction that joins adjacent nucleotides			
Be able to evaluate the work of scientists in validating the Watson–Crick model of DNA replication			




ATP			
Learning Outcome			
A single molecule of adenosine triphosphate (ATP) is a nucleotide derivative and is formed from a molecule of ribose, a molecule of adenine and three phosphate groups			
Hydrolysis of ATP to adenosine diphosphate (ADP) and an inorganic phosphate group (P_i) is catalysed by the enzyme ATP hydrolase			
The hydrolysis of ATP can be coupled to energy-requiring reactions within cells			
The inorganic phosphate released during the hydrolysis of ATP can be used to phosphorylate other compounds, often making them more reactive			
ATP is resynthesised by the condensation of ADP and P_i . This reaction is catalysed by the enzyme ATP synthase during photosynthesis, or during respiration			






Water			
Learning Outcome			
Know that water is a major component of cells. It has several properties that are important in biology			
Water is a metabolite in many metabolic reactions, including condensation and hydrolysis reactions			
Water is an important solvent in which metabolic reactions occur			
Water has a relatively high heat capacity, buffering changes in temperature			
Water has a relatively large latent heat of vaporisation, providing a cooling effect with little loss of water through evaporation			
Water has strong cohesion between water molecules; this supports columns of water in the tube-like transport cells of plants and produces surface tension where water meets air			

Inorganic Ions			
Learning Outcome			
Inorganic ions occur in solution in the cytoplasm and body fluids of organisms, some in high concentrations and others in very low concentrations			
Each type of ion has a specific role, depending on its properties			
Students should be able to recognise the role of ions in the following topics: hydrogen ions and pH; iron ions as a component of haemoglobin; sodium ions in the co-transport of glucose and amino acids; and phosphate ions as components of DNA and of ATP			



Cells			
Cell Structure			
Structure of eukaryotic cells			
Learning Outcome			
The structure of eukaryotic cells, restricted to the structure and function of the cell-surface membrane, nucleus, mitochondria, chloroplasts, Golgi apparatus, Golgi vesicles, ribosomes, rough endoplasmic reticulum, smooth endoplasmic reticulum, cell wall, lysosomes and cell vacuole			
Know that the nucleus contains chromosomes, consisting of protein-bound, linear DNA, and one or more nucleoli			
Know that plants and algae contain chloroplasts (in plants and algae)			
Know that plants, algae and fungi have a cell wall			
Know that lysosomes are membrane-bound organelles that releases hydrolytic enzymes			
Know that plant cells contain a vacuole			
In complex multicellular organisms, eukaryotic cells become specialised for specific functions. Specialised cells are organised into tissues, tissues into organs and organs into systems			
Be able to apply knowledge of these features in explaining adaptations of eukaryotic cells			

Structure of prokaryotic cells and of viruses			
Learning Outcome			
Prokaryotic cells are much smaller than eukaryotic cells. They also differ from eukaryotic cells in having a cytoplasm that lacks membrane-bound organelles, smaller ribosomes, no nucleus, one or more plasmids, a capsule surrounding the cell and one or more flagella (details of these structural differences is not required)			
Know that the prokaryotes have a single circular DNA molecule that is free in the cytoplasm and is not associated with proteins			
Know that the prokaryotic cell wall that contains murein, a glycoprotein			
Viruses are acellular and non-living. The structure of virus particles to include genetic material, capsid and attachment protein			



Methods of studying cells

Learning Outcome



The principles and limitations of optical microscopes, transmission electron microscopes and scanning electron microscopes

Measuring the size of an object viewed with an optical microscope. The difference between magnification and resolution

Use of the formula: magnification = size of image / size of real object

Principles of cell fractionation and ultracentrifugation as used to separate cell components

Be able to appreciate that there was a considerable period of time during which the scientific community distinguished between artefacts and cell organelles



All Cells Arise from Other Cells

Learning Outcome



Within multicellular organisms, not all cells retain the ability to divide

Eukaryotic cells that do retain the ability to divide show a cell cycle

DNA replication occurs during the interphase of the cell cycle

Mitosis is the part of the cell cycle in which a eukaryotic cell divides to produce two daughter cells, each with the identical copies of DNA produced by the parent cell during DNA replication

The behaviour of chromosomes during interphase, prophase, metaphase, anaphase and telophase of mitosis. The role of spindle fibres attached to centromeres in the separation of chromatids

Division of the cytoplasm (cytokinesis) usually occurs, producing two new cells

Be able to recognise the stages of the cell cycle: interphase, prophase, metaphase, anaphase and telophase (including cytokinesis)

Be able to explain the appearance of cells in each stage of mitosis

Mitosis is a controlled process. Uncontrolled cell division can lead to the formation of tumours and of cancers. Many cancer treatments are directed at controlling the rate of cell division




Binary fission in prokaryotic cells involves replication of the circular DNA and of plasmids and that the division of the cytoplasm produces two daughter cells, each with a single copy of the circular DNA and a variable number of copies of plasmids

Being non-living, viruses do not undergo cell division. Following injection of their nucleic acid, the infected host cell replicates the virus particles

Required practical 2: Preparation of stained squashes of cells from plant root tips; set-up and use of an optical microscope to identify the stages of mitosis in these stained squashes and calculation of a mitotic index. Students should measure the apparent size of cells in the root tip and calculate their actual size using the formula: actual size = size of image / magnification



Transport Across Cell Membranes

Learning Outcome			
The basic structure of all cell membranes, including cell-surface membranes and the membranes around the cell organelles of eukaryotes, is the same			
The arrangement and any movement of phospholipids, proteins, glycoproteins and glycolipids in the fluid-mosaic model of membrane structure. Cholesterol may also be present in cell membranes where it restricts the movement of other molecules making up the membrane			
Movement across membranes by simple diffusion (involving limitations imposed by the nature of the phospholipid bilayer)			
Movement across membranes by facilitated diffusion (involving the roles of carrier proteins and channel proteins)			
Movement across membranes by osmosis (explained in terms of water potential)			
Movement across membranes by active transport (involving the role of carrier proteins and the importance of the hydrolysis of ATP)			
Movement across membranes by co-transport (illustrated by the absorption of sodium ions and glucose by cells lining the mammalian ileum)			
Cells may be adapted for rapid transport across their internal or external membranes by an increase in surface area of, or by an increase in the number of protein channels and carrier molecules in, their membranes			
Be able to explain the adaptations of specialised cells in relation to the rate of transport across their internal and external membranes			
Be able to explain how surface area, number of channel or carrier proteins and differences in gradients of concentration or water potential affect the rate of movement across cell membranes			
Required practical 3: Production of a dilution series of a solute to produce a calibration curve with which to identify the water potential of plant tissue			
Required practical 4: Investigation into the effect of a named variable on the permeability of cell-surface membranes			



Cell Recognition and the Immune System

Learning Outcome



Each type of cell has specific molecules on its surface that identify it. These molecules include proteins and enable the immune system to identify pathogens, cells from other organisms of the same species, abnormal body cells and toxins

Definition of antigen. The effect of antigen variability on disease and disease prevention

Phagocytosis of pathogens. The subsequent destruction of ingested pathogens by lysozymes

The response of T lymphocytes to a foreign antigen (the cellular response). The role of antigen-presenting cells in the cellular response. The role of helper T cells (T_H cells) in stimulating cytotoxic T cells (T_C cells), B cells and phagocytes. The role of other T cells is not required

The response of B lymphocytes to a foreign antigen, clonal selection and the release of monoclonal antibodies (the humoral response)

Definition of antibody

Antibody structure

The formation of an antigen-antibody complex, leading to the destruction of the antigen, limited to agglutination and phagocytosis of bacterial cells

The roles of plasma cells and of memory cells in producing primary and secondary immune responses

The use of vaccines to provide protection for individuals and populations against disease. The concept of herd immunity

The differences between active and passive immunity

Structure of the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) and its replication in helper T cells

How HIV causes the symptoms of AIDS. Why antibiotics are ineffective against viruses

The use of monoclonal antibodies in targeting medication to specific cell types by attaching a therapeutic drug to an antibody and medical diagnosis. Details of the commercial or scientific production of monoclonal antibodies are not required

Ethical issues associated with the use of vaccines and monoclonal antibodies

The use of antibodies in the ELISA test




Be able to discuss ethical issues associated with the use of vaccines and monoclonal antibodies

Be able to evaluate methodology, evidence and data relating to the use of vaccines and monoclonal antibodies






Organisms Exchange Substances With Their Environment

Surface Area to Volume Ratio

Learning Outcome			
The relationship between the size of an organism or structure and its surface area to volume ratio			
Changes to body shape and the development of systems in larger organisms as adaptations that facilitate exchange as this ratio reduces			
Be able to appreciate the relationship between surface area to volume ratio and metabolic rate			

Gas Exchange

Learning Outcome			
Adaptations of gas exchange surfaces, shown by gas exchange across the body surface of a single-celled organism, in the tracheal system of an insect (tracheae, tracheoles and spiracles), across the gills of fish (gill lamellae and filaments including the counter-current principle) and by the leaves of dicotyledonous plants (mesophyll and stomata)			
Structural and functional compromises between the opposing needs for efficient gas exchange and the limitation of water loss shown by terrestrial insects and xerophytic plants			
The gross structure of the human gas exchange system limited to the alveoli, bronchioles, bronchi, trachea and lungs			
The essential features of the alveolar epithelium as a surface over which gas exchange takes place			
Ventilation and the exchange of gases in the lungs. The mechanism of breathing to include the role of the diaphragm and the antagonistic interaction between the external and internal intercostal muscles in bringing about pressure changes in the thoracic cavity			
Be able to interpret information relating to the effects of lung disease on gas exchange and/or ventilation			
Be able to interpret data relating to the effects of pollution and smoking on the incidence of lung disease			
Be able to analyse and interpret data associated with specific risk factors and the incidence of lung disease			
Be able to evaluate the way in which experimental data led to statutory restrictions on the sources of risk factors			
Be able to recognise correlations and causal relationships			



Digestion and Absorption

Learning Outcome



During digestion, large biological molecules are hydrolysed to smaller molecules that can be absorbed across cell membranes

Digestion in mammals of carbohydrates by amylases and membrane-bound disaccharidases, lipids by lipase (including the action of bile salts), and of proteins by endopeptidases, exopeptidases and membrane bound dipeptidases

Mechanisms for the absorption of the products of digestion by cells lining the ileum of mammals, to include co-transport mechanisms for the absorption of amino acids and of monosaccharides and the role of micelles in the absorption of lipids



Mass Transport

Mass transport in animals

Learning Outcome



The haemoglobins are a group of chemically similar molecules found in many different organisms. Haemoglobin is a protein with a quaternary structure

The role of haemoglobin and red blood cells in the transport of oxygen. The loading, transport and unloading of oxygen in relation to the oxyhaemoglobin dissociation curve. The cooperative nature of oxygen binding to show that the change in shape of haemoglobin caused by binding of the first oxygens makes the binding of further oxygens easier. The effects of carbon dioxide concentration on the dissociation of oxyhaemoglobin (the Bohr effect)

Many animals are adapted to their environment by possessing different types of haemoglobin with different oxygen transport properties

The general pattern of blood circulation in a mammal. Names are required only of the coronary arteries and of the blood vessels entering and leaving the heart, lungs and kidneys

The gross structure of the human heart. Pressure and volume changes and associated valve movements during the cardiac cycle that maintain a unidirectional flow of blood

The structure of arteries, arterioles and veins in relation to their function

The structure of capillaries and the importance of capillary beds as exchange surfaces. The formation of tissue fluid and its return to the circulatory system

Be able to analyse and interpret data relating to pressure and volume changes during the cardiac cycle

Be able to analyse and interpret data associated with specific risk factors and the incidence of cardiovascular disease

Be able to evaluate conflicting evidence associated with risk factors affecting cardiovascular disease

Be able to recognise correlations and causal relationships

Required practical 5: Dissection of animal or plant gas exchange system or mass transport system or of organ within such a system



Mass transport in plants

Learning Outcome



Xylem is the tissue that transports water in the stem and leaves of plants. The cohesion-tension theory of water transport in the xylem

Phloem is the tissue that transports organic substances in plants. The mass flow hypothesis for the mechanism of translocation in plants. The use of tracers and ringing experiments to investigate transport in plants




Be able to recognise correlations and causal relationships

Be able to interpret evidence from tracer and ringing experiments and to evaluate the evidence for and against the mass flow hypothesis






Genetic Information, Variation and Relationships Between Organisms

DNA, Genes and Chromosomes

Learning Outcome			
In prokaryotic cells, DNA molecules are short, circular and not associated with proteins			
In the nucleus of eukaryotic cells, DNA molecules are very long, linear and associated with proteins, called histones. Together a DNA molecule and its associated proteins form a chromosome			
The mitochondria and chloroplasts of eukaryotic cells also contain DNA which, like the DNA of prokaryotes, is short, circular and not associated with protein			
A gene is a base sequence of DNA that codes for the amino acid sequence of a polypeptide and a functional RNA (including ribosomal RNA and tRNAs)			
A gene occupies a fixed position, called a locus, on a particular DNA molecule			
A sequence of three DNA bases, called a triplet, codes for a specific amino acid. The genetic code is universal, non-overlapping and degenerate			
In eukaryotes, much of the nuclear DNA does not code for polypeptides. There are, for example, non-coding multiple repeats of base sequences between genes. Even within a gene only some sequences, called exons, code for amino acid sequences. Within the gene, these exons are separated by one or more non-coding sequences, called introns			






DNA and Protein Synthesis

Learning Outcome			
The concept of the genome as the complete set of genes in a cell and of the proteome as the full range of proteins that a cell is able to produce			
The structure of molecules of messenger RNA (mRNA) and of transfer RNA (tRNA)			
Transcription as the production of mRNA from DNA. The role of RNA polymerase in joining mRNA nucleotides			
In prokaryotes, transcription results directly in the production of mRNA from DNA			
In eukaryotes, transcription results in the production of premRNA; this is then spliced to form mRNA			
Translation as the production of polypeptides from the sequence of codons carried by mRNA. The roles of ribosomes, tRNA and ATP			
Be able to relate the base sequence of nucleic acids to the amino acid sequence of polypeptides, when provided with suitable data about the genetic code			
Be able to interpret data from experimental work investigating the role of nucleic acids			
You are not be required to recall in written papers specific codons and the amino acids for which they code			






Genetic Diversity Can Arise as a Result of Mutation or During Meiosis

Learning Outcome			
Gene mutations involve a change in the base sequence of chromosomes. They can arise spontaneously during DNA replication and include base deletion and base substitution. Due to the degenerate nature of the genetic code, not all base substitutions cause a change in the sequence of encoded amino acids. Mutagenic agents can increase the rate of gene mutation			
Mutations in the number of chromosomes can arise spontaneously by chromosome non-disjunction during meiosis			
Meiosis produces daughter cells that are genetically different from each other			
The process of meiosis only in sufficient detail to show how two nuclear divisions result usually in the formation of four haploid daughter cells from a single diploid parent cell, genetically different daughter cells result from the independent segregation of homologous chromosomes, crossing over between homologous chromosomes results in further genetic variation among daughter cells			
Be able to complete diagrams showing the chromosome content of cells after the first and second meiotic division, when given the chromosome content of the parent cell			
Be able to explain the different outcome of mitosis and meiosis			
Be able to recognise where meiosis occurs when given information about an unfamiliar life cycle			
Be able to explain how random fertilisation of haploid gametes further increases genetic variation within a species			






Genetic Diversity and Adaptation




Learning Outcome			
Genetic diversity as the number of different alleles of genes in a population			
Genetic diversity is a factor enabling natural selection to occur			
The principles of natural selection in the evolution of populations: Random mutation can result in new alleles of a gene. Many mutations are harmful but, in certain environments, the new allele of a gene might benefit its possessor, leading to increased reproductive success. The advantageous allele is inherited by members of the next generation. As a result, over many generations, the new allele increases in frequency in the population			
Directional selection, exemplified by antibiotic resistance in bacteria, and stabilising selection, exemplified by human birth weights			
Natural selection results in species that are better adapted to their environment. These adaptations may be anatomical, physiological or behavioural			
Be able to use unfamiliar information to explain how selection produces changes within a population of a species			
Be able to interpret data relating to the effect of selection in producing change within populations			
Be able to show an understanding that adaptation and selection are major factors in evolution and contribute to the diversity of living organisms			
Required practical 6: Use of aseptic techniques to investigate the effect of antimicrobial substances on microbial growth			



Species and Taxonomy

Learning Outcome			
Two organisms belong to the same species if they are able to produce fertile offspring. Courtship behaviour as a necessary precursor to successful mating. The role of courtship in species recognition			
A phylogenetic classification system attempts to arrange species into groups based on their evolutionary origins and relationships. It uses a hierarchy in which smaller groups are placed within larger groups, with no overlap between groups. Each group is called a taxon (plural taxa)			
One hierarchy comprises the taxa: domain, kingdom, phylum, class, order, family, genus and species			
Each species is universally identified by a binomial consisting of the name of its genus and species, eg, Homo sapiens			
Recall of different taxonomic systems, such as the three domain or five kingdom systems, will not be required			
Be able to appreciate that advances in immunology and genome sequencing help to clarify evolutionary relationships between organisms			

Biodiversity Within a Community

Learning Outcome			
Biodiversity can relate to a range of habitats, from a small local habitat to the Earth			
Species richness is a measure of the number of different species in a community			
An index of diversity describes the relationship between the number of species in a community and the number of individuals in each species			
Calculation of an index of diversity (d) from the formula $d = \frac{N(N - 1)}{\sum n(n - 1)}$, where N = total number of organisms of all species and n = total number of organisms of each species			
Farming techniques reduce biodiversity. The balance between conservation and farming			



Investigating Diversity

Learning Outcome



Genetic diversity within, or between species, can be made by comparing the frequency of measurable or observable characteristics, the base sequence of DNA, the base sequence of mRNA and the amino acid sequence of the proteins encoded by DNA and mRNA

Be able to interpret data relating to similarities and differences in the base sequences of DNA and in the amino acid sequences of proteins to suggest relationships between different organisms within a species and between species




Be able to appreciate that gene technology has caused a change in the methods of investigating genetic diversity; inferring DNA differences from measurable or observable characteristics has been replaced by direct investigation of DNA sequences. Knowledge of gene technologies will not be tested

Quantitative investigations of variation within a species involve collecting data from random samples, calculating a mean value of the collected data and the standard deviation of that mean, interpreting mean values and their standard deviations. You will not be required to calculate standard deviations in written papers



Energy Transfers in and Between Organisms (A level Only)

Photosynthesis (A level only)

Learning Outcome			
The light dependent reaction in such detail as to show that: chlorophyll absorbs light, leading to photoionisation of chlorophyll, and that some of the energy from electrons released during photoionisation is conserved in the production of ATP and reduced NADP, and that some of the production of ATP involves electron transfer associated with the transfer of electrons down the electron transfer chain and passage of protons across chloroplast membranes and is catalysed by ATP synthase embedded in these membranes (chemiosmotic theory), and that the photolysis of water produces protons, electrons and oxygen			
The light-independent reaction uses reduced NADP from the light-dependent reaction to form a simple sugar. The hydrolysis of ATP, also from the light-dependent reaction, provides the additional energy for this reaction			
The light-independent reaction in such detail as to show that carbon dioxide reacts with ribulose biphosphate (RuBP) to form two molecules of glycerate 3-phosphate (GP). This reaction is catalysed by the enzyme rubisco, and that ATP and reduced NADP from the light-dependent reaction are used to reduce GP to triose phosphate, and that some of the triose phosphate is used to regenerate RuBP in the Calvin cycle, and that some of the triose phosphate is converted to useful organic substances			
Be able to identify environmental factors that limit the rate of photosynthesis			
Be able to evaluate data relating to common agricultural practices used to overcome the effect of these limiting factors			
Required practical 7: Use of chromatography to investigate the pigments isolated from leaves of different plants, eg, leaves from shade-tolerant and shade-intolerant plants or leaves of different colours			
Required practical 8: Investigation into the effect of a named factor on the rate of dehydrogenase activity in extracts of chloroplasts			



Respiration (A level only)

Learning Outcome



Respiration produces ATP

Glycolysis is the first stage of anaerobic and aerobic respiration. It occurs in the cytoplasm and is an anaerobic process

Glycolysis involves the phosphorylation of glucose to glucose phosphate, using ATP, and the production of triose phosphate, and the oxidation of triose phosphate to pyruvate with a net gain of ATP and reduced NAD

If respiration is only anaerobic, pyruvate can be converted to ethanol or lactate using reduced NAD. The oxidised NAD produced in this way can be used in further glycolysis

If respiration is aerobic, pyruvate from glycolysis enters the mitochondrial matrix by active transport

Know that in aerobic respiration pyruvate is oxidised to acetate, producing reduced NAD in the process

Know that in aerobic respiration acetate combines with coenzyme A in the link reaction to produce acetylcoenzyme A

Know that in aerobic respiration acetylcoenzyme A reacts with a four-carbon molecule, releasing coenzyme A and producing a six-carbon molecule that enters the Krebs cycle

Know that in aerobic respiration that in a series of oxidation-reduction reactions, the Krebs cycle generates reduced coenzymes and ATP by substrate-level phosphorylation, and carbon dioxide is lost

Know that in aerobic respiration synthesis of ATP by oxidative phosphorylation is associated with the transfer of electrons down the electron transfer chain and passage of protons across inner mitochondrial membranes and is catalysed by ATP synthase embedded in these membranes (chemiosmotic theory)

Know that other respiratory substrates include the breakdown products of lipids and amino acids, which enter the Krebs cycle

Required practical 9: Investigation into the effect of a named variable on the rate of respiration of cultures of single-celled organisms



Energy and Ecosystems (A level only)

Learning Outcome



In any ecosystem, plants synthesise organic compounds from atmospheric, or aquatic, carbon dioxide

Most of the sugars synthesised by plants are used by the plant as respiratory substrates. The rest are used to make other groups of biological molecules. These biological molecules form the biomass of the plants

Biomass can be measured in terms of mass of carbon or dry mass of tissue per given area. The chemical energy store in dry biomass can be estimated using calorimetry

Gross primary production (*GPP*) is the chemical energy store in plant biomass, in a given area or volume

Net primary production (*NPP*) is the chemical energy store in plant biomass after respiratory losses to the environment have been taken into account, ie $NPP = GPP - R$. Where *GPP* represents gross production and *R* represents respiratory losses to the environment

This net primary production is available for plant growth and reproduction. It is also available to other trophic levels in the ecosystem, such as herbivores and decomposers




The net production of consumers (*N*), such as animals, can be calculated as $N = I - (F + R)$. Where *I* represents the chemical energy store in ingested food, *F* represents the chemical energy lost to the environment in faeces and urine and *R* represents the respiratory losses to the environment

Primary and secondary productivity is the rate of primary or secondary production, respectively. It is measured as biomass in a given area in a given time eg $\text{kJ ha}^{-1} \text{year}^{-1}$

Be able to appreciate the ways in which production is affected by farming practices designed to increase the efficiency of energy transfer by simplifying food webs to reduce energy losses to non-human food chains, and reducing respiratory losses within a human food chain



Nutrient Cycles (A level only)




Learning Outcome			
Nutrients are recycled within natural ecosystems, exemplified by the nitrogen cycle and the phosphorus cycle			
Microorganisms play a vital role in recycling chemical elements such as phosphorus and nitrogen			
The role of saprobionts in decomposition			
The role of mycorrhizae in facilitating the uptake of water and inorganic ions by plants			
The role of bacteria in the nitrogen cycle in sufficient detail to illustrate the processes of saprobiotic nutrition, ammonification, nitrification, nitrogen fixation and denitrification (the names of individual species of bacteria are not required)			
The use of natural and artificial fertilisers to replace the nitrates and phosphates lost by harvesting plants and removing livestock			
The environmental issues arising from the use of fertilisers including leaching and eutrophication			






Organisms Respond to Changes in their Internal and External Environments (A-level Only)

Stimuli, Both Internal and External, are Detected and Lead to a Response (A level only)

Survival and response (A level only)

Learning Outcome			
Organisms increase their chance of survival by responding to changes in their environment			
In flowering plants, specific growth factors move from growing regions to other tissues, where they regulate growth in response to directional stimuli			
The effect of different concentrations of indoleacetic acid (IAA) on cell elongation in the roots and shoots of flowering plants as an explanation of gravitropism and phototropism in flowering plants			
Taxes and kinesis as simple responses that can maintain a mobile organism in a favourable environment			
The protective effect of a simple reflex, exemplified by a three-neurone simple reflex. Details of spinal cord and dorsal and ventral roots are not required			
Required practical 10: Investigation into the effect of an environmental variable on the movement of an animal using either a choice chamber or a maze			

Receptors (A level only)

Learning Outcome			
The Pacinian corpuscle should be used as an example of a receptor to illustrate that receptors respond only to specific stimuli, and that stimulation of a receptor leads to the establishment of a generator potential			
The basic structure of a Pacinian corpuscle			
Deformation of stretch-mediated sodium ion channels in a Pacinian corpuscle leads to the establishment of a generator potential			
The human retina in sufficient detail to show how differences in sensitivity to light, sensitivity to colour and visual acuity are explained by differences in the optical pigments of rods and cones and the connections rods and cones make in the optic nerve			



Control of heart rate (A level only)

Learning Outcome



Myogenic stimulation of the heart and transmission of a subsequent wave of electrical activity. The roles of the sinoatrial node (SAN), atrioventricular node (AVN) and Purkyne tissue in the bundle of His

The roles and locations of chemoreceptors and pressure receptors and the roles of the autonomic nervous system and effectors in controlling heart rate

Nervous Coordination (A level only)

Nerve impulses (A level only)

Learning Outcome



The structure of a myelinated motor neurone

The establishment of a resting potential in terms of differential membrane permeability, electrochemical gradients and the movement of sodium ions and potassium ions

Changes in membrane permeability lead to depolarisation and the generation of an action potential. The all-or-nothing principle




The passage of an action potential along non-myelinated and myelinated axons, resulting in nerve impulses

The nature and importance of the refractory period in producing discrete impulses and in limiting the frequency of impulse transmission




Factors affecting the speed of conductance: myelination and saltatory conduction; axon diameter; temperature



Synaptic transmission (A level only)

Learning Outcome			
The detailed structure of a synapse and of a neuromuscular junction			
The sequence of events involved in transmission across a cholinergic synapse in sufficient detail to explain unidirectionality, temporal and spatial summation, and inhibition by inhibitory synapses			
A comparison of transmission across a cholinergic synapse and across a neuromuscular junction			
Be able to use information provided to predict and explain the effects of specific drugs on a synapse (recall of the names and mode of action of individual drugs will not be required)			




Skeletal Muscles are Stimulated to Contract by Nerves and act as Effectors (A level only)

Learning Outcome			
Muscles act in antagonistic pairs against an incompressible skeleton			
Gross and microscopic structure of skeletal muscle. The ultrastructure of a myofibril			
The roles of actin, myosin, calcium ions and ATP in myofibril contraction			
The roles of calcium ions and tropomyosin in the cycle of actinomyosin bridge formation (the role of troponin is not required)			
The roles of ATP and phosphocreatine in muscle contraction			
The structure, location and general properties of slow and fast skeletal muscle fibres			






Homeostasis is the Maintenance of a Stable Internal Environment (A level only)

Principles of homeostasis and negative feedback (A level only)




Learning Outcome			
Homeostasis in mammals involves physiological control systems that maintain the internal environment within restricted limits			
The importance of maintaining a stable core temperature and stable blood pH in relation to enzyme activity			
The importance of maintaining a stable blood glucose concentration in terms of availability of respiratory substrate and of the water potential of blood			
Negative feedback restores systems to their original level			
The possession of separate mechanisms involving negative feedback controls departures in different directions from the original state, giving a greater degree of control			
Be able to interpret information relating to examples of negative and positive feedback			



Control of blood glucose concentration (A level only)

Learning Outcome			
The factors that influence blood glucose concentration			
The role of the liver in glycogenesis, glycogenolysis and gluconeogenesis			
The action of insulin by attaching to receptors on the surfaces of target cells, and controlling the uptake of glucose by regulating the inclusion of channel proteins in the surface membranes of target cells and activating enzymes involved in the conversion of glucose to glycogen			
The action of glucagon by attaching to receptors on the surfaces of target cells, activating enzymes involved in the conversion of glycogen to glucose, and activating enzymes involved in the conversion of glycerol and amino acids into glucose			
The role of adrenaline by attaching to receptors on the surfaces of target cells, and activating enzymes involved in the conversion of glycogen to glucose			
The second messenger model of adrenaline and glucagon action, involving adenylate cyclase, cyclic AMP (cAMP) and protein kinase			
The causes of types I and II diabetes and their control by insulin and/or manipulation of the diet			
Be able to evaluate the positions of health advisers and the food industry in relation to the increased incidence of type II diabetes			
Required practical 11: Production of a dilution series of a glucose solution and use of colorimetric techniques to produce a calibration curve with which to identify the concentration of glucose in an unknown 'urine' sample			




Control of blood water potential (A level only)

Learning Outcome			
Osmoregulation as control of the water potential of the blood			
The roles of the hypothalamus, posterior pituitary and antidiuretic hormone (ADH) in osmoregulation			
The structure of the nephron and its role in the formation of glomerular filtrate, reabsorption of glucose and water by the proximal convoluted tubule, maintaining a gradient of sodium ions in the medulla by the loop of Henle, and the reabsorption of water by the distal convoluted tubule and collecting ducts			






Genetics, Populations, Evolution and Ecosystems (A level Only)

Inheritance (A level only)




Learning Outcome			
The genotype is the genetic constitution of an organism			
The phenotype is the expression of this genetic constitution and its interaction with the environment			
There may be many alleles of a single gene			
Alleles may be dominant, recessive or codominant			
In a diploid organism, the alleles at a specific locus may be either homozygous or heterozygous			
The use of fully labelled genetic diagrams to interpret, or predict, the results of monohybrid and dihybrid crosses involving dominant, recessive and codominant alleles, and crosses involving sex-linkage, autosomal linkage, multiple alleles and epistasis			
Use of the chi-squared (χ^2) test to compare the goodness of fit of observed phenotypic ratios with expected ratios			

Populations (A level only)

Learning Outcome			
Species exist as one or more populations			
A population as a group of organisms of the same species occupying a particular space at a particular time that can potentially interbreed			
The concepts of gene pool and allele frequency			
The Hardy–Weinberg principle provides a mathematical model, which predicts that allele frequencies will not change from generation to generation. The conditions under which the principle applies			
The frequency of alleles, genotypes and phenotypes in a population can be calculated using the Hardy–Weinberg equation: $p^2 + 2pq + q^2 = 1$			
Where p is the frequency of one (usually the dominant) allele and q is the frequency of the other (usually recessive) allele of the gene			






Evolution may lead to Speciation (A level only)

Learning Outcome			
Individuals within a population of a species may show a wide range of variation in phenotype. This is due to genetic and environmental factors. The primary source of genetic variation is mutation. Meiosis and the random fertilisation of gametes during sexual reproduction produce further genetic variation			
Predation, disease and competition for the means of survival result in differential survival and reproduction, ie natural selection			
Those organisms with phenotypes providing selective advantages are likely to produce more offspring and pass on their favourable alleles to the next generation. The effect of this differential reproductive success on the allele frequencies within a gene pool			
The effects of stabilising, directional and disruptive selection			
Evolution as a change in the allele frequencies in a population			
Reproductive separation of two populations can result in the accumulation of difference in their gene pools. New species arise when these genetic differences lead to an inability of members of the populations to interbreed and produce fertile offspring. In this way, new species arise from existing species			
Allopatric and sympatric speciation			
The importance of genetic drift in causing changes in allele frequency in small populations			
Be able to explain why individuals within a population of a species may show a wide range of variation in phenotype			
Be able to explain why genetic drift is important only in small populations			
Be able to explain how natural selection and isolation may result in change in the allele and phenotype frequency and lead to the formation of a new species			
Be able to explain how evolutionary change over a long period of time has resulted in a great diversity of species			






Populations in Ecosystems (A level only)

Learning Outcome			
Populations of different species form a community. A community and the non-living components of its environment together form an ecosystem. Ecosystems can range in size from the very small to the very large			
Within a habitat, a species occupies a niche governed by adaptation to both abiotic and biotic conditions			
An ecosystem supports a certain size of population of a species, called the carrying capacity. This population size can vary as a result of the effect of abiotic factors and interactions between organisms: interspecific and intraspecific competition and predation			
The size of a population can be estimated using randomly placed quadrats, or quadrats along a belt transect, for slow-moving or non-motile organisms and the mark-release-recapture method for motile organisms. The assumptions made when using the mark-release-recapture method			
Ecosystems are dynamic systems			
Primary succession, from colonisation by pioneer species to climax community			
At each stage in succession, certain species may be recognised which change the environment so that it becomes more suitable for other species with different adaptations. The new species may change the environment in such a way that it becomes less suitable for the previous species			
Changes that organisms produce in their abiotic environment can result in a less hostile environment and change biodiversity			
Conservation of habitats frequently involves management of succession			
Be able to show understanding of the need to manage the conflict between human needs and conservation in order to maintain the sustainability of natural resources			
Be able to evaluate evidence and data concerning issues relating to the conservation of species and habitats and consider conflicting evidence			
Be able to use given data to calculate the size of a population estimated using the mark-release-recapture method			
Required practical 12: Investigation into the effect of a named environmental factor on the distribution of a given species			






The Control of Gene Expression (A level Only)

Alteration of the sequence of bases in DNA can alter the structure of proteins (A level only)

Learning Outcome			
Gene mutations might arise during DNA replication. They include addition, deletion, substitution, inversion, duplication and translocation of bases			
Gene mutations occur spontaneously. The mutation rate is increased by mutagenic agents. Mutations can result in a different amino acid sequence in the encoded polypeptide			
Some gene mutations change only one triplet code. Due to the degenerate nature of the genetic code, not all such mutations result in a change to the encoded amino acid			
Some gene mutations change the nature of all base triplets downstream from the mutation, ie result in a frame shift			
Be able to relate the nature of a gene mutation to its effect on the encoded polypeptide			




Gene expression is controlled by a number of features (A level only)

Most of a cell's DNA is not translated (A level only)




Learning Outcome			
Totipotent cells can divide and produce any type of body cell			
During development, totipotent cells translate only part of their DNA, resulting in cell specialisation			
Totipotent cells occur only for a limited time in early mammalian embryos			
Pluripotent cells are found in embryos; multipotent and unipotent cells are found in mature mammals and can divide to form a limited number of different cell types			
Pluripotent stem cells can divide in unlimited numbers and can be used in treating human disorders			
Unipotent cells, exemplified by the formation of cardiomyocytes			
Induced pluripotent stem cells (iPS cells) can be produced from adult somatic cells using appropriate protein transcription factors			
Be able to evaluate the use of stem cells in treating human disorders			



Regulation of transcription and translation (A level only)




Learning Outcome			
In eukaryotes, transcription of target genes can be stimulated or inhibited when specific transcriptional factors move from the cytoplasm into the nucleus. The role of the steroid hormone, oestrogen, in initiating transcription			
Epigenetic control of gene expression in eukaryotes			
Epigenetics involves heritable changes in gene function, without changes to the base sequence of DNA. These changes are caused by changes in the environment that inhibit transcription by increased methylation of the DNA, or decreased acetylation of associated histones			
The relevance of epigenetics on the development and treatment of disease, especially cancer			
In eukaryotes and some prokaryotes, translation of the mRNA produced from target genes can be inhibited by RNA interference (RNAi)			
Be able to interpret data provided from investigations into gene expression			
Be able to evaluate appropriate data for the relative influences of genetic and environmental factors on phenotype			

Gene expression and cancer (A level only)

Learning Outcome			
The main characteristics of benign and malignant tumours			
The role of the following in the development of tumours: Tumour suppressor genes and oncogenes, abnormal methylation of tumour suppressor genes and oncogenes, and increased oestrogen concentrations in the development of some breast cancers			
Be able to evaluate evidence showing correlations between genetic and environmental factors and various forms of cancer			
Be able to interpret information relating to the way in which an understanding of the roles of oncogenes and tumour suppressor genes could be used in the prevention, treatment and cure of cancer			






Using Genome Projects (A level only)

Learning Outcome			
Sequencing projects have read the genomes of a wide range of organisms, including humans			
Determining the genome of simpler organisms allows the sequences of the proteins that derive from the genetic code (the proteome) of the organism to be determined. This may have many applications, including the identification of potential antigens for use in vaccine production			
In more complex organisms, the presence of non-coding DNA and of regulatory genes means that knowledge of the genome cannot easily be translated into the proteome			
Sequencing methods are continuously updated and have become automated			






Gene technologies allow the study and alteration of gene function allowing a better understanding of organism function and the design of new industrial and medical processes (A level only)

Recombinant DNA technology (A level only)




Learning Outcome			
Recombinant DNA technology involves the transfer of fragments of DNA from one organism, or species, to another. Since the genetic code is universal, as are transcription and translation mechanisms, the transferred DNA can be translated within cells of the recipient (transgenic) organism			
Fragments of DNA can be produced by several methods, including the conversion of mRNA to complementary DNA (cDNA), using reverse transcriptase, using restriction enzymes to cut a fragment containing the desired gene from DNA and creating the gene in a 'gene machine'			
Fragments of DNA can be amplified by in vitro and in vivo techniques			
The principles of the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) as an in vitro method to amplify DNA fragments			
The culture of transformed host cells as an in vivo method to amplify DNA fragments			
The addition of promoter and terminator regions to the fragments of DNA			
The use of restriction endonucleases and ligases to insert fragments of DNA into vectors. Transformation of host cells using these vectors			
The use of marker genes to detect genetically modified (GM) cells or organisms. You will not be required to recall specific marker genes in a written paper			
Be able to interpret information relating to the use of recombinant DNA technology			
Be able to evaluate the ethical, financial and social issues associated with the use and ownership of recombinant DNA technology in agriculture, in industry and in medicine			
Be able to balance the humanitarian aspects of recombinant DNA technology with the opposition from environmentalists and anti-globalisation activists			
Be able to relate recombinant DNA technology to gene therapy			



Differences in DNA between individuals of the same species can be exploited for identification and diagnosis of heritable conditions (A level only)

Learning Outcome			
The use of labelled DNA probes and DNA hybridisation to locate specific alleles of genes			
The use of labelled DNA probes that can be used to screen patients for heritable conditions, drug responses or health risks			
The use of this information in genetic counselling and personalised medicine			
Be able to evaluate information relating to screening individuals for genetically determined conditions and drug responses			

Genetic fingerprinting (A level only)

Learning Outcome			
An organism's genome contains many variable number tandem repeats (VNTRs). The probability of two individuals having the same VNTRs is very low			
The technique of genetic fingerprinting in analysing DNA fragments that have been cloned by PCR, and its use in determining genetic relationships and in determining the genetic variability within a population			
The use of genetic fingerprinting in the fields of forensic science, medical diagnosis, animal and plant breeding			
Be able to explain the biological principles that underpin genetic fingerprinting techniques			
Be able to interpret data showing the results of gel electrophoresis to separate DNA fragments			
Be able to explain why scientists might use genetic fingerprinting in the fields of forensic science, medical diagnosis, animal and plant breeding			

