

Biology: AQA

Year 1 Revision Checklist

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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 **V**. To help you keep track of your progress, we've also added a simple scoring system:



Master Checklist

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Biological Molecules

Monomers and Polymers

-		
Learning Outcome	H	•
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	P	T	•
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	M	7	•
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

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Learning Outcome	(a)	7	•
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			
Students should be able to relate the structure of proteins to properties of proteins named throughout the specification			

Many proteins are enzymes			
Learning Outcome	(h)	Y	•
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	()	7	4
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	(i)	7	•
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 of the breakage of hydrogen bonds between complementary bases in the polynucleotide strands			
The process of semi-conservative replication of DNA in terms of the role of DNA helicase in unwinding DNA and breaking its hydrogen bonds			
The process of semi-conservative replication of DNA in terms of 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 of 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	Č.	+	•
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	M	+	•
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	(a)	H	*
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	P	7	•
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	P	X	•
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 of 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	H	•
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	M	T	4
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	(A)	7	•
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	7	
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	P	7	•
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	(h)	7	•
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	P	7	•
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	7	•
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 an organ within such a system		

Mass transport in plants			
Learning Outcome	Œ.	H	•
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	P	7	*
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 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	(h)	7	•
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, how genetically different daughter cells result from the independent segregation of homologous chromosomes, and how 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	n	T	•
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, and that many mutations are harmful, but in certain environments the new allele of a gene might benefit its possessor, leading to increased reproductive success, and that 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	P	7	•	
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		H	•		
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: $d = (N(N-1)) / (\Sigma n(n-1))$, where $N = \text{total number of organisms of all species, and } n = \text{total number of organisms of each species}$					
Farming techniques reduce biodiversity. The balance between conservation and farming					

Investigating Diversity				
Learning Outcome	M	Y	•	
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, and interpreting mean values and their standard deviations. You will not be required to calculate standard deviations in written papers				