

AQA

Biology

Third edition



Ann Fullick

Andrea Coates

Editor: Lawrie Ryan

OXFORD

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Contents

This book has been written for the AQA GCSE Biology and AQA GCSE Combined Science: Trilogy courses, making them completely co-teachable. Biology only lessons are easily identifiable with their own black-bordered design, and are also formatted in italics in the below contents list for quick access.

Required practicals	vi	B4.9	Factors affecting transpiration	68
How to use this book	vii – viii	B4	Summary questions	70
Kerboodle	ix	B4	Practice questions	71

1 Cells and organisation	2	2 Disease and bioenergetics	72
Chapter B1 Cell structure and transport	4	Chapter B5 Communicable diseases	74
B1.1 The world of the microscope	4	B5.1 Health and disease	74
B1.2 Animal and plant cells	6	B5.2 Pathogens and disease	76
B1.3 Eukaryotic and prokaryotic cells	8	B5.3 <i>Growing bacteria in the lab</i>	78
B1.4 Specialisation in animal cells	10	B5.4 <i>Preventing bacterial growth</i>	80
B1.5 Specialisation in plant cells	12	B5.5 Preventing infections	82
B1.6 Diffusion	14	B5.6 Viral diseases	84
B1.7 Osmosis	16	B5.7 Bacterial diseases	86
B1.8 Osmosis in plants	18	B5.8 Diseases caused by fungi and protists	88
B1.9 Active transport	20	B5.9 Human defence responses	90
B1.10 Exchanging materials	22	B5.10 <i>More about plant diseases</i>	92
B1 Summary questions	24	B5.11 <i>Plant defence responses</i>	94
B1 Practice questions	25	B5 Summary questions	96
	26	B5 Practice questions	97
Chapter B2 Cell division			
B2.1 Cell division	26	Chapter B6 Preventing and treating disease	98
B2.2 Growth and differentiation	28	B6.1 Vaccination	98
B2.3 Stem cells	30	B6.2 Antibiotics and painkillers	100
B2.4 Stem cell dilemmas	32	B6.3 Discovering drugs	102
B2 Summary questions	34	B6.4 Developing drugs	104
B2 Practice questions	35	B6.5 <i>Making monoclonal antibodies</i>	106
	36	B6.6 <i>Uses of monoclonal antibodies</i>	108
Chapter B3 Organisation and the digestive system		B6 Summary questions	110
B3.1 Tissues and organs	36	B6 Practice questions	111
B3.2 The human digestive system	38		
B3.3 The chemistry of food	40	Chapter B7 Non-communicable diseases	112
B3.4 Catalysts and enzymes	42	B7.1 Non-communicable diseases	112
B3.5 Factors affecting enzyme action	44	B7.2 Cancer	114
B3.6 How the digestive system works	46	B7.3 Smoking and the risk of disease	116
B3.7 Making digestion efficient	48	B7.4 Diet, exercise, and disease	118
B3 Summary questions	50	B7.5 Alcohol and other carcinogens	120
B3 Practice questions	51	B7 Summary questions	122
	52	B7 Practice questions	123
Chapter B4 Organising animals and plants			
B4.1 The blood	52	Chapter B8 Photosynthesis	124
B4.2 The blood vessels	54	B8.1 Photosynthesis	124
B4.3 The heart	56	B8.2 The rate of photosynthesis	126
B4.4 Helping the heart	58	B8.3 How plants use glucose	128
B4.5 Breathing and gas exchange	60	B8.4 Making the most of photosynthesis	130
B4.6 Tissues and organs in plants	62	B8 Summary questions	132
B4.7 Transport systems in plants	64	B8 Practice questions	133
B4.8 Evaporation and transpiration	66		

Chapter B9 Respiration	134	B13.5	<i>DNA structure and protein synthesis</i>	204	
B9.1	Aerobic respiration	134	B13.6	<i>Gene expression and mutation</i>	206
B9.2	The response to exercise	136	B13.7	<i>Inheritance in action</i>	208
B9.3	Anaerobic respiration	138	B13.8	<i>More about genetics</i>	210
B9.4	Metabolism and the liver	140	B13.9	<i>Inherited disorders</i>	212
	B9 Summary questions	142	B13.10	<i>Screening for genetic disorders</i>	214
	B9 Practice questions	143		B13 Summary questions	216
				B13 Practice questions	217
3 Biological responses	144				
Chapter B10 The human nervous system	146		Chapter B14 Variation and evolution	218	
B10.1	Principles of homeostasis	146	B14.1	<i>Variation</i>	218
B10.2	The structure and function of the nervous system	148	B14.2	<i>Evolution by natural selection</i>	220
B10.3	Reflex actions	150	B14.3	<i>Selective breeding</i>	222
B10.4	<i>The brain</i>	152	B14.4	<i>Genetic engineering</i>	224
B10.5	<i>The eye</i>	154	B14.5	<i>Cloning</i>	226
B10.6	<i>Common problems of the eye</i>	156	B14.6	<i>Adult cell cloning</i>	228
	B10 Summary questions	158	B14.7	<i>Ethics of genetic technologies</i>	230
	B10 Practice questions	159		B14 Summary questions	232
				B14 Practice questions	233
Chapter B11 Hormonal coordination	160		Chapter B15 Genetics and evolution	234	
B11.1	Principles of hormonal control	160	B15.1	<i>The history of genetics</i>	234
B11.2	The control of blood glucose levels	162	B15.2	<i>Theories of evolution</i>	236
B11.3	Treating diabetes	164	B15.3	<i>Accepting Darwin's ideas</i>	238
B11.4	The role of negative feedback	166	B15.4	<i>Evolution and speciation</i>	240
B11.5	Human reproduction	168	B15.5	<i>Evidence for evolution</i>	242
B11.6	Hormones and the menstrual cycle	170	B15.6	<i>Fossils and extinction</i>	244
B11.7	The artificial control of fertility	172	B15.7	<i>More about extinction</i>	246
B11.8	Infertility treatments	174	B15.8	<i>Antibiotic resistant bacteria</i>	248
B11.9	<i>Plant hormones and responses</i>	176	B15.9	<i>Classification</i>	250
B11.10	<i>Using plant hormones</i>	178	B15.10	<i>New systems of classification</i>	252
	B11 Summary questions	180		B15 Summary questions	254
	B11 Practice questions	181		B15 Practice questions	255
Chapter B12 Homeostasis in action	182				
B12.1	<i>Controlling body temperature</i>	182	5 Ecology	256	
B12.2	<i>Removing waste products</i>	184	Chapter B16 Adaptations, interdependence, and competition	258	
B12.3	<i>The human kidney</i>	186	B16.1	<i>The importance of communities</i>	258
B12.4	<i>Dialysis – an artificial kidney</i>	188	B16.2	<i>Organisms in their environment</i>	260
B12.5	<i>Kidney transplants</i>	190	B16.3	<i>Distribution and abundance</i>	262
	B12 Summary questions	192	B16.4	<i>Competition in animals</i>	264
	B12 Practice questions	193	B16.5	<i>Competition in plants</i>	266
4 Genetics and reproduction	194		B16.6	<i>Adapt and survive</i>	268
Chapter B13 Reproduction	196		B16.7	<i>Adaptation in animals</i>	270
B13.1	Types of reproduction	196	B16.8	<i>Adaptations in plants</i>	272
B13.2	Cell division in sexual reproduction	198		B16 Summary questions	274
B13.3	<i>The best of both worlds</i>	200		B16 Practice questions	275
B13.4	DNA and the genome	202			

Chapter B17 Organising an ecosystem	276
B17.1 Feeding relationships	276
B17.2 Materials cycling	278
B17.3 The carbon cycle	280
B17.4 <i>Rates of decomposition</i>	282
B17 Summary questions	284
B17 Practice questions	285
Chapter B18 Biodiversity and ecosystems	286
B18.1 The human population explosion	286
B18.2 Land and water pollution	288
B18.3 Air pollution	290
B18.4 Deforestation and peat destruction	292
B18.5 Global warming	294
B18.6 <i>The impact of change</i>	296
B18.7 Maintaining biodiversity	298
B18.8 <i>Trophic levels and biomass</i>	300
B18.9 <i>Biomass transfers</i>	302
B18.10 <i>Factors affecting food security</i>	304
B18.11 <i>Making food production efficient</i>	306
B18.12 <i>Sustainable food production</i>	308
B18 Summary questions	310
B18 Practice questions	311
Paper 1 questions	312
Paper 2 questions	316
Mathematical skills	320
MS1 Arithmetic and numerical computation	320
MS2 Handling data	325
MS3 Algebra	332
MS4 Graphs	333
MS5 Geometry and trigonometry	335
Working scientifically	337
Glossary	344
Index	348

Required Practicals

Practical work is a vital part of biology, helping to support and apply your scientific knowledge, and develop your investigative and practical skills. As part of your GCSE Biology course, there are 10 required practicals you must carry out. Questions in your exams could draw on any of the knowledge and skills you have developed in carrying out these practicals.

A Required practical feature box has been included in this student book for each of your required practicals. Further support is available on Kerboodle.

Required practical	Topic
1 Using a light microscope. Use a light microscope to observe, draw, and label a selection of plant and animal cells and include a scale magnification.	B1.2
2 Investigating the effect of antiseptics or antibiotics on bacterial growth. Use agar plates and measure the zones of inhibition produced around colonies.	B5.4
3 Investigate the effect of a range of concentrations of salt or sugar solutions on the mass of plant tissue. Investigate osmosis by measuring how the mass of plant tissue changes in a range of concentrations of salt or sugar solutions.	B1.8
4 Use standard food tests to identify food groups. Detect sugars, starch, and proteins in food using Benedict's test, the iodine test, and Biuret reagent.	B3.3
5 Investigate the effect of pH on the rate of reaction of amylase enzyme. Students should use a continuous sampling technique to determine the time taken to completely digest a starch solution at a range of pH values.	B3.6
6 Investigate the effect of light intensity on the rate of photosynthesis Use an aquatic plant to observe the effect light intensity has on the rate of photosynthesis.	B8.2
7 Investigate the effect of a factor on human reaction time. Plan and carry out an investigation, choosing appropriate ways to measure reaction time and considering the risks and ethics of the investigation.	B10.2
8 Investigate the effect of light or gravity on the growth of newly germinated seedlings. Record results both as length measurements and as accurate, labelled biological drawings to show the effects.	B11.9
9 Measure the population size of a common species in a habitat. Use sampling techniques to investigate the effect of a factor on the distribution of this species.	B16.3
10 Investigate the effect of temperature on the rate of decay of fresh milk. Measure the pH change of milk to investigate how temperature affects its rate of decay.	B17.4

How to use this book

Learning objectives

- Learning objectives at the start of each spread tell you the content that you will cover.
- Any outcomes marked with the higher tier icon  are only relevant to those who are sitting the higher tier exams.

Synoptic link

Synoptic links show how the content of a topic links to other parts of the course. This will support you with the synoptic element of your assessment.

There are also links to the Maths skills for biology chapter, so you can develop your maths skills whilst you study.

Study tip

Hints giving you advice on things you need to know and remember, and what to watch out for.

Go further

Go further feature boxes encourage you to think about science you have learnt in a different context and introduce you to science beyond the specification. You do not need to learn any of the content in a Go further box.

Key points

Linking to the Learning objectives, the Key points boxes summarise what you should be able to do at the end of the topic. They can be used to help you with revision.

This book has been written by subject experts to match the new 2016 specifications. It is packed full of features to help you prepare for your course and achieve the very best you can.

Key words are highlighted in the text. You can look them up in the glossary at the back of the book if you are not sure what they mean.

Many diagrams are as important for your understanding as the text, so make sure you revise them carefully.

Practical

Practicals are a great way for you to see science in action for yourself. These boxes may be a simple introduction or reminder, or they may be the basis for a practical in the classroom. They will help your understanding of the course.

Required practical

These practicals have important skills that you will need to be confident with for part of your assessment. Your teacher will give you additional information about tackling these practicals.

Anything in the Higher Tier spreads and boxes must be learnt by those sitting the higher tier exam. If you will be sitting foundation tier, you will not be assessed on this content.

Using maths

This feature highlights and explains the key maths skills you need. There are also clear step-by-step worked examples.

Summary questions

Each topic has summary questions. These questions give you the chance to test whether you have learnt and understood everything in the topic. The questions start off easier and get harder, so that you can stretch yourself.

The Literacy pen  shows activities or questions that help you develop literacy skills.

Any questions marked with the higher tier icon  are for students sitting the higher tier exams.

Higher



Working Scientifically

more confidence in your data if the results are obtained by different investigators using different equipment, making your measurements repeatable.

The most important thing you are measuring is the actual thing you want to measure. If your data can be used to answer your original question, this seems very obvious, but it is not always easy to get this right. There may be other factors that affect your results that you can't see. Then remember that your investigation and hence the data you collect are just one part of the whole picture.

How might an independent variable be linked to a dependent variable?

- The independent variable is the one you choose to vary in your investigation.

How might an outcome be used to judge the effects of varying the independent variable?

- These could be like the properties of the results against the test, e.g. are things bigger or smaller than others, longer? It might be:
 - changing the size of the independent variable
 - changing the time taken between them, but never the order of change.

Starting an investigation

Starters use observations to ask questions. You can only use useful observations if they are accurate. If you have a question, then start here. If you have all the answers, then you will know enough to start testing the question.

When you are choosing an investigation, you have to consider carefully which variables may be relevant.

Study tip

Observations, measurements, and predictions based on creative thinking and good scientific knowledge can lead to hypotheses.

Figure 1 Gas mask

A gas mask.

Figure 2 Safety glasses

Safety glasses.

Figure 3 Laboratory glassware

Laboratory glassware.

Maths skills for Biology

MS1 Arithmetic and numerical computation

Learning objectives**After this topic, you should know:**

- recognise and use expressions involving:
 - determinants
 - brackets and use expressions involving:
 - standardisation
 - conversion factors
 - ratios, fractions and percentages
 - make estimates of the results of calculations

1a Decimal form

Most of the time we use decimal numbers to measure things, for example, when you make measurements in biology. This chapter will introduce you to some of the ways of writing numbers in decimal form.

When you make measurements in biology, the numbers you write down will be between whole numbers. These are fractions, or decimal numbers, for example, the height of a toy could be 1.54 cm, or the mass of a small number could be 0.001 g.

These are called decimal numbers because they are based on powers of ten. For example 7.0 is a decimal number between 1 and 10. But 0.001 is a decimal number between 0 and 1.

• make a decimal number between 1 and 10 that includes 0.001, for example 7.0

• make a decimal number between 0 and 1, for example 0.001

Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, litres.

Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, metres.

1b Standard form

Very large and very small numbers are called standard form. These numbers are not large or small to understand when they are written as ordinary numbers. Some numbers are very large, like the mass of the Sun, or the mass of the Earth. Other numbers are very small, such as the size of a single atom.

Standard form is also called scientific notation. It is often very large, or very small numbers written in standard form, in numbers written as $a \times 10^n$.

• write a decimal number between 1 and 10 that includes 0.001, for example 7.0

• make a decimal number between 0 and 1, for example 0.001

Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, litres.

Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, metres.

1c Using calculators

Using calculators can help you to calculate more accurately. You can use calculators to help you to calculate more accurately. You can use calculators to help you to calculate more accurately.

Some calculators have buttons for scientific notation. These are used to enter large or small numbers.

• use a calculator to enter a large or small number in standard form.

• use a calculator to enter a large or small number in standard form.

Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, litres.

Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, metres.

1d Using a calculator to calculate percentages

Using a calculator to calculate percentages can help you to calculate more accurately. You can use a calculator to calculate more accurately.

• use a calculator to calculate a percentage.

• use a calculator to calculate a percentage.

Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, litres.

Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, metres.

1e Using a calculator to calculate averages

Using a calculator to calculate averages can help you to calculate more accurately. You can use a calculator to calculate more accurately.

• use a calculator to calculate an average.

• use a calculator to calculate an average.

Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, litres.

Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, metres.

1f Using a calculator to calculate areas and volumes

Using a calculator to calculate areas and volumes can help you to calculate more accurately. You can use a calculator to calculate more accurately.

• use a calculator to calculate an area.

• use a calculator to calculate a volume.

Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, litres.

Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, metres.

1g Using a calculator to calculate density

Using a calculator to calculate density can help you to calculate more accurately. You can use a calculator to calculate more accurately.

• use a calculator to calculate a density.

• use a calculator to calculate a density.

Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, litres.

Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, metres.

1h Using a calculator to calculate concentration

Using a calculator to calculate concentration can help you to calculate more accurately. You can use a calculator to calculate more accurately.

• use a calculator to calculate a concentration.

• use a calculator to calculate a concentration.

Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, litres.

Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, metres.

1i Using a calculator to calculate energy

Using a calculator to calculate energy can help you to calculate more accurately. You can use a calculator to calculate more accurately.

• use a calculator to calculate an energy.

• use a calculator to calculate an energy.

Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, litres.

Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, metres.

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Using a calculator to calculate pH can help you to calculate more accurately. You can use a calculator to calculate more accurately.

• use a calculator to calculate a pH.

• use a calculator to calculate a pH.

Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, litres.

Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, metres.

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Using a calculator to calculate energy density can help you to calculate more accurately. You can use a calculator to calculate more accurately.

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Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, litres.

Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, metres.

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Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, metres.

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Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, metres.

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Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, litres.

Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, metres.

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Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, metres.

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Remember to use the unit if applicable, for example, litres.

Remember to use the unit

Kerboodle

This book is also supported by Kerboodle, offering unrivalled digital support for building your practical, maths and literacy skills.

If your school subscribes to Kerboodle, you will find a wealth of additional resources to help you with your studies and revision:

- animations, videos, and revision podcasts
- webquests
- maths and literacy skills activities and worksheets
- on your marks activities to help you achieve your best
- practicals and follow-up activities
- interactive quizzes that give question-by-question feedback
- self-assessment checklists

B1.9 Animation: Active transport
Click play to start the animation.

Acknowledgements
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Watch interesting animations on the trickiest topics, and answer questions afterward to check your understanding.

AQA Biology GCSE Student checklist

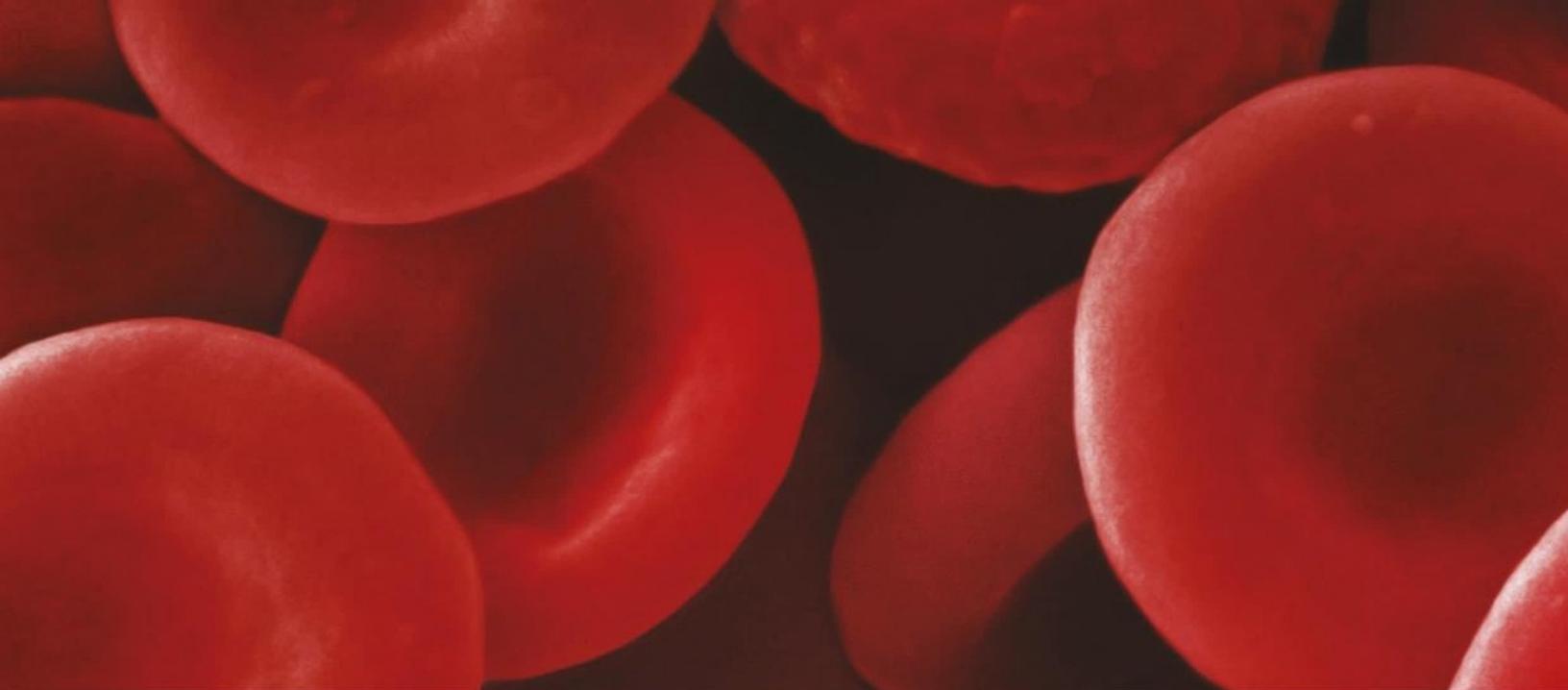
Name: _____ Class: _____ Date: _____ B2

Cell division

Lesson	Aiming for 4	Aiming for 6	Aiming for 8
B2.1 Cell division	I can state that human body cells have 46 chromosomes and gametes have 23. I can state that mitosis is a stage in cell division.	<input type="checkbox"/> I can explain why chromosomes in body cells are normally found in pairs. <input type="checkbox"/> I can describe situations where mitosis is occurring.	<input type="checkbox"/> I can explain why genetic material must be doubled during mitosis. <input type="checkbox"/> I can explain in detail what happens at each stage of the cell cycle.
	I can state the meaning of most of the keywords – mitosis, chromosomes, gene, gametes.	<input type="checkbox"/> I can use the keywords to describe the process of mitosis.	<input type="checkbox"/> I can use the keywords to write detailed explanations on why mitosis is an important process in living things and how characteristics are inherited.
B2.2 Growth and differentiation	I can define the terms growth and differentiation. I can state why plant clones are genetically identical to each other.	<input type="checkbox"/> I can describe the importance of cell differentiation in multicellular organisms. <input type="checkbox"/> I can explain how using tissue culture creates a clone of a plant.	<input type="checkbox"/> I can compare and contrast differentiation in plants and animals. <input type="checkbox"/> I can explain why it is easier to clone a plant compared to an animal.
	I can attempt to clone a plant by using apparatus correctly.	<input type="checkbox"/> I can attempt to clone a plant by using the apparatus correctly and following safety rules.	<input type="checkbox"/> I can explain and carry out a practical accurately and safely in order to successfully clone a plant.
B2.3 Stem cells	I can state that a stem cell is a cell that is not differentiated.	<input type="checkbox"/> I can describe differences between embryonic and adult stem cells.	<input type="checkbox"/> I can explain why embryonic stem cells are more useful for helping medical conditions.
	I can state that plant stem cells can be used to create clones.	<input type="checkbox"/> I can explain why plant clones are	<input type="checkbox"/> I can write a well-structured article about

Check your own progress with the self-assessment checklists.

If you are a teacher reading this, Kerboodle also has plenty of practical support, assessment resources, answers to the questions in the book, and a digital markbook along with full teacher support for practicals and the worksheets, which include suggestions on how to support and stretch your students. All of the resources that you need are pulled together into ready-to-use lesson presentations.



1 Cells and organisation

Living things range from microscopic organisms, to blue whales that can be 30 metres long, and to giant redwood trees that tower over 100 metres. Big or small, all living things are built up of basic building blocks known as cells. Every cell contains a similar mixture of chemical elements combined to make up the molecules of life.

Some organisms are single cells. Many others, including ourselves, contain billions of individual cells working together. In this section you will learn about the characteristics of these cells, and look at how they are organised so that even the largest organisms can carry out all of the functions of life.

Key questions

- What are the differences between eukaryotic and prokaryotic cells?
- How can stem cells be used in human medicine?
- What factors affect how an enzyme works?
- How can a stent prevent a heart attack?

Making connections

- You will learn how lifestyle factors such as smoking, alcohol, and exercise levels affect the health of your heart, lungs, and other organs in **B7 Non-communicable diseases**
- You will learn about how eukaryotic and prokaryotic organisms have evolved over time, how they are classified, and how they are still evolving in **B15 Genetics and evolution**.
- You will find out much more about the role of bacteria in animal and plant diseases in **B5 Communicable diseases**, about their importance in genetic engineering and evolution in **B14 Variation and evolution**, and about their importance in decomposition in **B17 Organising an ecosystem**.

I already know...

I will learn...

What cells look like under a light microscope.

What we can see under the electron microscope – and how to calculate magnification.

The similarities and differences between plant and animal cells.

The similarities and differences between prokaryotic and eukaryotic cells and orders of magnitude.

The role of diffusion in the movement of materials in and between cells.

The roles of osmosis and active transport in the movement of materials in and between cells.

Reproduction in animals and plants.

The type of cell division that forms the gametes and the way normal body cells grow and divide

The importance of the digestive system.

The way the structure of enzymes is related to their function.

The basic structure and function of the human gas exchange system.

Surface area: volume ratios and the adaptations of the alveoli of the lungs for effective gas exchange.

The mechanism of breathing.

The importance of ventilating the lungs and the gills of fish to maintain steep concentration gradients.

The role of the leaf stomata in gas exchange in plants.

How evaporation and transpiration are controlled in plants.

Required Practicals

Practical	Topic
1 Looking at cells	B1.2
3 Investigating osmosis in plant cells	B1.8
4 Food tests	B3.3
5 The effect of pH on the rate of reaction of amylase	B3.6

B 1 Cell structure and transport

1.1 The world of the microscope

Learning objectives

After this topic, you should know:

- how microscopy techniques have developed over time
- the differences in magnification and resolution between a light microscope and an electron microscope
- how to calculate the magnification, real size, and image size of a specimen.

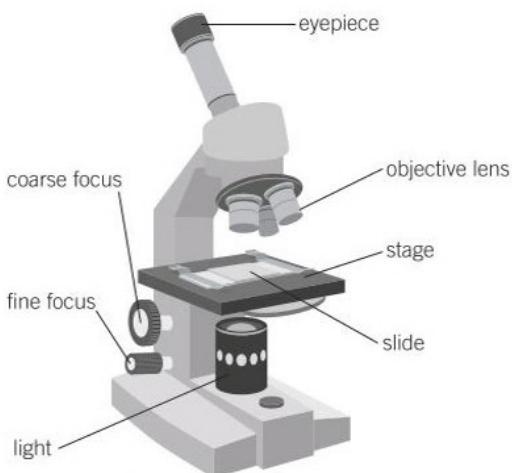


Figure 1 A light microscope

Living things are all made up of cells, but most cells are so small you can only see them using a microscope. It is important to grasp the units used for such tiny specimens before you start to look at them.

Using units

1 kilometre (km) = 1000 metres (m)

1 m = 100 centimetres (cm)

1 cm = 10 millimetres (mm)

1 mm = 1000 micrometres (μm)

1 μm = 1000 nanometres (nm) – so a nanometre is 0.000 000 001 metres (or written in standard form as 1×10^{-9} m).



The first light microscopes were developed in the mid-17th century. Their development has continued ever since and they are still widely used to look at cells. Light microscopes use a beam of light to form an image of an object and the best can magnify around 2000 times ($\times 2000$), although school microscopes usually only magnify several hundred times. They are relatively cheap, can be used almost anywhere, and can magnify live specimens (Figures 1 and 2).

The invention of the electron microscope in the 1930s allowed biologists to see and understand more about the subcellular structures inside cells. These instruments use a beam of electrons to form an image and can magnify objects up to around 2000 000 times. Transmission electron microscopes give 2D images with very high magnification and resolution. Scanning electron microscopes give dramatic 3D images but lower magnifications (Figure 3). Electron microscopes are large, very expensive, and have to be kept in special temperature, pressure, and humidity-controlled rooms.

Calculating magnification

You can calculate the magnification you are using with a light microscope very simply. You multiply the magnification of the eyepiece lens by the magnification of the objective lens. So if your eyepiece lens is $\times 4$ and your objective lens is $\times 10$, your overall magnification is:

$$4 \times 10 = \times 40$$

When you label drawings made using a microscope, make it clear that the magnification you give is the magnification at which you looked at the specimen (eg., as viewed at $\times 40$).

Calculating the size of an object

You will want to calculate the size of objects under the microscope. There is a simple formula for this, based on the magnification triangle.

As long as you know or can measure two of the factors, you can find the third.

$$\text{magnification} = \frac{\text{size of image}}{\text{size of real object}}$$

For example, if you know you are working at magnification $\times 40$, and the image of the cell you are looking at measures 1 mm, you can work out the actual diameter of the cell:

$$\text{size of real object} = \frac{\text{size of image}}{\text{magnification}}$$

so

$$= \frac{1}{40} \text{ mm} = 0.025 \text{ mm or } 25 \mu\text{m}$$

Your cell has a diameter of **25 μm** .

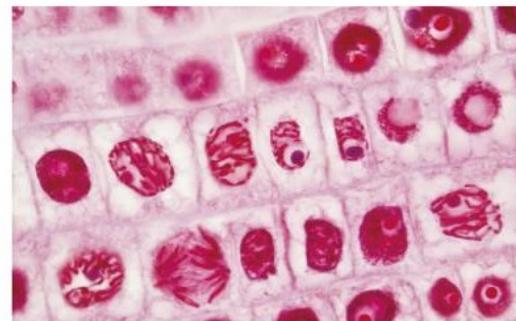
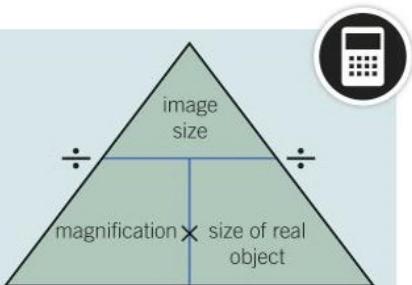


Figure 2 Onion cells dividing as seen through a light microscope – magnification $\times 570$



Figure 3 Chromosomes during cell division seen with a scanning electron microscope – magnification $\times 4500$

Magnifying and resolving power

Microscopes are useful because they magnify things, making them look bigger. The height of an average person magnified by one of the best light microscopes would look about 3.5 km, and by an electron microscope about 3500 km. There is, however, a minimum distance between two objects when you can see them clearly as two separate things. If they are closer together than this, they appear as one object. Resolution is the ability to distinguish between two separate points and it is the **resolving power** of a microscope that affects how much detail it can show. A light microscope has a resolving power of about 200 nm, a scanning electron microscope of about 10 nm and a transmission electron microscope of about 0.2 nm – that is approximately the distance apart of two atoms in a solid substance!

Synoptic links

You can learn more about writing very small or very large numbers in standard form in the Maths skills section in Topic M1b.

For more information on cell division look at Chapter B2.

Study tip

Make sure you can work out the magnification, the size of a cell, or the size of the image depending on the information you are given.

Key points

- Light microscopes magnify up to about $\times 2000$, and have a resolving power of about 200 nm.
- Electron microscopes magnify up to about $\times 2000\,000$, and have a resolving power of around 0.2 nm.
- $\text{magnification} = \frac{\text{size of image}}{\text{size of real object}}$

- Name one advantage and one disadvantage of using:
 - a light microscope [2 marks]
 - b an electron microscope. [2 marks]
- A student measured the diameter of a human capillary on a micrograph. The image measures 5 mm and the student knows the magnification is $\times 1000$. How many micrometres is the diameter of the capillary? [3 marks]
- A student is told the image of the cell has a diameter of 800 μm . The actual cell has a diameter of 20 μm . At what magnification has the cell been observed? [2 marks]
- Evaluate the use of an electron microscope and a light microscope, giving one example where each type of microscope might be used. [6 marks]



B1.2 Animal and plant cells

Learning objectives

After this topic, you should know:

- the main parts of animal cells
- the similarities and differences between plant and animal cells.

Synoptic link

You will find out more about classifying the living world in Chapter B16.



Go further

The ultrastructure of a cell – the details you can see under an electron microscope – includes structures such as the cytoskeleton, the Golgi apparatus, and the rough and smooth endoplasmic reticulum. They support and move the cell, modify and package proteins and lipids, and produce the chemicals that control the way your body works.

The cells that make up your body are typical animal cells. All cells have some features in common. You can see these features clearly in animal cells.

Animal cells – structure and function

The structure and functions of the parts that make up a cell have been made clear by the electron microscope (Figure 1). You will learn more about how their structure relates to their functions as you study more about specific organ systems during your GCSE Biology course. An average animal cell is around $10\text{--}30\ \mu\text{m}$ long (so it would take 100 000–300 000 cells to line up along the length of a metre ruler). Human beings are animals so human cells are just like most other animal cells, and you will see exactly the same structures inside them.

- The **nucleus** – controls all the activities of the cell and is surrounded by the nuclear membrane. It contains the genes on the chromosomes that carry the instructions for making the proteins needed to build new cells or new organisms. The average diameter is around $10\ \mu\text{m}$.
- The **cytoplasm** – a liquid gel in which the organelles are suspended and where most of the chemical reactions needed for life take place.
- The **cell membrane** – controls the passage of substances such as glucose and mineral ions into the cell. It also controls the movement of substances such as urea or hormones out of the cell.
- The **mitochondria** – structures in the cytoplasm where aerobic respiration takes place, releasing energy for the cell. They are very small: $1\text{--}2\ \mu\text{m}$ in length and only $0.2\text{--}0.7\ \mu\text{m}$ in diameter.
- The **ribosomes** – where protein synthesis takes place, making all the proteins needed in the cell.

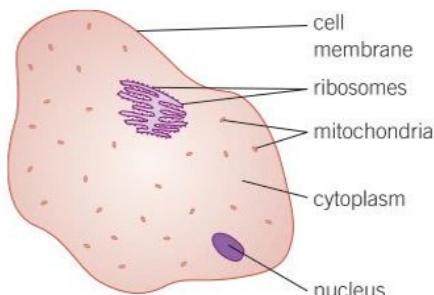
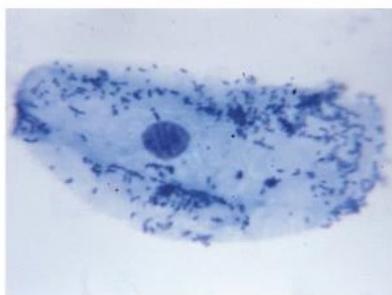


Figure 1 Diagrams of cells are much easier to understand than the real thing seen under a microscope. This picture shows a simple animal cheek cell magnified $\times 1350$ times under a light microscope. This is the way a model animal cell is drawn to show the main features common to most living cells

Study tip

Learn the parts of the cells shown on these diagrams, and their functions.

Plant cells – structure and function

Plants are very different organisms from animals. They make their own food by photosynthesis. They do not move their whole bodies about from one place to another. Plant cells are often rather bigger than animal cells – they range from 10 to $100\ \mu\text{m}$ in length.

Synoptic link



For more information on photosynthesis, look at Topic B8.1.

Plant cells have all the features of a typical animal cell, but they also contain features that are needed for their very different functions (Figures 2 and 3).

Algae are simple aquatic organisms. They also make their own food by photosynthesis and have many similar features to plant cells. For centuries they were classified as plants, but now they are classified as part of a different kingdom – the protista.

All plant and algal cells have a **cell wall** made of **cellulose** that strengthens the cell and gives it support.

Many (but not all) plant cells also have these other features:

- **Chloroplasts** are found in all the green parts of a plant. They are green because they contain the green substance **chlorophyll**. Chlorophyll absorbs light so the plant can make food by photosynthesis. Each chloroplast is around 3–5 µm long. Root cells do not have chloroplasts because they are underground and do not photosynthesise.
- A **permanent vacuole** is a space in the cytoplasm filled with cell sap. This is important for keeping the cells rigid to support the plant.

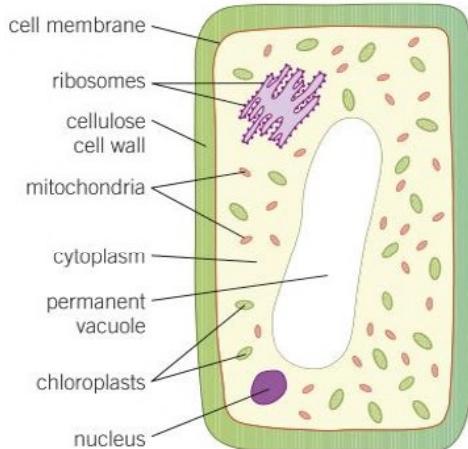


Figure 3 A plant cell has many features in common with an animal cell, as well as other features that are unique to plants

- 1 **a** Name the main structures you would expect to find in a human cell. [5 marks]
- b** Name the three extra features that may be found in plant cells but not animal cells. [3 marks]
- c** Describe the main functions of these three extra structures. [3 marks]
- 2 Suggest why the nucleus and the mitochondria are so important in all cells. [4 marks]
- 3 Chloroplasts are found in many plant cells but not all of them. Suggest two types of plant cells that are unlikely to have chloroplasts and in each case explain why they have none. [4 marks]



Figure 2 Algal cells contain a nucleus and chloroplasts so that they can photosynthesise

Looking at cells

Set up a microscope and observe, draw, and label examples of animal cells (e.g., cheek cells, Figure 1), algal cells (e.g., Figure 2) and plant cells (e.g., from onions or *Elodea*). In plant cells you should see the cell wall, the cytoplasm, and sometimes a vacuole. You will see chloroplasts in the *Elodea*, but not in the onion cells because they do not photosynthesise. Always show a scale magnification on your drawings.

Safety: if preparing your own cheek cells, please follow safety procedures.



Figure 4 Some of the common features of plant cells show up well under the light microscope. Here, the features are magnified ×40

Study tip

Remember that not all plant cells have chloroplasts.

Do not confuse chloroplasts and chlorophyll.

Key points

- Animal cell features common to all cells – a nucleus, cytoplasm, cell membrane, mitochondria, and ribosomes.
- Plant and algal cells contain all the structures seen in animal cells as well as a cellulose cell wall.
- Many plant cells also contain chloroplasts and a permanent vacuole filled with sap.



B1.3 Eukaryotic and prokaryotic cells

Learning objectives

After this topic, you should know:

- the similarities and differences between eukaryotic cells and prokaryotic cells
- how bacteria compare to animal and plant cells
- the size and scale of cells including order of magnitude calculations.

Synoptic link



You will learn more about growing colonies of bacteria on agar plates in Topic B5.3. You will learn more about bacteria that cause disease in Topic B5.7, and about bacteria that are important in the environment in Topic B17.2 and Topic B17.3.

Eukaryotic cells

Animal and plant cells are examples of **eukaryotic cells**. Eukaryotic cells all have a cell membrane, cytoplasm, and genetic material that is enclosed in a nucleus.

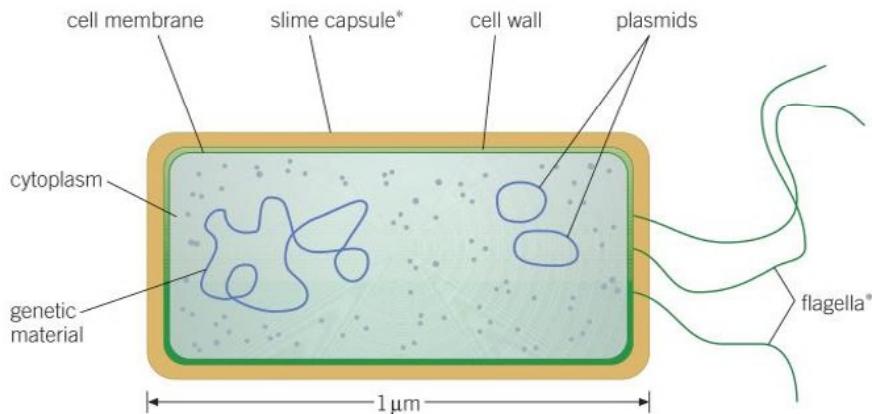
The genetic material is a chemical called DNA and this forms structures called chromosomes that are contained within the nucleus. All animals (including human beings), plants, fungi, and protista are eukaryotes.

Prokaryotes

Bacteria are single-celled living organisms. They are examples of prokaryotes. At 0.2–2.0 µm in length prokaryotes are 1–2 orders of magnitude smaller than eukaryotes. You could fit hundreds of thousands of bacteria on to the full stop at the end of this sentence, so you cannot see individual bacteria without a powerful microscope. When you culture bacteria on an agar plate, you grow many millions of bacteria. This enables you to see the bacterial colony with your naked eye.

Bacteria have cytoplasm and a cell membrane surrounded by a cell wall, but the cell wall does not contain the cellulose you see in plant cells. In prokaryotic cells the genetic material is not enclosed in a nucleus. The bacterial chromosome is a single DNA loop found free in the cytoplasm.

Prokaryotic cells may also contain extra small rings of DNA called plasmids. Plasmids code for very specific features such as antibiotic resistance.



*not always present

Figure 1 Bacteria come in a variety of shapes, but they all have the same basic structure

Some bacteria have a protective slime capsule around the outside of the cell wall. Some types of bacterium have at least one flagellum (plural: flagella), that is, a long protein strand that lashes about. These bacteria use their flagella to move themselves around.

Many bacteria have little or no effect on other organisms and many are very useful.

Go further

The plasmids found in bacteria are used extensively in genetic engineering to carry new genes into the genetic material of other organisms, ranging from bananas to sheep.

Some bacteria are harmful. Bacteria can cause diseases in humans and other animals and also in plants. They can also decompose and destroy stored food.

Relative sizes

In cell biology it is easy to forget just how small everything is – and how much bigger some cells are than others. It is also important to remember just how large the organisms built up from individual cells can be. Figure 2 shows you some relative sizes.

Orders of magnitude

Orders of magnitude are used to make approximate comparisons between numbers or objects. If one number is about 10 times bigger than another, it is an order of magnitude bigger. You show orders of magnitude using powers of 10. If one cell or organelle is 10 times bigger than another, it is an order of magnitude bigger or 10^1 . If it is approximately 100 times bigger it is two orders of magnitude bigger or 10^2 .

If you have two numbers to compare, as a rule of thumb you can work out orders of magnitude as follows:

If the bigger number divided by the smaller number is less than 10, then they are the same order of magnitude.

If the bigger number divided by the smaller number is around 10, then it is 10^1 or an order of magnitude bigger.

If the bigger number divided by the smaller number is around 100, then it is two orders of magnitude or 10^2 bigger.

Example:

A small animal cell has a length of around $10\text{ }\mu\text{m}$. A large plant cell has a length of around $100\text{ }\mu\text{m}$.

$$\frac{100}{10} = 10$$

So, a large plant cell is an order of magnitude or 10^1 bigger than a small animal cell.

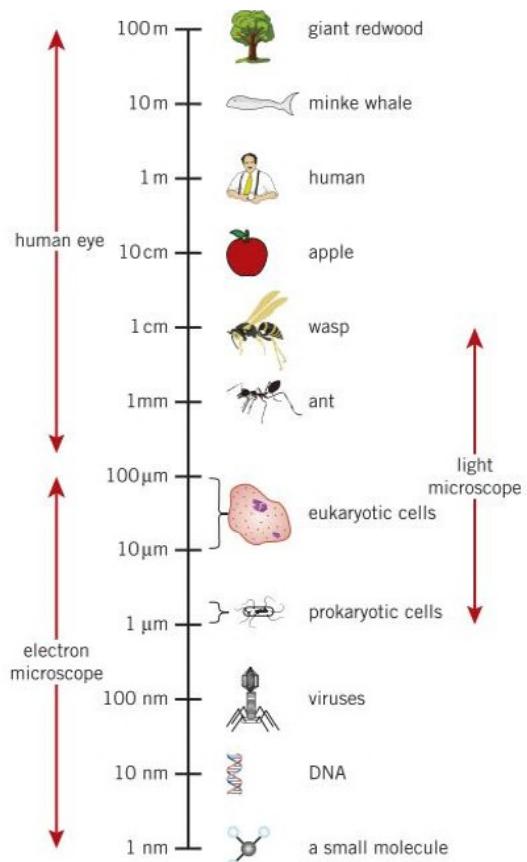


Figure 2 The relative sizes of different cells and whole organisms and how they can be seen

Study tip

Be clear about the similarities and differences between animal, plant, and bacterial cells and between eukaryotic cells and prokaryotic cells.

Key points

- 1 **a** Describe the difference between the genetic material in a prokaryotic cell and the genetic material in the eukaryotic cell. [2 marks]
- b** **i** Describe what flagella are. [1 mark]
- ii** Name one use of flagella in a prokaryote. [1 mark]
- 2 A cell nucleus has an average length of $6\text{ }\mu\text{m}$. Calculate the order of magnitude comparison between the nucleus of a cell and:
 - a** a small animal cell [2 marks]
 - b** a large plant cell. [2 marks]
- 3 Describe the similarities and differences between the features found in prokaryotic and eukaryotic plant and animal cells. [6 marks]

- Eukaryotic cells all have a cell membrane, cytoplasm, and genetic material enclosed in a nucleus.
- Prokaryotic cells consist of cytoplasm and a cell membrane surrounded by a cell wall. The genetic material is not in a distinct nucleus. It forms a single DNA loop. Prokaryotes may contain one or more extra small rings of DNA called plasmids.
- Bacteria are all prokaryotes.

B1.4 Specialisation in animal cells

Learning objectives

After this topic, you should know:

- how cells differentiate to form specialised cells
- animal cells may be specialised to carry out a particular function
- how the structure of different types of animal cells relates to their function.

Synoptic links

You can find out much more about the organisation of specialised cells into tissues, organs and organ systems in Topic B3.1 and Topic B3.2.



Synoptic link

You can find out more about specialised nerve cells in Chapter B10.



Observing specialised cells

Try looking at different specialised cells under a microscope.



When you look at a specialised cell, there are two useful questions you can ask yourself:

- How is this cell different in structure from a generalised cell?
- How does the difference in structure help the cell to carry out its function?

Although the smallest living organisms are only single cells, they can carry out all of the functions of life. Most organisms are bigger and are made up of lots of cells. Some of these cells become specialised to carry out particular jobs.

As an organism develops, cells differentiate to form different types of specialised cells. Most types of animal cells differentiate at an early stage of development, whereas many types of plant cells retain the ability to differentiate throughout life. As a cell differentiates, it gets different sub-cellular structures that enable it to carry out a particular function. It has become a specialised cell. Some specialised cells, such as egg and sperm cells, work individually. Others are adapted to work as part of a tissue, an organ, or a whole organism.

Nerve cells

Nerve cells are specialised to carry electrical impulses around the body of an animal (Figure 1). They provide a rapid communication system between the different parts of the body. They have several adaptations including:

- Lots of dendrites to make connections to other nerve cells.
- An axon that carries the nerve impulse from one place to another. They can be very long – the axon of a nerve cell in a blue whale can be up to 25 m long! The longest axon in your body runs from the base of your spine to your big toe.
- The nerve endings or synapses are adapted to pass the impulses to another cell or between a nerve cell and a muscle in the body using special transmitter chemicals. They contain lots of mitochondria to provide the energy needed to make the transmitter chemicals.

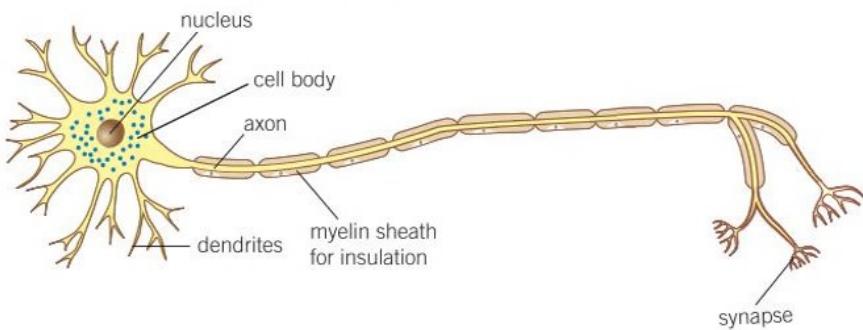


Figure 1 A nerve cell is specialised to carry electrical impulses from one part of the body to another

Muscle cells

Muscle cells are specialised cells that can contract and relax. Striated (striped) muscle cells work together in tissues called muscles (Figure 2). Muscles contract and relax in pairs to move the bones of the skeleton, so vertebrates can move on land and in water, and in some cases fly. Smooth muscle cells form one of the layers of tissue in your digestive system and they contract to squeeze the food through your gut.