

Bio Final Review

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1 General Information

1.1 Where and when

Friday, June 1st, 8:30 a.m. in the gym

1.2 Topics

Chapters 3-5 and 14-21

1.3 Format

Similar style to mid year exam, short answer and free-response. Free-response questions will require you to make connections between units.

2 Genetics

2.1 Sex-linked genes

These are genes located on the sex chromosomes. They will show different phenotype frequencies based on gender.

- (1) Gene A is on the X chromosome. A is the wild type, and α is the diseased type.

$X^A X^\alpha \times X^A Y$:

$X^A Y$	$X^\alpha Y$
$X^A X^A$	$X^\alpha X^A$

2.2 Pedigrees

- = Unaffected Female
- = Affected Female
- = Unaffected Male
- = Affected Male

Connecting lines on pedigrees work just as they do on family trees. Relatively simple logic can be used to determine the genotypes of each member of the pedigree; however, some can be more difficult than others. My general method is to use the “method of staring” in the words of Mr. Letarte.

2.3 Genetic Disorders – Sickle Cell, Cystic Fibrosis, Huntington’s

Sickle Cell

- Red blood cells contain hemoglobin, which bind O_2
- Hemoglobin is made up of two α -globin and two β -globin polypeptides
- Mutation in β -globin makes it slightly less soluble

- When O_2 is low, hemoglobin without O_2 will start to clump and form long fibers that will change the shape of the red blood cell, which will then get stuck in capillaries
- If one is a heterozygote of this disease, they have an advantage against malarial
- Sickle Cell disease is recessive, because its effects are not great enough with only some of the β -globin broken.

Cystic Fibrosis

- In frame three base pair deletion in gene for CFTR
- CFTR is missing one amino acid (phenylalanine), which causes it to misfold and be destroyed
- CFTR is a channel in the epithelial cell membranes for Cl^-
- Without CFTR, there is too much extracellular Cl^- , which makes the fluid outside the cell thicker
- Mucus clogs lungs and serves as a growth substance for *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*
- The allele for Cystic Fibrosis is recessive, as with one of the two CFTR, cells still have enough paths for Cl^-

Huntington's Disease

- Mutation is dominant, but the disease does not present itself until late 30's or early 40's
- Huntingtin gene expressed in nerve cells. Its developmental role in adults is unclear
- CAG (codes for glutamine)
- Wild type 6-35 repeats
- Diseased 36+ repeats
- Diseased protein forms aggregates in neurons, which lead to cell death.

2.4 Nondisjunction

Nondisjunction Event – Failure to separate chromosomes

This is more common in meiosis I. Trisomy 21 causes down syndrome.

2.5 Recombinant DNA – Restriction Enzymes, Ligase, Electrophoresis, GFP, PCR, Selectable Markers, Screens, Plasmids, Transformations

Recombinant DNA – Combination of two or more pieces of DNA to create an artificial construct.

Building Pieces of DNA:

1. Synthesize from scratch
2. Cut and Paste
 - Ligase is not specific and will join any two pieces of DNA.
 - Restriction enzymes originate from bacteria, where they served as a type of immune system.
 - Restriction System: methylase adds CH_3
 - Restriction Enzyme cuts DNA if not regulated.

Eco RI:

- Sticky ends of *GAATTC* (a DNA reverse palindrome)
- Eco RI cuts between the G and the A

Plasmid:

- Mini chromosome in bacteria

- Must have an ori, a selectable marker
- Plasmids can be shared between cells. They also can be picked up from the environment, when they are there for whatever reason.
- An example of plasmids which can be shared between cells is antibiotic resistance.

DNA Sequencing:

- Denature DNA into single strands
- Add primer for only one strand
- Provide DNA polymerase and the four nucleotides, with a small fraction of the nucleotides modified so that DNA polymerase cannot extend from them (remove 3 hydroxyl)

GFP – Green Fluorescent Protein

GFP is used to see where or when certain promoters are expressed and to tag proteins.

PCR – Polymerase Chain Reaction

- Amplify a specific DNA Sequence
- NEED: Template DNA, Primers, DNA Polymerase, nucleotides (all four)
- Three steps
 1. Denature – Use heat to separate the helix
 2. Anneal – Lower the temperature, so the primers can bind
 3. Extension – Polymerase extends from the primers
 4. Repeat steps 1 - 3 around 30 or 40 times

2.6 Selective Breeding – Hybridization vs Inbreeding

Selective breeding – only allowing parents with certain characteristics to breed.

Hybridization:

- Crossing two organisms (typically plants) to get the best traits from both in a hybrid
- Can be different species.

Inbreeding:

- Continued breeding of individuals with similar characteristics
- Dramatically decreases genetic variation
- Increases prominence of some traits

3 Evolution

3.1 Darwin's Observations and Background Knowledge

Darwin made three key observations:

1. Species vary globally.
2. Species vary locally.
3. Species vary over time.

More specifically, there are the same types of animals in the same environments across the globe (ie. emu, ostrich, and reah) Also Darwin made the observation about the finches and stuff. That leads nicely into the next section, so read that.

3.2 Evolutionary Theory – Adaptations, Fitness, Natural Selection, etc.

Natural Selection – the process by which individuals with greater fitness survive and leave behind more offspring. This occurs whenever more individuals are born than can survive, there is heritable variation, and that variation leads to varying levels of fitness.

Adaptation – any heritable characteristic that increase an organism’s chance to survive and reproduce.

Fitness – how well an organism can survive in its enviroment.

3.3 Evidence for Evolution

- Fossil Record – evidence for common decent
- Carbon Dating – the Earth is around 4.6 billion years old
- Homologous Structures – Structures that are shared by related species and were inheirited from a common ancestor
- Cestigial Structures – Structures that are inheirited from common ancestors and no longer used
- Analogous Structures – Structures that share a common function but not a common structure.
- Embyology (The Study of Embryo Developement) – The early stages of developement of embryos look very similar for vertebrates
- Genetic Code – all living things use DNA as the genetic material, transcribe RNA from DNA, and translate proteins from RNA. Triplet code is nearly universal.
- Homologous Proteins and RNA – Proteins and RNA that share similar structure and function.

3.4 Population Genetics – Hardy-Weinberg Equation and Conditions that disrupt equilibrium, selection on polygenic traits

Hardy-Weinberg Principle – allele frequencies remain constant unless one or more factors cause them to change.

Single gene trait with two alleles. Define p and q as the allele frequencies, with p as the dominant allele and q as the recessive allele.

Hardy-Weinberg Equation: $p^2 + 2pq + q^2 = 1$ or $p + q = 1$

p^2	qp
pq	q^2

Example: Mouse Populations

50% AA [BLACKMOUSE]	50 Mice
40% Aa [BLACKMOUSE]	40 Mice
10% aa [WHITEMOUSE]	10 Mice
$P(AA) = p^2 \Rightarrow f(A)^2 = 0.49$	
$P(Aa) = 2pq = 0.42$	
$P(a) = q^2$	

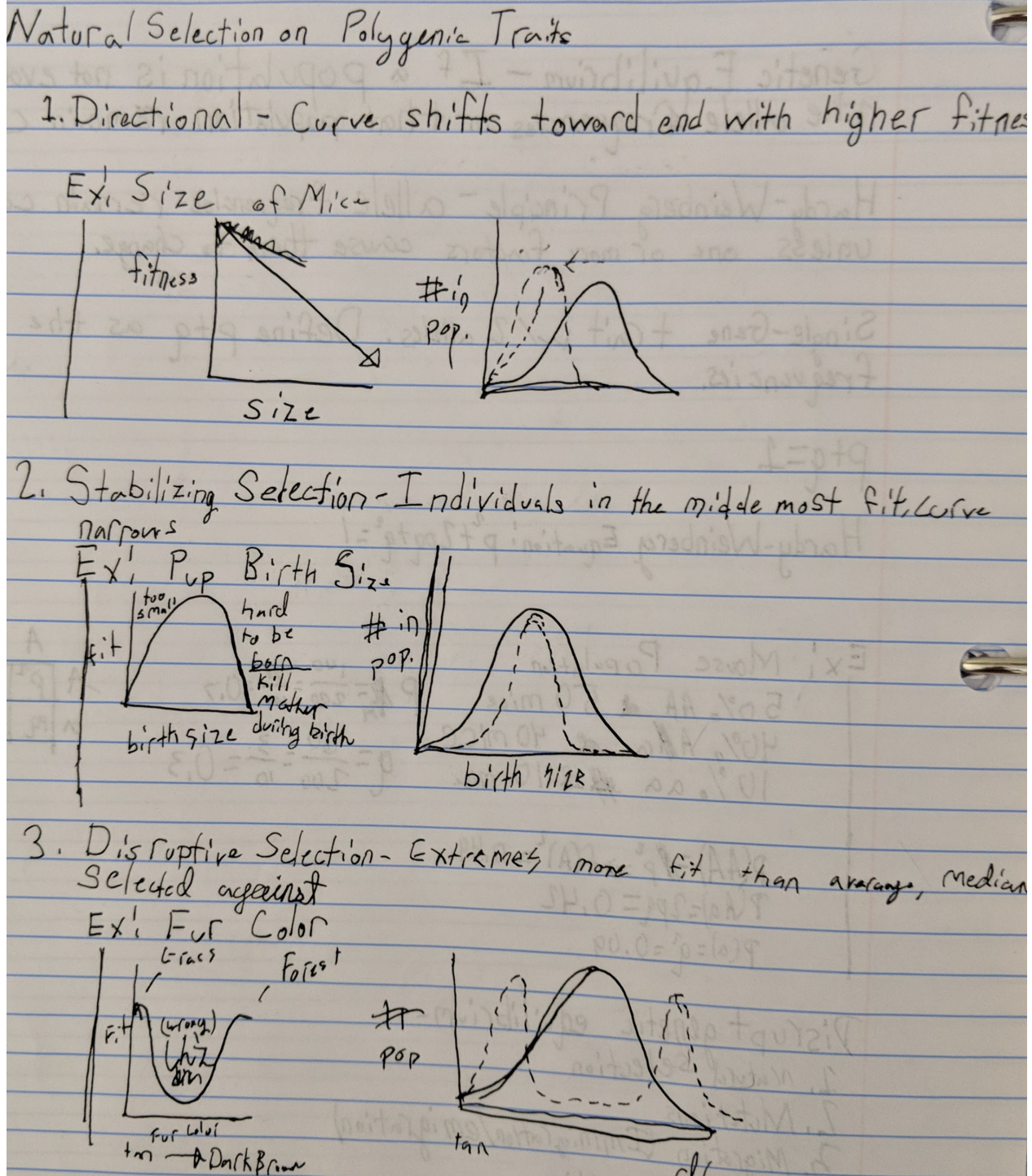
Disruptions of Equilibrium:

1. Natural Selection
2. Mutations
3. Migration (Immigration and Emmigration)
4. Nonrandom Mating (Sexual Selection)

5. Small Population

- Bottleneck Effect
- Founder Effect

Polygenic selection on next page.



3.5 Speciation

Species - Population that breeds together

Reproductive Isolation – Two populations can no longer interbreed and mat evolve into two different species
Types of Isolation:

1. Geographic Isolation – Population physically separated
2. Behavioral Isolation – Differences in courtship rituals or methods
3. Temporal Isolation – Two populations do not mate at the same time

3.6 Molecular Clocks

Molecular Clock – Use mutation rates in DNA to estimate when two species diverged from a common ancestor

- Most mutations are neutral, which means they accumulate over time
- Some genes tolerate mutations better than others
- The greater the number of differences in the DNA sequences of two species, the more time has elapsed since sharing a common ancestor.

3.7 Binomial Nomenclature and Linnaean Classification

Systematics – Science of naming and grouping organisms into taxa that have biological meaning.

Binomial Nomenclature – two word science names

Linnaean Classification System:

- Domain
- Kingdom
- Phylum
- Class
- Order
- Family
- Genus
- Species

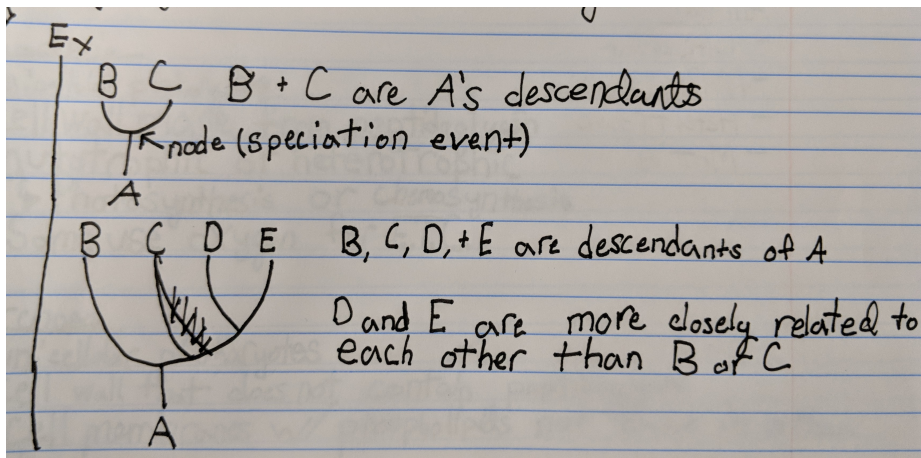
These can be remembered via the snazzy acronym **Katy Perry Claims That Orgasms Feel Good Sometimes**.

Domain	Kingdoms within
Bacteria	Eubacteria
Archaea	Archaea Bacteria
Eukarya	Protists, Fungi, Plants, Animals

3.8 Cladograms

Clade – a group of species that includes a single common ancestor and all descendants of that ancestor, living or dead

Monophyletic vs. Paraphyletic – paraphyletic groups are missing a common ancestor or contain multiple common ancestors or are missing descendants



Building Cladograms:

- derived characteristic – trait that arose in the most recent common ancestor of a lineage and was passed along to its descendants
- parsimony (Occam's Razor) – the simplest explanation is often correct.

3.9 Domains and Kingdoms

Bacteria:

- Unicellular Prokaryotes
- Cell wall made from peptidoglycan
- autotrophic (photosynthesis or chemosynthesis) or heterotrophic
- Some use oxygen for E.T.C.

Archaea:

- Unicellular Prokaryotes
- Cell wall that doesn't contain peptidoglycan
- Cell membranes with phospholipids not found in other domains
- Autotrophic (chemosynthesis) or heterotrophic
- Killed by O₂

Protists

- Unicellular, Colonies and Multicellular (brown algae)
- At least five clades – one closely related to fungi, another to plants, and another to animals
- Some have cellulose cell walls
- Autotrophic (photosynthesis) or Heterotrophic

Fungi:

- Most multicellular, some unicellular
- Cell walls made from chitin
- Heterotrophs (detritivores or decomposers)

Plants:

- Most multicellular, some unicellular (green algae)
- Cell wall from cellulose
- Autotrophs (photosynthesis)
- nonmotile

Animals:

- Multicellular
- No cell wall
- Heterotrophs
- Motile

3.10 Fossil Record

- Most fossils preserved in sedimentary rock
- Made when organism falls in water and is buried in sand, silt, or mud. Then the sedimentary rock process happens. Shell, bones, and teeth remain if buried slowly. Soft tissue only remains if buried quickly.
- Dating Fossils:
 - Relative dating – use index fossils to establish a temporal sequence
 - Radiometric dating – use radioactive isotopes (they decay to get to stability)
 - * Kinetics of Decay:
 - * $t = \text{time}$, $\lambda = \text{rate constant}$, $N_t = \text{number of nuclei at time } t$, $N = \text{initial number of nuclei}$, $t_{1/2} = \text{half life}$
 - * $\log_{10} N_t/N_o = -\lambda t$
 - * $t_{1/2} = 0.693/\lambda$

3.11 Origins of Life including Endosymbiont Theory

- All life came from one cell
- Prokaryote endosytosed another prokaryote
- Didn't break it down
- Mitochondria first
- Chloroplast
 - Evidence:
 - Small circular chromosome in Mitochondria and Chloroplasts
 - Double membrane surround those two
 - Custom ribosome
 - Reproduce separatly from the rest of the cell

4 Ecology

4.1 Abiotic vs. Biotic Factors

- Abiotic Factors – physical factors in the enviroment
- Biotic Factors – living factors in the enviroment

4.2 Primary Producers vs. Consumers

- Primary Producers – Autotrophs. They make their own food using photo or chemosynthesis utilizing either solar or chemical energy to convert inorganic carbon to organic nutrients
- Consumers – Heterotrophs. Consume other organisms to get their nutrients. There are multiple levels (ie. primary, secondary, tertiary, etc.), with fewer amounts of organisms per level.

4.3 Food Webs

- Food Webs – Network of interacting food chains
- Food Chains – Series of steps in which energy travels

4.4 Trophic Levels and Ecological Pyramids

- Trophic levels – Each level in a food chain
 - Primary producers are the first trophic level
 - Trophic levels are then different levels of consumers
 - There are also detritivores, but they don't really have a specific place in an ecological pyramid.

Ecological Pyramids:

- Ecological Pyramid – Shows the relative amount of energy or matter in each trophic level
 - Types of Ecological Pyramids:
 - Energy Pyramid – Energy that enters the ecosystem used for biological purposes. Much Energy is lost as heat. 10% of previous level's energy
 - Biomass Pyramid – Organic tissue within each trophic level
 - Numbers Pyramid – Number of organisms in each trophic level
- GPP vs. NPP
 - GPP – Energy converted to chemical energy of organic molecules (per unit time)
 - NPP – Biomass available to the next trophic level
 - $NPP = GPP - R_a$

4.5 Nutrient Cycles

4.6 Niches and Competition

- Niche – Range of physical and biological conditions in which a species lives and the way in which it reproduces
- Competition – Organisms try to use the same resources at the same time
 - intraspecific – same species
 - interspecific – different species
- Competitive Exclusion Principle – Two species cannot share a niche. There can be overlap, but not exact sharing.

4.7 Keystone Species

- Keystone Species – Species the entire ecosystem relies on. The entire ecosystem can collapse with major changes to this population
 - Examples:
 - Pacific Sea Otters are a keystone species, because they eat sea urchins, which do not have many other predators and could take over the ecosystem if allowed to run rampant.

4.8 Symbiosis

Types of Symbiosis:

- Mutualism – Both Species involved benefit
- Parasitism – One species benefits at the expense of another
- Communalism – One species benefits, and the other neither benefits nor is harmed

4.9 Succession

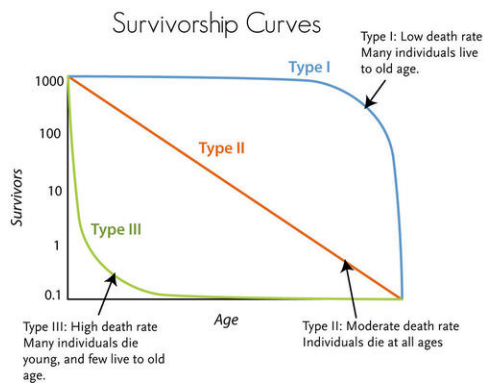
- Ecological Succession – A series of changes in a community. These are often predictable and are caused by a disaster.
- Primary Succession – succession in an area where entire community was destroyed
 - Can be caused by volcanic eruption, glacial recession, etc.
 - Lichen – mutualism between a fungus and an alga (plant or protist)
 - * Fix Nitrogen and Carbon
 - * Can grow anywhere
 - * Breaks down rocks and produces soil
 - Some grasses can be pioneer species
 - * Smaller, more efficient
 - * Grow from the base, not the tip
- Secondary Succession – Succession that begins in an area where some but not all of the community was destroyed
 - Soil survives. This means that surviving plants and new vegetation can grow right away
 - Faster than primary Succession

4.10 Biomes – Land and Aquatic

We don't have to remember these, as far as I know. She will give us the information we need, if she asks about biomes.

4.11 Populations – Defining Characteristics, growth models, and limiting factors

- Population – A group of organisms of a single species that live in a given area
- A Population can be described with these things:
 1. Geographic Range
 2. Density and Distribution
 - random, uniform, or clumped
 3. Demographics
 - age cohorts
 - growth rate
 - number of male and female
- Population growth
 - Birth
 - Death
 - Immigration
 - Emigration



Exponential vs. Logistic Growth

Exponential growth happens in ideal conditions and is temporary.

Obviously, in exponential growth, the graph of population over time is that of an exponential function

$\Delta N / \Delta t = B - D$, B is # of Births, D is # of Deaths

$B = bN \leftarrow$ Average Birthrate

$D = dN \leftarrow$ Average Deathrate

The population is constant once it reaches the carrying capacity.

$$\Delta N / \Delta t = rN \left(\frac{K-N}{K} \right)$$

This equation does not need to be memorized

Limiting Factors to Population Growth:

- Density Independent Factors
 - Natural Disasters and Unusual Weather
- Density Dependent Factors
 - Competition (limited resources shared within a population)
 - Predation and Herbivory (Populations Cycle up and Down. May or may not be offset)
 - Parasites and disease (\uparrow transmission of diseases with \uparrow population)
 - Stress and Intrinsic Factors
 - * Behavioral and Bacterial
 - * Aggression rises with overpopulation
 - * Neglect, kill, and or eat offspring
 - * Delay sexual maturation, suppress immune system via hormonal changes
 - Waste Products

4.12 Human Population Growth

Growth Rate:

- Slow growth rate until around 650 (around 500mil people)
- Period of exponential growth and birthrate remain high death rate dropped
- Growth Rate peaked in early 1960s and has been decreasing

Demographic Transition:

- Movement from high birth and death rate to low birth and death rate
- Tends to accompany industrialization and increase of living conditions
- First High Birth and Death, Then High Birth and Low Death, Then Low Birth and Death

- Age structure – relative number of individuals of each age in a population
- Histogram – depicts counts

Growth Predictions:

- Rapid growth – young population smaller % through age categories
- Slow Growth – around same % until old age
- No Growth – Old Population

14 Human Genetics

14.1 Karyotype

A genome is the full set of genetic material. Karyotypes show this full genome, including the full diploid set of chromosomes. They are:

- Grouped in pairs
- In order of decreasing size

Example Karyotype:



Humans have 23 pairs of chromosomes, or 46 chromosomes in total.

Sex Chromosomes:

- Males - X and Y sex chromosomes
- Females - X and X sex chromosomes

This ensures that zygotes will have an exactly 50/50 distribution between male and female. There are approximately 1200 genes on the X chromosome and approximately 140 on the Y chromosome. The genes which are only found on the Y chromosome specify male.