**BSC2005 Exam #2 Study Guide**

In general, material from the book (and other readings), material from the lecture videos and other videos, and material from the assignments (especially those which reinforce a concept from the reading and/or lectures) is all fair game for the exam.

This is not an exhaustive list of everything you may need to know, and not every single thing from this list will necessarily be asked about on the exam, but this study guide is meant to help you focus in your studying effort on the most important concepts from the modules covered by this exam.

**Module 5: DNA and Genetics**

* What does DNA stand for? How does this name correspond to its molecular structure (also review from Module 2)?
  + Deoxyribonucleic acid. Double strand of nucleic acids. Run in opposite directions
* What are chromosomes? What do they look like in prokaryotes vs. eukaryotes?
  + A diagram of a cell

    Description automatically generated with low confidenceA chromosome is a single, large DNA molecule wound around proteins. DNA in prokaryotes is double-stranded and circular. Eukaryotic DNA, on the other hand, is double-stranded and linear

A diagram of a dna

Description automatically generated with medium confidence

* How many types of chromosomes do humans have? How many total chromosomes?
  + 23 pairs of chromosomes, 46 total chromosomes
  + 22 pairs of numbered chromosomes (autosomes), one pair of sex chromosomes
* What are homologous chromosomes? What are chromatids?
  + A picture containing diagram, pattern

    Description automatically generatedTwo chromosomes in a pair are homologous. Chromatids are two identical DNA molecules that results from the replications of a chromosome during the S phase
  + When a cell is not dividing, DNA is in loosely gathered strands called chromatin
  + When a call is dividing, chromatin coils up tightly to form chromosomes
* Explain the difference between haploid and diploid organisms / cells.
  + Haploid has only a single DNA molecule per chromosome. Diploid has pairs of chromosomes
  + A picture containing text

    Description automatically generated
* How is diploidy maintained during reproduction?
  + DNA molecules are replicated prior to seperation
* What are the four types of nitrogenous bases? Which ones pair with each other? Be able to use Chargaff’s rule to determine the nucleotide composition of a segment of DNA.
  + There are four possible nucleotide bases: adenine (A), thymine (T), guanine (G), and cytosine (C)
  + A-T (2xH bonds), G-C (3xH bonds)
  + Chargaff's rules state that in the DNA of any species and any organism, the amount of guanine should be equal to the amount of cytosine and the amount of adenine should be equal to the amount of thymine. (A + G = T + C)
* What was Rosalind Franklin’s role in determining the structure of DNA?
  + Produced pictures of DNA using X-ray crystallography that guided and eventually supported Watson and Crick’s hypothesis on the structure of DNA
* What does it mean to say that DNA is a double helix? What is the structure of each of the strands?
  + Each subunit—called a nucleotide—has three parts: a sugar, a phosphate group, and a base. In each DNA strand, the phosphate group of one nucleotide binds to the sugar of the next nucleotide to form a chain of linked nucleotides. The two strands of linked nucleotides pair up and twist around each other to form a spiral-shaped double helix. The sugars and phosphates form the outside “backbone” of the helix, while the bases point toward its center, forming internal “rungs,” like steps on a twisting ladder. The bases in one strand associate with bases from the other strand through hydrogen bonds, which hold the two strands of the double helix together.
* What are the chromatids? When during cell division do they form, and how? When do they separate?
  + Chromatids are two identical DNA molecules that results from the replications of a chromosome during the S phase
* What happens a) to the chromosomes, and b) to the rest of the cell during each of the following phases of cell division? Interphase, Prophase, Metaphase, Anaphase, and Telophase, Cytokinesis?
  + Interphase: prepares for division. 3 phases:
    - G1: cell enlarges, produces additional cytoplasm, produces new organelles
    - S: DNA replication
    - G2: Cell prepares for division
  + Mitosis: sister chromatids separate and move towards the end of the cell. 4 phases:
    - Prophase nuclear membrane begins to disassemble. Chromosomes coil up (form X). Mitotic spindle begins to form
    - Metaphase: Spindle fibers from opposite ends of the cell attach to sister chromatids. Chromosomes are aligned in the center of the cell
    - Anaphase: Sister chromatids are separated
    - Telophase: Chromosomes reach each pole. Spindle fibers disassemble. Nuclear membrane begins to reform around the separated chromosomes
  + Cytokinesis: cytoplasm divides into two separate, complete cells
* What are the products of mitosis? How many cells? How does their DNA compare to the original cell?
  + Two cells, each cell has 23 pairs of chromosomes

A picture containing text, web page, font, website

Description automatically generatedA diagram of cell division

Description automatically generated with low confidence

* How does DNA replicate? What are the steps involved?
  + During DNA replication, the two strands of DNA separate, with each strand then serving as a template for the creation of a new complementary strand
  + First, an enzyme called helicase unwinds the helix, and the two strands “unzip” from each other.
  + A diagram of a dna structure

    Description automatically generated with low confidenceThen, the enzyme DNA polymerase builds a new strand of DNA along each unzipped strand. Free nucleotides floating inside the cell’s nucleus are added to each new strand in a sequence that is complementary to the nucleotide sequence on the original template strand, with A pairing with T and C with G
* What does it mean to say that DNA replication is semi-conservative?
* Each of the two new DNA molecules consists of one old and one new DNA strand, with the old strand serving as a template
* What is the job of DNA polymerase?
  + Polymerase attaches new nucleotides to the split DNA molecules.
* How many base pairs does the average human have?
  + 3 Billion
* What does STR stand for, what are they, and how are they used in DNA fingerprinting?
  + A picture containing text, human face, screenshot

    Description automatically generatedShort tandem repeats, found in non-coding areas. Combinations of the length of various STR regions are unique
* What does PCR stand for, and how does it work? What materials need to be included, and what is each of them for?
  + Polymerase Chain Reaction
  + Needs:
    - Primers: identifies where polymerase should bind to
    - Polymerase: replicates DNA
    - Nucleic acids: raw materials for building
    - The DNA to be replicated
  + A diagram of dna sequence

    Description automatically generated with low confidenceTo a small sample of DNA, scientists add nucleotides, the DNA polymerase enzyme, and primers—short segments of DNA that act as guideposts. The primers bind to complementary segments of each DNA template, and their locations flag the section to which DNA polymerase should bind to begin replication. The DNA is first heated to separate the strands, and then cooled to allow the primers to associate with the DNA and to allow the DNA polymerase to add new nucleotides
* How does the number of copies produced by PCR increase over time?
  + Doubles every round
* What is gel electrophoresis? How does it work? How is it similar to the chromatography you did in Module 4?
  + It separates DNA fragments by size.
  + DNA is negatively charged and migrates towards the positive electrode (at the bottom). Shortest STR fragments travel the furthest/fastest from the source. Different STR regions are colored differently.
* Be able to analyze a picture/diagram of gel electrophoresis (or a table of STR lengths) to determine matches between suspects/crime scene samples (or babies / potential fathers).
  + Exact match means same person
  + Sharing one band per STR region means parent or child
* What other purposes can DNA fingerprinting serve?
* Cell cycle checkpoints ensure accurate progression through the cell cycle; repair mechanisms at each checkpoint can fix mistakes that occur, such as improper base pairing or DNA damage. If a checkpoint protein is impaired, cells may fail to properly repair DNA mistakes, leading to mutations that are passed on to daughter cells.

**Module 6: Inheritance**

* A picture containing text, screenshot, design

  Description automatically generatedWhat are the products of meiosis? How many cells? How does their DNA compare to the original cell?
* What happens a) to the chromosomes, and b) to the rest of the cell during each of the phases of meiosis 1? Meiosis 2?
* What are homologous chromosomes? What are chromatids?
* Compare and contrast mitosis and meiosis.
* What is the principle of independent assortment? When does it happen?
* What is recombination? When does it happen?
* What is aneuploidy? When does it happen?
* What is a gene? What is an allele?
* What does it mean if an organism is heterozygous? Homozygous?
* What’s the difference between an organism’s genotype and its phenotype?
* What does it mean for a phenotype to be dominant? Recessive?
* What is blending inheritance? How did Mendel prove it wrong?
* Given an individual’s genotype, be able to list all of the possible types of gametes that individual could make. Be able to do this for one gene at a time, but also be able to list all of the combinations of alleles in the gametes for more a genotype containing more than one gene.
* Be able to use Punnett squares to get from parental genotypes (or phenotypes) to predicted frequencies of offspring genotypes (or phenotypes). Be able to do this for monohybrid AND dihybrid crosses.
* What’s the difference between autosomes and sex chromosomes?
* What does it mean to be hemizygous? Which individuals (in humans) are hemizygous? For which genes?
* What are sex-linked/X-linked traits? Which sex (in humans) is more likely to express the phenotype of these traits? Which is more likely to be a carrier? Be able to use this to trace the inheritance of these traits through a pedigree.
* Be able to use Punnett squares to get from parental genotypes (or phenotypes) to predicted frequencies of offspring genotypes (or phenotypes) for X-linked traits.
* How does genotype relate to phenotype in a trait with Mendelian (typical) dominance? Incomplete dominance? Codominance? Be able to use Punnett squares to give offspring genotype & phenotype frequencies for each.
* How does ABO blood typing work? What kind of trait is this? Be able to use Punnett squares… etc. etc.
* What are polygenic traits? How do they differ from traits with multifactorial inheritance?

**Module 7: Natural Selection & Evolution**

* What is the definition of evolution? Be able to recognize examples of phenomena that do or do not count as evolution.
* What does “theory” mean in the scientific context. Is the criticism that evolution is “just a theory” valid?
* What were some of the evolutionary ideas developed by thinkers and scientists before Charles Darwin? What pieces were they missing?
* Explain how Darwin’s voyage on the HMS Beagle, his reading of Lyell and Malthus, and his work with farmers and pigeon breeders shaped his ideas about evolution by natural selection.
* Who is Alfred Russell Wallace and why is he important?
* What four things must be true in order for evolution by natural selection to occur? What would occur if each of these things weren’t true? Which one corresponds to the “natural selection” part?
* Where does variation in a population come from? How does it relate to natural selection?
* What is fitness (in the evolutionary biology sense)?
* Distinguish between natural selection and evolution.
* What is an adaptation?
* For each of the directional, stabilizing, disruptive, positive frequency-dependent, and negative frequency-dependent selection, describe what it means in terms of which phenotypes have high vs. low fitness, and predict what will happen to a) the mean phenotype, and b) the variance in phenotype in the population in the next generation.
* What is sexual dimorphism, and why is it a puzzle given what we understand about evolution by natural selection?
* How are sexual selection and natural selection similar? How do they differ?
* How does sexual selection by male-male competition occur? What about sexual selection by female choice?

**Module 8: Non-Adaptive Evolution and Speciation**

* What is a gene pool? For a population of X diploid individuals, how many alleles are in its gene pool?
* For a given population, be able to calculate phenotype frequencies, genotype frequencies, and allele frequencies, and to go back and forth between all three.
* If you take all the allele frequencies for a given population, what do they add up to? What about all of the genotype frequencies? Explain why this is true.
* Explain where the p^2 + 2pq + q^2 = 1 equation comes from, and what it means.
* When would you expect to see allele and genotype frequencies be in Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium (what conditions need to be met)? How could you tell if they weren’t?
* Given allele frequencies, be able to predict genotype/phenotype frequencies if the population is in HWE, and vice versa.
* What is genetic drift? What are its consequences in terms of allele frequencies in a population? When do you expect it to have a stronger vs. weaker effect?
* What is the founder effect? What is the bottleneck effect? How do these relate to genetic drift?
* What is inbreeding? Which of the HWE requirements does it violate? What effects does it have on a population?
* What effects do migration and mutation have on genetic diversity?
* What is the Biological Species Concept? What types of species does it apply to? Are there cases where it isn’t as useful?
* What is reproductive isolation and why is it important in speciation?
* Define allopatric speciation. How does it occur?
* Define sympatric speciation. How does it occur?
* What types of pre-zygotic reproductive isolation are there? What types of post-zygotic isolation? Be able to identify examples of each.