Likely Essay Questions

Explain how one named factor can increase the chances of a cancerous growth/Why is development of cancer a multi-step process

- (For first question) State one of the first 3 factors ⇒ Causative agent increases the chance of DNA damage and mutations in the genes which <u>control regulatory</u> <u>checkpoints</u> of the cell cycle in a single cell.
- 2. Development of cancer requires the <u>accumulation of mutations</u> in the genes which <u>control **regulatory checkpoints** of the cell cycle</u> in a single cell
- 3. Mutations disrupt normal cell cycle ⇒ Uncontrolled cell division ⇒ Excessive cell growth and proliferation
- Loss-of-function mutation of <u>tumour suppressor genes</u> ⇒ Inability to inhibit cell cycle, repair damaged DNA and promote apoptosis
- 5. <u>Gain-in-function mutation</u> of **proto-oncogenes** to form **oncogenes** ⇒ Overexpression of proteins OR production of hyperactive/degradation resistant proteins
- <u>Upregulation/Activation</u> of genes coding for <u>telomerase</u> ⇒ <u>Telomeres lengthened</u> and cell can divide indefinitely as chromosomes are prevented from shortening with each round of DNA replication
- 7. Loss of contact inhibition enables cells to grow into a tumour
- Angiogenesis → Blood vessels formed can transport oxygen and nutrients for its growth
- 9. Tumour must be <u>malignant</u> where cells can <u>metastasise</u> to spread to other parts of the body via the blood stream to form secondary tumours
- 10. Takes years to accumulate these mutations \Rightarrow Multi-step process

Why is the population the smallest unit that can evolve? (possible essay)

- Define population: A **population** is a group of <u>interbreeding</u> individuals of the <u>same</u> <u>species</u> and sharing a <u>common geographic area</u>
- Define evolution: **Evolution** is a measure of changes in allele frequencies in a population over time
- Variation must exist in a population for natural selection to take place
- **Natural selection** acts on individuals in a population and results in individuals being selected for or against
- Individuals cannot evolve/don't change in their lifetimes
- Individuals can only **pass on their favourable alleles** to the next generation
- And introduce new alleles through mutation during the formation of gametes
- Over many generations, allele frequencies of favourable characteristics increase over time, leading to evolution

Preservation of recessive alleles (possible essay)

• Heterozygote protection

- Occurs in diploid organisms with 2 copies of each gene
- Heterozygous = 2 different alleles at 1 gene locus where dominant alleles can mask the effect of recessive alleles
- Homozygous recessive genotype has <u>disadvantageous phenotype</u> which is <u>selected against</u> but does not manifest in heterozygotes ⇒ Heterozygotes <u>survive</u>
- Heterozygotes able to <u>pass on recessive allele</u> to their offspring when they <u>interbreed</u>, maintaining recessive allele in the population
- Balancing selection = Natural selection maintains 2 or more alleles at a gene locus
 - Heterozygote advantage
 - Heterozygotes may have greater fitness than both types of homozygotes
 - e.g. Heterozygote individuals selected for
 - In malaria prone areas → Do not develop sickle cell anaemia + less chance of contracting malaria
 - e.g. Both homozygotes selected against as
 - HbAHbA ⇒ Normal haemoglobin ⇒ Susceptible to malaria
 - HbSHbS ⇒ Sickle cell anaemia ⇒ Early death
 - Heterozygotes able to <u>pass on recessive allele</u> to their offspring when they <u>interbreed</u>, maintaining recessive allele in the population
 - Frequency dependent selection
 - Selective advantage of the phenotype depends on the <u>relative frequency</u> of the particular phenotype
 - Frequency of each phenotype oscillates over time but is kept close to 50%, maintaining both alleles
 - e.g. Left-mouthed and Right-mouthed scale eating fish in Lake Taganyika
 - Prey guards against attack from the more common phenotype of the scale-eating fish in the lake
 - Selection favours whichever phenotype is least common
- Neutral mutations = mutations that are <u>selectively neutral</u>
 - Silent mutations = Mutated sequence still codes for the same amino acid
 - Conservative mutations = Mutated sequence codes for <u>chemically similar amino</u> <u>acid</u>
 - Mutations in <u>non-regulatory</u>, <u>non-coding regions</u>
 - Thus, no change in protein structure and function + no change in quantity of protein produced

Advantages of molecular methods to determine phylogeny

- 1. Can compare <u>all</u> organisms which <u>share common genes</u>
- 2. Can compare <u>morphologically indistinguishable</u> organisms due to convergent evolution or are very closely related
- 3. Objective as molecular character states are unambiguous (A, C, G, T)
- <u>Quantitative</u> as it can easily be converted to a numerical form for statistical analysis
 Degree of relatedness can be inferred and quantified by calculating nucleotide differences

between species

- 5. Changes in nucleotide sequences accumulate over time with <u>clockwork regularity</u>, allowing it to <u>estimate the time of speciation</u> of a particular species
 - Forms basis of the molecular clock
- <u>Does not underestimate/exaggerate differences</u> unlike morphological analysis
 Some molecular differences may not be reflected as differences in morphological
- character, some small genetic differences may result in major phenotypic differences
- 7. Both living and dead tissue can be used + Not necessary to have an entire specimen
- 8. Large set of characters can be studied relatively <u>quickly</u>
- 9. Sequences can be accessed electronically for easy comparisons and classification

Explain the small yield of ATP from anaerobic respiration (possible essay)

- 1. Only <u>2 net ATP</u> is generated per glucose molecule during anaerobic respiration as compared to <u>38 ATP</u> for aerobic respiration
- In the absence of oxygen, there is <u>no final electron acceptor</u> to remove electrons from the ETC, hence <u>no ATP is produced by the substrate level phosphorylation in the</u> <u>mitochondria</u> (link reaction, Krebs cycle)
- 3. Proton gradient cannot be maintained to drive the synthesis of ATP in the ATP synthase complex without flow of electrons down the ETC hence no ATP generated from chemiosmosis
 - Reactions in the mitochondria produce the bulk of ATP
- 4. <u>Glycolysis</u> alone continues to produce only 2 ATP per glucose molecule
- As glycolysis proceeds, NADH accumulates because it is unable to donate its electrons to the ETC. However, <u>NAD[±] needs to be regenerated</u> in order for glycolysis to continue.
- 6. Therefore, <u>pyruvate acts as the final electron acceptor</u> and is reduced to <u>lactic acid</u> by NADH
- 7. In the process, NAD⁺ is regenerated so that it may return to take part in glycolysis to continue to produce ATP
- 8. However, no extra ATP is produced during the regeneration of NAD⁺ under anaerobic respiration

What is the role of NAD in cells?

- Organic molecules are oxidised during glycolysis, link reaction and Krebs cycle and the high energy electrons and protons produced are transferred to the <u>coenzyme</u> NAD⁺ to form NADH
- 2. NAD⁺ serves as a <u>mobile electron carrier</u> to carry high energy electrons and protons from organic molecules to the energy transport chain on the cristae of mitochondria
- 3. High energy electrons in NADH are used to <u>reduce the electron carriers</u> of the electron transport chain while <u>NADH gets re-oxidised</u>
- 4. As electrons pass down the chain, the release of energy in a series of redox reactions is coupled to the phosphorylation of ADP to form ATP
- 5. The protons liberated in the oxidation of NADH is used to establish the proton motive

force necessary for ATP synthesis

- 6. Reoxidation of NADH allows the regeneration of the coenzyme NAD⁺, allowing it to pick up more protons and electrons from the Krebs cycle, link reaction and glycolysis so that these reactions can continue
- 7. Each NADH in the matrix yields 3 ATP through oxidative phosphorylation

Genetic Variation

- 1. <u>Crossing over</u> between non-sister chromatids of homologous chromosomes during prophase 1
 - Homologous chromosomes pair up via synapsis to form bivalents
 - Corresponding segments <u>exchange genetic material</u> to form non-identical sister chromatids
 - Results in new combinations of alleles on chromosomes of gametes
- 2. <u>Independent assortment of homologous chromosomes</u> during metaphase 1 and their subsequent separation during anaphase 1
 - Orientation of chromosomes of each bivalent completely independent of the orientation of the other bivalents
 - Results in 2ⁿ different combinations of maternal and paternal chromosomes in daughter cells where <u>n is the number of chromosome pairs</u>
- 3. <u>Random orientation of non-genetically identical sister chromatids</u> during metaphase 2 and subsequent separation during anaphase 2
 - Results in gametes with new combinations of alleles that differ from parental combination of allele with 2ⁿ possible combinations
- 4. **<u>Random fusion</u>** of large number of genetically different gametes during fertilisation
 - Results in greater number of genotypic combinations of a zygote

Mechanism of Action Interaction/Binding

- Enzyme has specific active site with <u>specific 3D conformation</u> that is <u>complementary in shape and charge</u> to the substrate that is held by R group interactions between structural residues
- Effective collisions between enzyme and substrate form a temporary <u>enzyme-</u> <u>substrate complex</u> held together by weak interactions such as <u>hydrogen bonds</u>, <u>ionic</u> <u>bonds and hydrophobic interactions</u> between the <u>contact residues</u> and the substrate
- Based on <u>induced fit hypothesis</u>, binding of substrate induces a change in shape in the enzyme active site so that the active site is a more precise fit for substrate for effective catalysis
- Based on lock and key model, substrate is the key and enzyme is the lock

Catalysis

• R groups of <u>catalytic residues</u> help to catalyse the reaction

- Enzyme lowers the activation energy by:
 - 1. Proximity effects = By aligning substrates next to each other in **close proximity** in the active site, increasing chance of the reaction occurring
 - 2. Strain effects = By **applying strain on the bonds** to be broken/By distorting the substrates hence reducing the activation energy required to achieve transition state
 - 3. Orientation effects = By holding the substrates in the correct orientation such that its **bonds are exposed to chemical attack**
 - 4. Microenvironment effects = By providing a **favorable microenvironment**
 - 5. Acid-base catalysis = Where the R-groups of catalytic acidic and basic amino acid residues in active site participate in direct catalysis
- More of the substrate molecules will possess <u>energy exceeding activation energy</u>, allowing the reaction to proceed at a higher rate

Release

• Products are no longer complementary in shape and charge to the enzyme active site and hence, are released. The enzyme remains unchanged and can be used again.

Sickle-Cell Anaemia

Mutation:

- Point substitution mutation
- $\underline{T} \rightarrow \underline{A}$ in the <u>6th triplet codon</u> in the template DNA strand of gene coding for the β -globin chain
- Amino acid <u>glutamate</u> \rightarrow <u>valine</u>
- Valine is a <u>non-polar</u>, <u>hydrophobic</u> amino acid whereas glutamate is a <u>charged</u>, <u>hydrophilic</u> amino acid

Effect of mutation:

- Normal haemoglobin (HbA) → Sickle cell haemoglobin (HbS)
- Low [O₂] ⇒ Hydrophobic areas on different HbS stick together causing HbS to polymerise into abnormal rigid rod-like fibres that distort the shape of red blood cells ⇒ Sickling of RBC

Type of disease: Autosomal recessive disease \rightarrow Requires 2 copies of HbS for symptoms to occur

Effect of disease

• Sickle RBC more fragile and have shorter life span ⇒ Shortage of RBC + Poor oxygen transport ⇒ Anaemia + Lack of energy + Heart failure

• Sickle-shaped RBC may get lodged in small blood vessels ⇒ Interfere with blood circulation ⇒ Organ damage

Prevalence in malaria stricken areas of Africa

- HbAHbA \Rightarrow Individuals have normal haemoglobin \Rightarrow Susceptible to malaria
- HbSHbS \Rightarrow Individuals have sickle cell anaemia \Rightarrow Early death
- HbAHbS ⇒ Individuals do not develop sickle cell anaemia + Less chance of contracting malaria
 - Maintains both HbA and HbS recessive allele in the population
 - Sickle shape of RBC ⇒ Lower oxygen carrying capacity ⇒ Malaria parasite cannot survive
 - Heterozygotes have selective advantage in regions of endemic malaria over homozygotes