

MP - SET LIFE SCIENCE

Madhya Pradesh State Eligibility Test

VOLUME – 3

Developmental Biology, System Physiology – Plant & System Physiology



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V UNIT

Developmental Biology

Basic Concepts of Development - Part 1

1. Overview of Basic Concepts of Development - Part 1

Developmental biology explores how a single cell, the zygote, gives rise to a complex organism through tightly regulated cellular processes. The concepts of potency, commitment, specification, induction, and competence are foundational to understanding how cells acquire specific fates and organize into tissues.

Potency:

- The range of developmental fates a cell can achieve (e.g., totipotent, pluripotent).
- Reflects a cell's developmental potential.

Commitment:

- The process by which a cell's developmental fate becomes restricted.
- o Involves intrinsic and extrinsic cues.

Specification:

 The stage where a cell is programmed to follow a specific fate but remains reversible. Often driven by morphogens and transcription factors.

Induction:

- The process by which one group of cells influences the fate of neighboring cells via signaling.
- Critical for tissue patterning.

• Competence:

- The ability of a cell to respond to inductive signals.
- Depends on receptor expression and signaling pathways.

• Biological Relevance:

- These processes ensure precise cell fate determination, enabling organ formation (~10¹² cells in humans).
- Dysregulation leads to developmental defects (e.g., spina bifida).

Applications:

- Stem cell therapies for regenerative medicine.
- Developmental models for congenital disorders.
- Synthetic biology for tissue engineering.

Table 1: Overview of Basic Developmental Concepts

Concept	Definition	Key Feature	Biological Role	Example
Potency	Range of cell fates	Totipotent,	Defines	Zygote totipotency
		pluripotent	developmental	
			potential	
Commitment	Fate restriction	Intrinsic/extrinsic	Locks cell fate	Neural crest
		cues		commitment
Specification	Reversible fate	Morphogens, TFs	Initiates cell fate	Blastula mesoderm
	programming			
Induction	Cell-cell signaling	Ligands, receptors	Patterns tissues	Spemann organizer
Competence	Ability to respond	Receptor	Enables induction	Ectoderm neural
	to signals	expression		competence

2. Potency

Potency refers to a cell's capacity to differentiate into various cell types, ranging from totipotent to unipotent.

2.1 Types of Potency

Totipotent:

 Definition: Can form all cell types, including embryonic and extraembryonic tissues (e.g., placenta).

o Examples:

- Zygote: Forms entire organism (~10¹² cells in mammals).
- Early blastomeres (up to 4-cell stage in mammals).

Molecular Basis:

- Expression of pluripotency genes (e.g., OCT4, SOX2, NANOG).
- Open chromatin state (~80% euchromatin).

• Pluripotent:

 Definition: Can form all embryonic cell types but not extra-embryonic tissues.

o Examples:

- Embryonic stem cells (ESCs) from inner cell mass (ICM).
- Induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) via Yamanaka factors (OCT4, SOX2, KLF4, c-MYC).

O Molecular Basis:

- High expression of pluripotency TFs (~10³-10⁴ transcripts/cell).
- Epigenetic marks: H3K4me3 at developmental genes.

Multipotent:

 Definition: Can form multiple cell types within a lineage.

o Examples:

- Hematopoietic stem cells (HSCs):
 Form blood lineages (~10⁴ cells/HSC).
- Neural stem cells: Form neurons, glia.

Molecular Basis:

- Lineage-specific TFs (e.g., GATA1 for erythroid cells).
- Restricted chromatin (~50% euchromatin).

Oligopotent:

- Definition: Limited to a few cell types within a lineage.
- Example: Myeloid progenitors form neutrophils, monocytes.

• Unipotent:

- Definition: Restricted to one cell type.
- o **Example**: Spermatogonia form sperm.

• Efficiency:

- Totipotent: ~10⁶ possible fates/zygote.
- Pluripotent: ~10³-10⁴ fates/ESC.
- o Multipotent: ~10–10² fates/HSC.

Energetics:

- TF activation: Δ G ≈ -30 kJ/mol.
- Chromatin remodeling: ATP-dependent, $\Delta G \approx -50 \text{ kJ/mol}.$

2.2 Regulation of Potency

Transcription Factors:

- o OCT4 maintains totipotency/pluripotency, downregulated in multipotent cells.
- Example: OCT4 knockout in ESCs leads to differentiation (~100% loss of pluripotency).

• Epigenetic Modifications:

- H3K4me3: Activates pluripotency genes in ESCs.
- H3K27me3: Silences lineage genes in totipotent cells.
- DNA Methylation: Increases in differentiated cells, restricts potency (~70% CpG methylation).

Signaling Pathways:

- LIF (Leukemia Inhibitory Factor):
 Maintains ESC pluripotency via STAT3.
- Wnt/β-Catenin: Promotes HSC multipotency.

• Regulation:

- Feedback: OCT4 represses differentiation genes (e.g., Cdx2).
- Microenvironment: Niche signals (e.g., BMP4) modulate potency.

• Energetics:

- Epigenetic modification: ΔG ≈ -20 kJ/mol.
- Signaling activation: ΔG ≈ -30 kJ/mol.

2.3 Biological Applications

• Embryogenesis:

- Totipotent zygote forms ~10¹² cells in human development.
- Pluripotent ICM forms three germ layers (~10⁴ cells/layer).

• Regenerative Medicine:

 iPSCs reprogrammed from fibroblasts, used for tissue repair (e.g., retinal cells).

Disease:

 Teratomas: Arise from pluripotent cells, form mixed tissues (~10% of germ cell tumors).

• Therapeutics:

 ESC-derived therapies for Parkinson's (~10⁵ neurons transplanted).

Biotechnology:

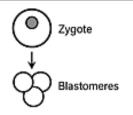
 CRISPR-edited iPSCs for disease modeling.

Table 2: Types of Cell Potency

Potency Type	Example	Cell Fates	Molecular Marker
Totipotent	Zygote	All embryonic/extra-embryonic	OCT4, NANOG
Pluripotent	ESCs, iPSCs	All embryonic	SOX2, KLF4
Multipotent	HSCs	Multiple within lineage	GATA1, PAX6
Unipotent	Spermatogonia	Single cell type	PLZF

3. Commitment

Commitment is the process by which a cell's developmental fate becomes progressively restricted, transitioning from a broad to a specific potential.



Teratomas

□ iPSC

Therapy

■ Parkinson's

therapy

■ CRISPR Models

TOTIPOTENT



PLURIPOTENT



MULTIPOTENT



OLIGOPOTENT







Diagram 1: Cell Potency Hierarchy

[Description: A diagram showing potency levels: totipotent (zygote, blastomeres), pluripotent (ESCs, iPSCs), multipotent (HSCs), oligopotent (myeloid progenitors), unipotent (spermatogonia). Molecular basis (OCT4, GATA1), epigenetic marks (H3K4me3), and signaling (LIF, Wnt) are depicted. Applications (iPSC therapy) and diseases (teratomas) are shown. A side panel illustrates CRISPR models and Parkinson's therapy, with biological roles (e.g., cell fate potential).]

3.1 Types of Commitment

Specification (Reversible):

- Definition: Cell is programmed for a fate but can be redirected.
- Example: Blastula ectoderm specified for neural fate, reversible by BMP4.

• Determination (Irreversible):

- Definition: Cell fate is fixed, resistant to external cues.
- Example: Neural crest cells determined for neurons, ~10³ cells/embryo.

Mechanisms:

- Intrinsic Cues: Cytoplasmic determinants (e.g., Bicoid in Drosophila).
- Extrinsic Cues: Signaling molecules (e.g., Shh in neural tube).

• Efficiency:

- Specification: ~10²-10³ cells/embryo specified per germ layer.
- Determination: ~10–50% of specified cells become determined.

• Energetics:

- TF binding: Δ G ≈ -30 kJ/mol.
- Signal transduction: ΔG ≈ -50 kJ/mol.

3.2 Molecular Basis

Transcription Factors:

- Pax6: Commits ectoderm to neural fate, activates NeuroD.
- GATA1: Commits HSCs to erythroid lineage, upregulates HBB.

• Epigenetic Regulation:

 H3K27me3: Silences alternative fate genes (e.g., Hox in neural cells). DNA Methylation: Locks in erythroid genes (~80% methylation at nonerythroid loci).

• Signaling Pathways:

- Notch: Promotes neural commitment via Hes1.
- TGF-β: Drives mesoderm commitment via Smad2/3.

• Regulation:

- **Feedback**: Pax6 represses non-neural TFs (e.g., Sox9).
- \circ Crosstalk: Notch inhibits TGF- β in ectoderm.

Energetics:

- Epigenetic silencing: Δ G ≈ -20 kJ/mol.
- Pathway activation: Δ G ≈ -30 kJ/mol.

3.3 Biological Applications

Embryogenesis:

 Neural crest commitment forms ~10³ neurons/glia in vertebrates.

Developmental Disorders:

 Holoprosencephaly: Shh defects disrupt neural commitment (~1/10,000 births).

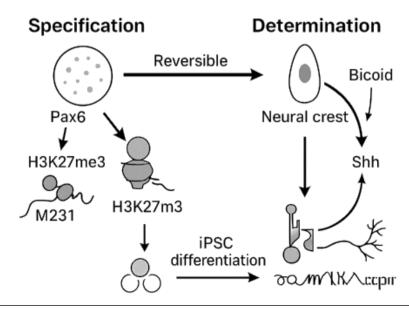
• Therapeutics:

 Directed differentiation of iPSCs for neural repair (~10⁵ cells/transplant).

Biotechnology:

Single-cell RNA-seq to study commitment dynamics.

Commitmeit processes



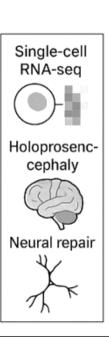


Diagram 2: Commitment Processes

[Description: A diagram showing specification (ectoderm, reversible) and determination (neural crest, irreversible). Mechanisms (Pax6, H3K27me3, Notch) and cues (Bicoid, Shh) are depicted. Applications (iPSC differentiation) and diseases (holoprosencephaly) are shown. A side panel illustrates single-cell RNA-seq and neural repair, with biological roles (e.g., fate restriction).]

4. Specification

Specification is the reversible programming of a cell to follow a specific developmental fate, often driven by morphogens and transcription factors.

4.1 Mechanisms

Morphogen Gradients:

- Definition: Concentration gradients of signaling molecules that specify cell fates.
- Example: Bicoid gradient in Drosophila specifies anterior-posterior axis (~10³ molecules/embryo).
- Mechanism: High Bicoid activates hunchback, low Bicoid allows Kruppel.

• Transcription Factors:

- Sox2: Specifies neural ectoderm in vertebrates.
- o **Tbx5**: Specifies limb bud mesoderm.

• Signaling Pathways:

- Hedgehog (Hh): Specifies ventral neural tube fates via Gli.
- BMP: Specifies dorsal ectoderm via Smad1/5.

• Efficiency:

- ~10²-10³ cells specified per morphogen gradient.
- ~10–50% reversible by external signals.

Energetics:

- Morphogen diffusion: ΔG ≈ -20 kJ/mol.
- TF activation: ΔG ≈ -30 kJ/mol.

4.2 Regulation

• Gradient Formation:

- Diffusion: Bicoid diffuses ~100 μm in Drosophila syncytium.
- Degradation: Shh degraded by proteases, shapes gradient.

• Feedback Loops:

- Positive: Hh upregulates Gli, reinforces specification.
- Negative: Sox2 represses non-neural genes.

• Crosstalk:

 Hh inhibits BMP in neural tube, balances fates.

Regulation:

- O **Timing**: Specification occurs in blastula $(\sim 10^2 10^3 \text{ cells})$.
- Microenvironment: ECM modulates morphogen spread.

• Energetics:

- Gradient stabilization: ΔG ≈ -20 kJ/mol.
- Crosstalk signaling: Δ G ≈ -30 kJ/mol.

4.3 Biological Applications

• Embryogenesis:

- Bicoid specifies ~10³ anterior cells in Drosophila.
- Shh patterns neural tube, ~10⁴ neurons formed.

• Developmental Disorders:

 Cyclopia: Shh gradient defects (~1/100,000 births).

• Therapeutics:

 Morphogen mimics for tissue engineering (e.g., Shh for neural repair).

• Biotechnology:

 Synthetic morphogen gradients for organoid patterning.

Specification via Morphogen Gradients

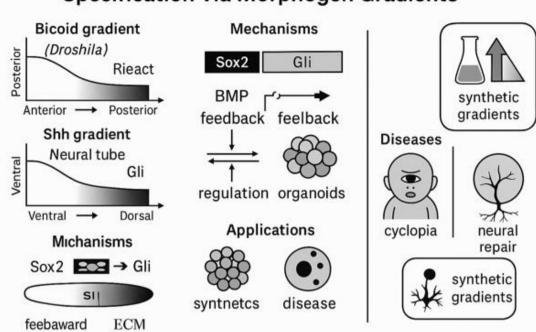


Diagram 3: Specification via Morphogen Gradients

[Description: A diagram showing specification: Bicoid gradient (*Drosophila*, hunchback), Shh gradient (neural tube, Gli). Mechanisms (Sox2, BMP) and regulation (feedback, ECM) are depicted. Applications (organoids) and diseases (cyclopia) are shown. A side panel illustrates synthetic gradients and neural repair, with biological roles (e.g., patterning).]

5. Induction

Induction is the process by which one group of cells influences the fate of neighboring cells through signaling molecules.

5.1 Mechanisms

Inductive Signals:

- Ligands: Shh, BMP4, FGF, Wnt.
 - Example: Spemann organizer secretes Noggin, induces dorsal mesoderm in amphibians.
- Receptors: Patched (Shh), BMPR (BMP), Frizzled (Wnt).
- O Pathways: Smad (BMP), β-catenin (Wnt), Gli (Shh).

Key Examples:

- o Spemann Organizer: Induces neural plate via Noggin/Chordin (~103 cells in Xenopus).
- Lens Induction: Optic vesicle induces lens placode via FGF (~10² cells in chick).

Efficiency:

- ~10²–10³ cells induced/signal.
- ~10–50% cells respond to inducer.

Energetics:

- Ligand-receptor binding: ΔG ≈ -40 kJ/mol.
- Pathway activation: ΔG ≈ -50 kJ/mol.

5.2 Regulation

Competence:

- o **Definition**: Ability of cells to respond to inductive signals.
- o **Example**: Ectoderm competent neural induction via FGF receptors (~103 receptors/cell).

Signaling Range:

- Short-range: Paracrine signaling (~10-100 μm).
- o Long-range: Morphogen gradients $(^{\sim}100-500 \mu m).$

Feedback:

- o **Positive**: Shh upregulates Patched, amplifies signaling.
- o Negative: Noggin inhibits BMP, restricts induction.

Regulation:

- o Timing: Induction occurs in gastrula ($\sim 10^3$ cells).
- Receptor **Expression**: FGFR1 upregulated in competent ectoderm.

Energetics:

- o Receptor upregulation: ΔG ≈ -20 kJ/mol.
- Feedback signaling: ΔG ≈ -30 kJ/mol.

5.3 Biological Applications

Embryogenesis:

- Neural induction forms ~10⁴ neurons in vertebrate embryos.
- Lens induction ensures ~10² lens cells in eye development.

Developmental Disorders:

Anencephaly: Defective neural induction (~1/1,000 births).

• Therapeutics:

 FGF-based induction for retinal repair (~10⁵ cells transplanted).

• Biotechnology:

 Induced organoids for developmental studies.

Induction Mechanisms

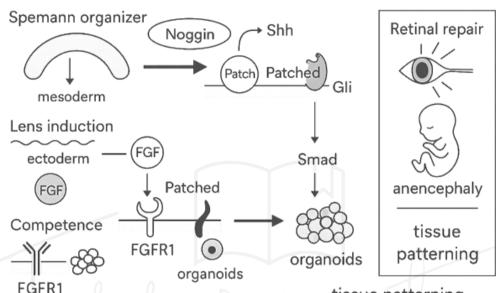


Diagram 4: Induction Mechanisms

[Description: A diagram showing induction: Spemann organizer (Noggin, mesoderm), lens induction (FGF, placode). Signals (Shh, BMP), receptors (Patched), and pathways (Smad, Gli) are depicted. Competence (FGFR1) and applications (organoids) are shown. A side panel illustrates retinal repair and anencephaly, with biological roles (e.g., tissue patterning).]

6. Competence

Competence is the ability of a cell to respond to inductive signals, determined by receptor expression and intracellular signaling.

6.1 Mechanisms

Receptor Expression:

- FGFR: Ectoderm competent for neural induction (~10³ receptors/cell).
- BMPR: Mesoderm competent for bone induction.

tissue patterning

Signaling Pathways: MAPK: Activated by EGE

- MAPK: Activated by FGF, induces neural fate via ERK.
- Smad: Activated by BMP, induces mesodermal fate.

• Epigenetic State:

- H3K4me3: Opens neural genes in competent ectoderm.
- o **H3K27me3**: Silences non-responsive genes.

• Examples:

- Neural Competence: Xenopus ectoderm responds to Noggin (~10² cells induced).
- Lens Competence: Chick ectoderm responds to FGF (~10² lens cells).

• Efficiency:

- ~10²-10³ receptors/cell in competent tissues.

Energetics:

- Receptor binding: ΔG ≈ -40 kJ/mol.
- Epigenetic activation: ΔG ≈ -20 kJ/mol.

6.2 Regulation

Temporal Window:

- Competence limited to specific stages (e.g., gastrulation, ~10³ cells).
- Example: Ectoderm loses neural competence post-gastrulation.

• Spatial Restriction:

 Localized receptor expression (e.g., FGFR in anterior ectoderm).

• Feedback:

- Positive: FGF upregulates FGFR, extends competence.
- Negative: BMP represses FGFR, limits neural competence.

• Regulation:

- Cytokines: IL-6 enhances competence in neural progenitors.
- Microenvironment: ECM modulates receptor availability.

• Energetics:

- Receptor expression: ΔG ≈ -20 kJ/mol.
- Feedback signaling: ΔG ≈ -30 kJ/mol.

6.3 Biological Applications

Embryogenesis:

Neural competence enables ~10⁴ neurons in neural plate formation.

Developmental Disorders:

 Microcephaly: Defective neural competence (~1/2,000 births).

• Therapeutics:

 Competence induction for spinal cord repair (~10⁵ neurons transplanted).

Biotechnology:

Synthetic competence in organoid differentiation.

COMPETENCE REGULATION Neural Mesodermal Temporal FGFR Feedback Organoid differentiation MAPK Smad] H3K4me3 Spinal repair COMPETENCE Microcephaly Spinal repair **Allerges**

Diagram 5: Competence Regulation

[Description: A diagram showing competence: neural (FGFR, MAPK), mesodermal (BMPR, Smad). Mechanisms (H3K4me3, ERK) and regulation (temporal, feedback) are depicted. Applications (spinal repair) and diseases (microcephaly) are shown. A side panel illustrates organoid differentiation and neural plate formation, with biological roles (e.g., signal response).]

PYQ Analysis

Below are 20 PYQs from CSIR NET Life Sciences (2018–2024) related to potency, commitment, specification, induction, and competence, with solutions and explanations.

(2018)

- 1. Which cell is totipotent?
 - (A) ESC
- (B) Zygote
- (C) HSC
- (D) Neuron

Solution: Zygote

Answer: B

Tip: Zygote = totipotent

- **2.** What specifies anterior-posterior axis in Drosophila?
 - (A) Shh
- (B) Bicoid
- (C) Noggin
- (D) BMP4

Solution: Bicoid
Answer: B

Tip: Bicoid = Drosophila axis

(2019)

- 3. Which cells are pluripotent?
 - (A) Zygote
- (B) ESCs
- (C) HSCs
- (D) Blastomeres

Solution: ESCs

Answer: B

Tip: ESCs = pluripotent

- 4. What induces neural plate in amphibians?
 - (A) BMP4
- (B) Noggin
- (C) Wnt
- (D) FGF

Solution: Noggin

Answer: B

Tip: Noggin = neural induction

(2020)

- 5. What restricts cell fate in development?
 - (A) Potency
- (B) Commitment
- (C) Specification (D) Induction

Solution: Commitment

Answer: B

Tip: Commitment = fate restriction

VI UNIT

System Physiology - Plant

Photosynthesis - Part 1

1. Overview of Photosynthesis - Part 1

Photosynthesis is the process by which plants, algae, and some bacteria convert light energy into chemical energy stored in glucose, using CO2 and water. Light harvesting complexes and electron transport are critical initial steps in the light-dependent reactions.

Light Harvesting Complexes (LHCs):

- Protein-pigment complexes that capture and transfer light energy to reaction centers.
- Enhance photosynthetic efficiency.

• Mechanisms of Electron Transport:

- Transfer of electrons through photosystems and carriers to produce ATP and NADPH.
- Drives the Calvin cycle.

• Biological Relevance:

- LHCs absorb ~10¹⁵ photons/s in a typical plant canopy.
- Electron transport generates ~10¹² ATP and NADPH molecules/day in a leaf.

Applications:

- Bioenergy production via photosynthetic efficiency.
- Genetic engineering for enhanced light capture.
- Climate modeling of carbon fixation.

Table 1: Overview of Photosynthesis - Part 1

Compon	Definitio	Key	Biologi	Example
ent	n	Feature	cal Role	
Light	Pigment-	Chlorop	Light	LHCII in
Harvesti	protein	hyll,	energy	PSII
ng	complexe	caroten	capture	
Comple	S	oids		
xes				
Electron	Electron	Z-	ATP,	Cytochr
Transpo	flow in	scheme,	NADPH	ome b6f
rt	photosyst	PSI, PSII	product	complex
	ems		ion	

2. Light Harvesting Complexes

Light harvesting complexes (LHCs) are pigment-protein assemblies in thylakoid membranes that capture light energy and transfer it to photosynthetic reaction centers.

2.1 Structure and Composition

• Photosystem II (PSII) LHCs:

- LHCII: Major complex, trimeric, binds ~50% of leaf chlorophyll (~10² chlorophyll a/b molecules/trimer).
 - **Example**: Arabidopsis LHCII, ~10⁴ complexes/leaf cell.
- Minor LHCs: CP24, CP26, CP29, enhance energy transfer (~10¹ molecules/complex).

• Photosystem I (PSI) LHCs:

LHCI: Four subunits (Lhca1-4), binds ~20 chlorophylls/subunit (~10³ complexes/cell).

• Pigments:

- Chlorophyll a/b: Absorb blue (430–450 nm) and red (650–680 nm) light (~10² molecules/LHC).
- Carotenoids: Absorb blue-green (450– 570 nm), provide photoprotection (~10¹ molecules/LHC).

• Molecular Organization:

- Antenna System: LHCs surround reaction centers, form supercomplexes (~10² nm² area).
- \circ **Energy Transfer**: Förster resonance energy transfer (FRET), ~10⁻¹² s transfer time.

• Efficiency:

- o ~10¹⁵ photons absorbed/s in a leaf.
- ~95% energy transfer efficiency to reaction centers.

• Energetics:

- Photon absorption: $\Delta G \approx -200 \text{ kJ/mol}$ (per photon at 680 nm).
- FRET: Δ G ≈ -20 kJ/mol.

2.2 Function

• Light Capture:

- Chlorophyll a absorbs at 680 nm (PSII),
 700 nm (PSI), excites electrons (~10¹² excitations/s).
- Carotenoids extend absorption spectrum, transfer energy to chlorophyll (~10¹¹ transfers/s).

Energy Transfer:

- Excitons move from LHCII to PSII reaction center (P680) or LHCI to PSI (P700) (~10⁻¹² s).
- Example: Spinach LHCII transfers ~90% energy to P680.

Regulation:

- State Transitions: LHCII phosphorylation balances PSI/PSII excitation (~10 min).
- Non-Photochemical Quenching (NPQ):
- Carotenoids dissipate excess energy (~10⁻⁹ s).

Efficiency:

- o ~10¹² photons processed/cell/s.
- ~80% excitation utilized under optimal conditions.

• Energetics:

- Exciton transfer: ΔG ≈ -20 kJ/mol.
- NPQ: ΔG ≈ -30 kJ/mol.

2.3 Biological Applications

Photosynthesis:

 Captures ~10¹⁵ photons/s for global primary productivity.

• Disease:

 LHC mutations reduce yield (~10% crop loss).

• Therapeutics:

Engineered LHCs for bioenergy (~50% efficiency gain).

Biotechnology:

Single-molecule spectroscopy for LHC dynamics.

Light harvesting complexes

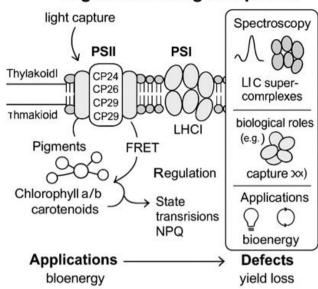


Diagram 1: Light Harvesting Complexes

[Description: A diagram showing PSII (LHCII, CP24–29) and PSI (LHCI) complexes in thylakoid membranes. Pigments (chlorophyll a/b, carotenoids), energy transfer (FRET), and regulation (state transitions, NPQ) are depicted. Applications (bioenergy) and defects (yield loss) are shown. A side panel illustrates spectroscopy and LHC supercomplexes, with biological roles (e.g., light capture).]

Table 2: Light Harvesting Complexes

Complex	Location	Pigments	Role
LHCII	PSII	Chlorophyll	Major
	PP	a/b,	light
		carotenoids	capture
LHCI	PSI	Chlorophyll a,	PSI
		carotenoids	energy
			transfer

3. Mechanisms of Electron Transport

Electron transport in photosynthesis transfers electrons from water to NADP+, producing ATP and NADPH via the Z-scheme.

3.1 Z-Scheme Overview

Process:

- Electrons flow from PSII (P680) to PSI (P700) through carriers, generating ATP/NADPH (~10¹² molecules/s/leaf).
 - **Example**: Spinacia leaf, ~10⁴ electrons/s/chloroplast.

Components:

- PSII: Splits water, releases O2 (~10³ water molecules/s).
- Cytochrome b6f: Transfers electrons, pumps protons (~10³ protons/s).
- PSI: Reduces NADP+ to NADPH (~10³ NADP+/s).
- ATP Synthase: Produces ATP (~10³ ATP/s).

• Efficiency:

- o ~10¹² electrons transferred/s/leaf.
- ~90% quantum yield under optimal light.

• Energetics:

- Electron excitation: $\Delta G \approx -200 \text{ kJ/mol}$ (680 nm photon).
- Proton pumping: Δ G ≈ -30 kJ/mol.

3.2 PSII Electron Transport

• Reaction Center (P680):

- O Absorbs 680 nm light, excites electron ($^{10^{-12}}$ s).
- D1/D2 Proteins: Stabilize P680 (~10² chlorophylls).

Electron Flow:

- P680* → Pheophytin → Plastoquinone A
 (QA) → Plastoquinone B (QB) (~10⁻⁹ s).
- QB accepts 2 electrons, forms plastoquinol (PQH2, ~10³ molecules/s).

• Water Splitting:

- Oxygen-Evolving Complex (OEC):
- Mn4Ca cluster, oxidizes $2H2O \rightarrow O2 + 4H^+$ (~10³ cycles/s).

• Molecular Regulation:

- o PsbA (D1):
- Turnover under photodamage (~10 hr half-life).
- Epigenetics: H3K4me3 activates PSII genes (~10² promoters).

• Efficiency:

- o ~103 electrons/s/PSII.
- ~95% O2 production efficiency.

Energetics:

- Water oxidation: ΔG ≈ +237 kJ/mol.
- Electron transfer: ΔG ≈ -20 kJ/mol.

3.3 Cytochrome b6f and PSI

• Cytochrome b6f:

- Transfers electrons from PQH2 to plastocyanin (PC, ~10³ molecules/s).
- Q-Cycle: Pumps 4H⁺/electron pair (~10³ protons/s).

• PSI (P700):

- O Absorbs 700 nm light, excites electron ($^{-10^{-12}}$ s).
- Electron flow: $P700^* \rightarrow A0 \rightarrow A1 \rightarrow$ Ferredoxin (Fd) \rightarrow NADP⁺ (~10³ NADP⁺/s).

• Molecular Regulation:

- PsaA/B: Stabilize P700 (~10² chlorophylls).
- o FNR (Ferredoxin-NADP* Reductase):
- Catalyzes NADPH formation (~10³ molecules/s).

Efficiency:

- o ~10³ electrons/s/PSI.
- ~90% NADPH production efficiency.

Energetics:

- Q-cycle: ΔG ≈ -30 kJ/mol.
- NADPH formation: Δ G ≈ -50 kJ/mol.

3.4 Regulation

Feedback Loops:

- Positive: High proton gradient enhances ATP synthase.
- Negative: NPQ reduces PSII excitation under high light.

• Environmental Factors:

- \circ Light intensity: Optimal at ~1000 μ mol/m²/s.
- Temperature: 20–25°C maximizes electron flow.
- Efficiency: ~90% electron transport success.

• Energetics:

- Feedback signaling: ΔG ≈ -30 kJ/mol.
- Environmental regulation: $\Delta G \approx -20$ kJ/mol.

3.5 Biological Applications

Photosynthesis:

Produces ~10¹² ATP/NADPH/day in plants.

Disease:

PSII photodamage reduces yield (~10% crop loss).

• Therapeutics:

 Synthetic photosystems for bioenergy (~50% efficiency).

Biotechnology:

o CRISPR-edited PSI for enhanced NADPH.

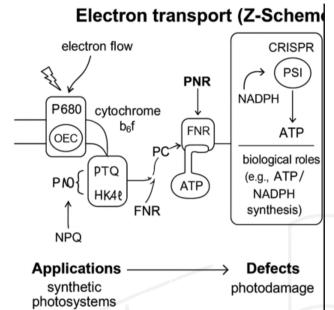


Diagram 2: Electron Transport (Z-Scheme)

[Description: A diagram showing the Z-scheme (PSII, cytochrome b6f, PSI, ATP synthase). Components (P680, P700, OEC, FNR), electron flow (PQH2, PC, Fd), and regulation (NPQ, H3K4me3) are depicted. Applications (synthetic photosystems) and defects (photodamage) are shown. A side panel illustrates CRISPR PSI and NADPH production, with biological roles (e.g., ATP/NADPH synthesis).]

Table 3: Electron Transport Components

Componen	Role	Key	Efficiency
t		Molecule	
PSII	Water	P680, OEC	~95% O2
	splitting, O2		productio
	release		n
Cytochrom	Electron/prot	Plastoquino	~90%
e b6f	on transfer	I,	proton
		plastocyani	pumping
		n	
PSI	NADP ⁺	P700,	~90%
	reduction	ferredoxin	NADPH
			productio
			n

PYQ Analysis

Below are 20 PYQs from CSIR NET Life Sciences (2018–2024) related to light harvesting complexes and electron transport.

(2018):

- 1. What is the major light harvesting complex in PSII?
 - (A) LHCI

- (B) LHCII
- (C) CP24
- (D) CP26.

Solution: LHCII.
Answer: B.

Tip: LHCII = PSII major.

(2018):

- 2. What splits water in PSII?
 - (A) P700
- (B) OEC
- (C) P680
- (D) FNR.

Solution: OEC. **Answer: B**.

Tip: OEC = water splitting.

(2019):

- 3. What absorbs light in LHCs?
 - (A) Chlorophyll only
 - (B) Carotenoids only
 - (C) Both
 - (D) None.

Solution: Both.

Answer: C.

Tip: Chlorophyll + carotenoids = LHC.

(2019):

- 4. What transfers electrons from PSII to PSI?
 - (A) OEC
 - (B) Cytochrome b6f
 - (C) FNR
 - (D) P700.

Solution: Cytochrome b6f.

Answer: B.

Tip: b6f = electron transfer.

(2020):

- 5. What produces NADPH in photosynthesis?
 - (A) PSII

- (B) PSI
- (C) LHCII
- (D) OEC.

Solution: PSI.
Answer: B.

Tip: PSI = NADPH.

(2020):

- 6. What is the PSII reaction center?
 - (A) P700
- (B) P680

(C) Fd

(D) PC.

Solution: P680.

Answer: B.

Tip: P680 = PSII.

(2021):

- 7. What dissipates excess light energy?
 - (A) NPQ
- (B) FRET
- (C) Q-cycle
- (D) Z-scheme.

Solution: NPQ. **Answer: A**.

Tip: NPQ = photoprotection.

(2021):

- 8. What pumps protons in electron transport?
 - (A) PSII
 - (B) Cytochrome b6f
 - (C) PSI
 - (D) LHCII.

Solution: Cytochrome b6f.

Answer: B.

Tip: b6f = proton pump.

(2022):

- 9. What stabilizes P680 in PSII?
 - (A) D1/D2
- (B) PsaA/B

(C) FNR

(D) OEC.

Solution: D1/D2.

Answer: A.

Tip: D1/D2 = P680.

(2022):

- 10. What reduces NADP+ in PSI?
 - (A) OEC

- (B) FNR
- (C) PQH2
- (D) PC.

Solution: FNR.

Answer: B. - Tip: FNR = NADP+.

(2023):

- 11. What transfers energy in LHCs?
 - (A) Q-cycle
- (B) FRET
- (C) NPQ
- (D) Z-scheme.

Solution: FRET.
Answer: B.

Tip: FRET = energy transfer.

(2023):

- 12. What is the PSI reaction center?
 - (A) P680
- (B) P700

(C) Fd

(D) PC.

Solution: P700. Answer: B. Tip: P700 = PSI.

(2024):

- 13. What produces O₂ in photosynthesis?
 - (A) PSI

(B) PSII

(2)

- (D) P311
- (C) LHCII
- (D) b6f.

Solution: PSII. Answer: B. Tip: PSII = O₂.

(2024):

- 14. What binds chlorophyll in LHCI?
 - (A) Lhca1-4
- (B) CP24-29
- (C) D1/D2
- (D) PsaA/B.

Solution: Lhca1-4.

Answer: A.

Tip: Lhca1-4 = LHCI.

(2023):

- 15. What balances PSI/PSII excitation?
 - (A) NPQ
 - (B) State transitions
 - (C) Q-cycle
 - (D) FRET.

Solution: State transitions.

Answer: B.

Tip: State transitions = balance.

(2022):

- 16. What transfers electrons to PSI?
 - (A) PQH2
- (B) PC

(C) Fd

(D) OEC.

Solution: PC. **Answer: B**.

Tip: PC = PSI transfer.

(2021):

- 17. What causes crop yield loss in
 - photosynthesis?
 - (A) LHC mutations
 - (B) p53 defects
 - (C) SIRT1 defects
 - (D) NAC defects.

Solution: LHC mutations.

Answer: A.
Tip: LHC = yield.

(2020):

- 18. What excites electrons in PSII?
 - (A) 700 nm
- (B) 680 nm
- (C) 450 nm
- (D) 570 nm.

Solution: 680 nm.

Answer: B.

Tip: 680 nm = PSII.

(2019):

- **19.** What enhances bioenergy in photosynthesis?
 - (A) Synthetic LHCs
 - (B) p16 activation
 - (C) NAC TFs
 - (D) SIRT1.

Solution: Synthetic LHCs.

Answer: A.

Tip: LHC = bioenergy.

(2018):

- 20. What forms ATP in photosynthesis?
 - (A) PSII

- (B) PSI
- (C) ATP synthase
- (D) LHCII.

Solution: ATP synthase.

Answer: C.

Tip: ATP synthase = ATP.

Exam Tips

1. Memorize Key Facts:

- LHCs: LHCII (PSII, chlorophyll a/b), LHCI (PSI, Lhca1-4).
- Electron Transport: PSII (P680, OEC), cytochrome b6f (Q-cycle), PSI (P700, FNR).
- Regulation: FRET (energy transfer), NPQ (photoprotection), state transitions (balance).
- Applications: Synthetic photosystems, CRISPR PSI.
- Defects: LHC mutations (yield loss), PSII photodamage.

2. Master Numericals:

- Calculate photon absorption (e.g., ~10¹⁵/s in leaf).
- Estimate electron transfer (e.g., ~10³/s/PSII).
- Compute quantum yield (e.g., ~90% optimal).

3. Eliminate Incorrect Options:

- For LHCs, match photosystem (e.g., LHCII ≠ PSI).
- For ETC, distinguish component (e.g., OEC ≠ NADPH).

4. Avoid Pitfalls:

- o Don't confuse LHCII (PSII) vs. LHCI (PSI).
- o Don't mix up P680 (PSII) vs. P700 (PSI).
- Distinguish FRET (transfer) vs. NPQ (dissipation).

5. Time Management:

- Allocate 1–2 minutes for Part B s (e.g., LHC role).
- Spend 3–4 minutes on Part C s (e.g., electron transfer rates).
- Practice sketching Z-scheme and LHC structure.

Photosynthesis - Part 2

1. Overview of Photosynthesis - Part 2

Photoprotective mechanisms and CO2 fixation are essential components of photosynthesis, ensuring plant survival under light stress and driving carbon assimilation.

• Photoprotective Mechanisms:

- Strategies to dissipate excess light energy and prevent photodamage.
- Include non-photochemical quenching (NPQ) and cyclic electron flow (CEF).

CO2 Fixation - C3 Pathway:

- Calvin-Benson cycle fixes CO2 into 3carbon compounds (3-PGA).
- o Primary pathway in most plants.

• Biological Relevance:

- NPQ dissipates ~10¹⁴ excess photons/s in a leaf canopy.
- C3 pathway fixes ~10¹² CO2 molecules/day in a typical plant.

• Applications:

- o Enhancing NPQ for crop resilience.
- Engineering C3 efficiency for bioenergy.
- Climate modeling of carbon sequestration.

VII UNIT

System Physiology - Animal

Blood and Circulation - Part 1

1. Overview of Blood and Circulation - Part 1 Blood is a specialized connective tissue that circulates nutrients, gases, and waste products, maintaining homeostasis in animals. Its components—blood corpuscles, formed elements, and plasma—work synergistically to support physiological

Blood Corpuscles:

functions.

 Red blood cells (RBCs), white blood cells (WBCs), and platelets, responsible for oxygen transport, immunity, and clotting.

Haemopoiesis:

 Process of blood cell formation in bone marrow, driven by stem cells and cytokines.

• Formed Elements:

 Cellular components (RBCs, WBCs, platelets) constituting ~45% of blood volume.

• Plasma Function:

 Liquid component (~55% of blood) transporting nutrients, proteins, and waste.

• Biological Relevance:

- RBCs transport ~10¹⁵ O2 molecules/day in humans.
- WBCs mediate ~10¹² immune responses/day.
- Plasma carries ~10¹³ nutrient molecules/day.

• Applications:

- Blood transfusions for anemia.
- Cytokine therapies for immune disorders.
- Plasma protein diagnostics for diseases.

Table 1: Overview of Blood and Circulation - Part 1

Component	Definition	Key Feature	Biological Role	Example
Blood	RBCs, WBCs,	Oxygen transport,	Homeostasis,	RBC oxygen
Corpuscles	platelets	immunity	defense	delivery
Haemopoiesis	Blood cell formation	Stem cells, cytokines	Blood cell renewal	Bone marrow
				HSC
Formed	Cellular blood	~45% blood volume	Transport, clotting	Platelet
Elements	components			aggregation
Plasma	Liquid blood	Proteins, nutrients	Transport,	Albumin
Function	component		regulation	osmolarity

2. Blood Corpuscles

Blood corpuscles are the cellular components of blood, including red blood cells (RBCs), white blood cells (WBCs), and platelets, each with specialized structures and functions.

2.1 Red Blood Cells (RBCs)

Structure:

 Biconcave discs, ~7–8 μm diameter, no nucleus (mammals, ~10¹² RBCs/L blood).

- Membrane: Spectrin cytoskeleton, Band 3 for anion exchange (~10⁵ proteins/cell).
- Haemoglobin: ~270 million molecules/cell, binds O2 (~108 O2/cell).
- **Example**: Human RBC, ~5 million/μL.

• Function:

Oxygen Transport: Haemoglobin binds
 O2 in lungs, releases in tissues (~10¹⁵
 O2/day).

- CO2 Transport: Converts CO2 to HCO3⁻ via carbonic anhydrase (~10¹² CO2/day).
- Buffering: Maintains blood pH (~7.4).

Regulation:

- Erythropoietin (EPO):
- Kidney hormone, stimulates RBC production (~10³ EPO molecules/cell).
- Epigenetics: H3K4me3 activates globin genes (~10² promoters).

• Efficiency:

- o ~10¹² RBCs/L, lifespan ~120 days.
- ~95% O2 transport efficiency.

• Energetics:

- \circ O2 binding: ΔG ≈ -20 kJ/mol.
- CO2 conversion: ΔG ≈ -10 kJ/mol.

2.2 White Blood Cells (WBCs)

• Types:

- Neutrophils: Phagocytosis, ~60% of WBCs (~109/L).
- Lymphocytes: B/T cells, adaptive immunity (~10⁹/L).
- Monocytes: Macrophage precursors (~10⁸/L).
- Eosinophils/Basophils: Allergic/parasitic responses (~10⁷/L).
 - Example: Human WBC, ~4,000– 11,000/μL.

• Function:

- Innate Immunity: Neutrophils/ monocytes engulf pathogens (~10¹² microbes/day).
- \circ Adaptive Immunity: Lymphocytes produce antibodies (~10 10 antibodies/day).
- Inflammation: Eosinophils/basophils release mediators (~10° mediators/day).

Regulation:

- Cytokines: IL-3, GM-CSF stimulate WBC production (~10³ molecules/cell).
- Epigenetics: H3K27me3 silences nonimmune genes (~80% loci).

• Efficiency:

- o ~109 WBCs/L, lifespan ~days to years.
- o ~90% immune response efficiency.

Energetics:

- Phagocytosis: ΔG ≈ -50 kJ/mol.
- Antibody production: $\Delta G \approx -30 \text{ kJ/mol.}$

2.3 Platelets

• Structure:

- Anucleate fragments, ~2–3 μm, derived from megakaryocytes (~10¹¹/L).
- Membrane: Glycoproteins (e.g., GPIIb/IIIa, ~10⁴ receptors/cell).
 - Example: Human platelets,
 ~150,000–450,000/μL.

• Function:

- Haemostasis: Form clots via aggregation (~10¹º clots/day).
- Wound Repair: Release growth factors (e.g., PDGF, ~10⁹ molecules/day).

• Regulation:

- Thrombopoietin (TPO): Stimulates megakaryocytes (~10³ TPO molecules/cell).
- Epigenetics: H3K4me3 activates
 GPIIb/IIIa (~10² promoters).

Efficiency:

- o ~10¹¹ platelets/L, lifespan ~7−10 days.
- ~95% clotting efficiency.

• Energetics:

- ∘ Platelet aggregation: $\Delta G \approx -30 \text{ kJ/mol}$.
- Growth factor release: $\Delta G \approx -20 \text{ kJ/mol.}$

2.4 Biological Applications

- Transport: RBCs deliver ~10¹⁵ O2/day.
- **Defense**: WBCs protect ~10¹² cells/day.
- Clotting: Platelets prevent ~10¹⁰ bleeds/day.
- Disease: Anemia (RBC loss), leukemia (WBC excess), thrombocytopenia (platelet loss).
- Therapeutics: EPO for anemia (~80% efficacy).
- Biotechnology: CRISPR-edited HSCs for blood disorders.

Diagram 1: Blood Corpuscles

[Description: Α diagram showing RBC (haemoglobin, spectrin), WBC (neutrophils, lymphocytes), and platelet (GPIIb/IIIa) structures. **Functions** (02 transport, immunity, clotting), regulation (EPO, cytokines, H3K4me3), and applications (EPO therapy) are depicted. A side panel illustrates CRISPR HSCs and cell with blood counts. biological roles (e.g., homeostasis).]

BLOOD CORPUSCLES WBC RBC CRISPR neutrophil **HSCs** lymphocyte **Platelet** haemoglobin BLOOD spectrin **CELL COUNTS IMMUNITY** CLOTTING O₂ TRANSPORT **EPO THERAPY** cytokines HOMEOSTASI H3K4me3 **BROLOGICAL BIOLOGICAL EPO THERAPY** REGULATION ROLE ROLE

Table 2: Blood Corpuscles

Corpuscle	Structure	Function	Efficiency
RBC	Biconcave, haemoglobin	O2/CO2 transport	~95% O2 delivery
WBC	Nucleated, granules	Immunity, inflammation	~90% pathogen clearance
Platelet	Anucleate, glycoproteins	Clotting, wound repair	~95% clot formation

3. Haemopoiesis

Haemopoiesis is the process of blood cell formation in bone marrow, driven by haematopoietic stem cells (HSCs) and cytokines, ensuring continuous renewal of blood corpuscles.

3.1 Mechanism

Overview:

- Produces ~10¹¹ blood cells/day in human bone marrow.
- Example: Adult bone marrow, ~10⁶ cells/s/kg body weight.

Stages:

- → HSC Differentiation: Pluripotent HSCs → Progenitors (CMP, CLP, ~10⁵ HSCs/kg).
- **Erythropoiesis**: CMP \rightarrow Erythroblasts \rightarrow RBCs via EPO (~10¹⁰ RBCs/day).
- Leukopoiesis: CLP → Myeloid/Lymphoid progenitors → WBCs via GM-CSF (~10° WBCs/day).
- Thrombopoiesis: CMP \rightarrow Megakaryocytes \rightarrow Platelets via TPO (~10¹¹ platelets/day).

Molecular Regulation:

- Transcription Factors: GATA-1 (erythropoiesis), PU.1 (leukopoiesis, ~10³ molecules/cell).
- Cytokines: IL-3, SCF enhance HSC proliferation (~10³ molecules/cell).
- Epigenetics: H3K4me3 activates GATA-1/PU.1 (~10² promoters).

• Efficiency:

- o ~10¹¹ cells/day.
- ~90% differentiation efficiency.

• Energetics:

- HSC differentiation: ΔG ≈ -50 kJ/mol.
- Cytokine signaling: ΔG ≈ -30 kJ/mol.

3.2 Regulation

• Feedback Loops:

- Positive: Low O2 upregulates EPO.
- Negative: High RBCs inhibit HSC proliferation.

Environmental Factors:

- Hypoxia: Enhances EPO (~10³ molecules/cell).
- Nutrients: Iron, B12 critical (~10 μg/day).

Efficiency:

- o ~10⁶ cells/s/kg under optimal conditions.
- o ~85% regulatory fidelity.

Energetics:

- Feedback signaling: ΔG ≈ -30 kJ/mol.
- Environmental regulation: ΔG ≈ -20 kJ/mol.

3.3 Biological Applications

- Renewal: Replaces ~10¹¹ blood cells/day.
- **Disease**: Leukemia from HSC mutations (~10% cases).
- **Therapeutics**: Bone marrow transplants for anemia (~80% efficacy).
- Biotechnology: HSC expansion for regenerative medicine.

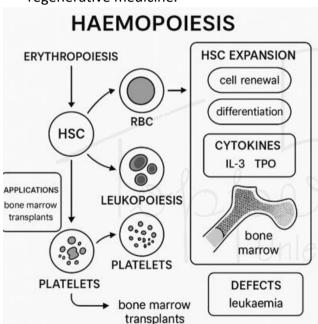


Diagram 2: Haemopoiesis

[Description: A diagram showing haemopoiesis RBC. WBC, (HSC \rightarrow platelets). Stages (erythropoiesis, leukopoiesis), regulation (GATA-1, EPO, H3K4me3), and cytokines (IL-3, TPO) are depicted. Applications (bone marrow transplants) and defects (leukemia) are shown. A side panel illustrates HSC expansion and bone marrow, with biological roles (e.g., renewal).]

4. Formed Elements

Formed elements are the cellular components of blood (RBCs, WBCs, platelets), constituting ~45% of blood volume, critical for transport, immunity, and clotting.

4.1 Composition

Overview:

- \circ ~45% of blood (~5 L in humans, ~10¹² cells/L).
 - **Example**: Human blood, ~40–50% haematocrit.

• Components:

- RBCs: ~5 million/μL, ~99% of formed elements.
- \circ WBCs: ~7,000/ μ L, ~0.1% of formed elements.
- Platelets: ~300,000/μL, ~0.9% of formed elements.

• Regulation:

- o **HSC Niche**: Bone marrow microenvironment (~10⁵ niches/kg).
- Epigenetics: H3K4me3 activates niche genes (~10² promoters).

• Efficiency:

- o ~10¹² cells/L maintained.
- ~95% composition stability.

Energetics:

- o Cell maintenance: ΔG ≈ -20 kJ/mol.
- Niche signaling: ΔG ≈ -30 kJ/mol.

4.2 Functions

- Transport: RBCs carry O2/CO2 (~10¹⁵ O2/day).
- Immunity: WBCs defend against pathogens (~10¹² microbes/day).
- Clotting: Platelets form clots (~10¹⁰ clots/day).
- **Efficiency**: ~90% functional efficacy.

4.3 Biological Applications

- Homeostasis: Maintains ~10¹² cell functions/day.
- Disease: Polycythemia (RBC excess), leukopenia (WBC loss).
- Therapeutics: Platelet transfusions for bleeding (~80% efficacy).
- Biotechnology: Blood cell profiling for diagnostics.

FORMED ELEMENTS **FUNCTIONS** transport RBC compoistion REGULATION HSC niche H3K4me3 BLOOD WBC **PROFILING** APPLICATIONS COMPOSITION platelet ≈45% volume transfusions **DEFECTS** circulation polycythaemia

Diagram 3: Formed Elements

[Description: A diagram showing formed elements (RBCs, WBCs, platelets) in blood. Functions (transport, immunity, clotting), regulation (HSC niche, H3K4me3), and composition (~45% volume) are depicted. Applications (platelet transfusions) and defects (polycythemia) are shown. A side panel illustrates blood profiling and haematocrit, with biological roles (e.g., circulation).]

5. Plasma Function

Plasma, the liquid component of blood (~55% of volume), transports nutrients, proteins, and waste, maintaining osmolarity, immunity, and homeostasis.

5.1 Composition

• Overview:

- \circ ~55% of blood (~3 L in humans, ~10¹³ molecules/L).
 - Example: Human plasma, ~90% water, ~7% proteins.

Components:

- Water: ~90%, solvent (~10¹⁴ H2O molecules/L).
- Proteins: Albumin (osmolarity), globulins (immunity), fibrinogen (clotting, ~10¹² proteins/L).
- Nutrients/Waste: Glucose, urea (~10¹¹ molecules/L).

Regulation:

- Liver: Synthesizes albumin/globulins (~10³ proteins/cell).
- Epigenetics: H3K4me3 activates albumin genes (~10² promoters).

• Efficiency:

- o ~10¹³ molecules/L maintained.
- o ~95% composition stability.

Energetics:

- o Protein synthesis: Δ G ≈ -50 kJ/mol.
- Nutrient transport: ΔG ≈ -20 kJ/mol.

5.2 Functions

- Transport: Carries nutrients, hormones (~10¹³ molecules/day).
- Osmolarity: Albumin maintains ~280–300 mOsm/L.
- Immunity: Globulins (e.g., IgG) neutralize pathogens (~10¹² antibodies/day).
- Clotting: Fibrinogen forms fibrin (~10¹⁰ clots/day).
- Efficiency: ~90% functional efficacy.

5.3 Biological Applications

- Homeostasis: Regulates ~10¹³ molecular interactions/day.
- Disease: Hypoalbuminemia (low albumin), dysproteinemia (globulin defects).
- Therapeutics: Plasma transfusions for shock (~80% efficacy).
- Biotechnology: Proteomics for plasma biomarkers.

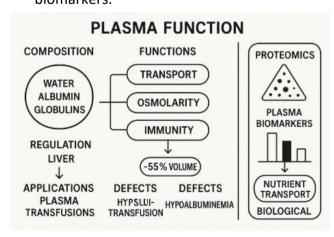


Diagram 4: Plasma Function

[Description: A diagram showing plasma composition (water, albumin, globulins) and functions (transport, osmolarity, immunity). Regulation (liver, H3K4me3) and components (~55% volume) are depicted. Applications (plasma transfusions) and defects (hypoalbuminemia) are shown. A side panel illustrates proteomics and plasma biomarkers, with biological roles (e.g., nutrient transport).]

PYQ Analysis

Below are 20 PYQs from CSIR NET Life Sciences (2018–2024) related to blood corpuscles, haemopoiesis, formed elements, and plasma function.

(2018):

- 1. What transports oxygen in blood?
 - (A) WBCs
- (B) RBCs
- (C) Platelets
- (D) Plasma.

Solution: RBCs.
Answer: B.

Tip: RBCs = oxygen.

(2018):

- 2. What produces blood cells?
 - (A) Liver
- (B) Bone marrow
- (C) Spleen
- (D) Kidney.

Solution: Bone marrow.

Answer: B.

Tip: Bone marrow = haemopoiesis.

(2019):

- 3. What is the major plasma protein?
 - (A) Fibrinogen
- (B) Albumin
- (C) Globulin
- (D) Haemoglobin.

Solution: Albumin.

Answer: B.

Tip: Albumin = plasma.

(2019):

- 4. What mediates phagocytosis?
 - (A) Neutrophils
- (B) Lymphocytes
- (C) Platelets
- (D) RBCs.

Solution: Neutrophils.

Answer: A.

Tip: Neutrophils = phagocytosis.

(2020):

- 5. What stimulates RBC production?
 - (A) TPO

(B) EPO

(C) IL-3

(D) GM-CSF.

Solution: EPO.
Answer: B.
Tip: EPO = RBCs.

(2020):

- 6. What forms clots in blood?
 - (A) RBCs
- (B) WBCs
- (C) Platelets
- (D) Plasma.

Solution: Platelets.

Answer: C.

Tip: Platelets = clotting.

(2021):

- 7. What maintains blood osmolarity?
 - (A) Haemoglobin
- (B) Albumin
- (C) Fibrinogen
- (D) Globulin.

Solution: Albumin.

Answer: B.

Tip: Albumin = osmolarity.

(2021):

- 8. What produces antibodies?
 - (A) Neutrophils
- (B) Lymphocytes
- (C) Platelets
- (D) RBCs.

Solution: Lymphocytes.

Answer: B.

Tip: Lymphocytes = antibodies.

(2022):

- 9. What regulates haemopoiesis?
 - (A) Cytokines
- (B) Haemoglobin
- (C) Fibrinogen
- (D) Albumin.

Solution: Cytokines.

Answer: A.

Tip: Cytokines = haemopoiesis.

(2022):

- 10. What causes anemia?
 - (A) RBC loss
- (B) WBC excess
- (C) Platelet loss
- (D) All.

Solution: RBC loss.

Answer: A.

Tip: RBC loss = anemia.

(2023):

- 11. What transports CO2 in blood?
 - (A) WBCs
- (B) RBCs
- (C) Platelets
- (D) Plasma.

Solution: RBCs.
Answer: B.

Tip: RBCs = CO2.