Principles of Organisation





tissue



organ





organ system	organism

Cells are the basic building blocks of all living things.

What

are you

testing

for?

sugar

starch

protein

lipid

cell

A group of cells with a similar structure and function is called a tissue.

What does a

look like?

positive result

Once heated, the

solution will change

from blue-green to

Blue-black colour

indicates starch is

The solution will

pink-purple.

bright red.

The lipids will

separate and the

top layer will turn

change from blue to

vellow-red.

present.

An organ is a combination of tissues carrying out a specific function.

Organs work together within an organ system.

Organ systems work together to form whole living organisms.

Food Tests (Required Practical)

Which

indicator

do you

Benedict's

reagent

iodine

biuret

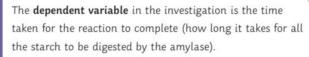
sudan III

use?

Effect of pH on the Rate of Reaction of Amylase (Required Practical)

Iodine is used to test for the presence of **starch**. If starch is present, the colour will change to blue-black.

The **independent variable** in the investigation is the pH of the buffer solution.



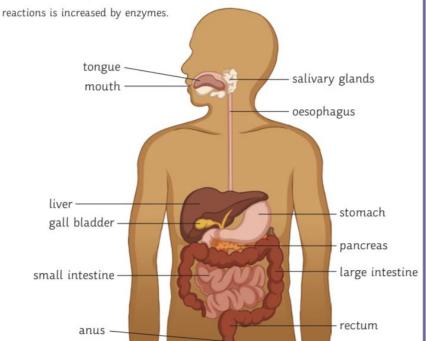


- 1. Use the marker pen to label a test tube with the first value of pH buffer solution (pH 4) and stand it in the test tube rack.
- 2. Into each well of the spotting tiles, place a drop of iodine.
- 3. Using a measuring cylinder, measure 2cm³ of amylase and pour into the test tube.
- Using a syringe, measure 1cm³ of the buffer solution and pour into the test tube.
- Leave this to stand for five minutes and then use the thermometer to measure the temperature. Make a note of the temperature.

- Add 2cm³ of starch solution into the test tube, using a different measuring cylinder to measure, and begin a timer (leave the timer to run continuously).
- After 10 seconds, use a pipette to extract some of the amylase/starch solution, and place one drop into the first well of the spotting tile. Squirt the remaining solution back into the test tube.
- 8. Continue to place one drop into the next well of the spotting tile, every 10 seconds, until the iodine remains orange.
- Record the time taken for the starch to be completely digested by the amylase by counting the wells that were tested positive for starch (indicated by the blue/black colour change of the iodine). Each well represents 10 seconds of time.
- 10. Repeat steps 1 to 8 for pH values 7 and 10.

The Digestive System

The purpose of the digestive system is to break down large molecules into smaller, soluble molecules, which are then absorbed into the bloodstream. The rate of these reactions is increased by enzymes.



Enzymes

An enzyme is a biological catalyst; enzymes speed up chemical reactions without being changed or used up.



This happens because the enzyme lowers the **activation energy** required for the reaction to occur. Enzymes are made up of chains of amino acids folded into a globular shape.

Enzymes have an **active site** which the **substrate** (reactants) fits into. Enzymes are very specific and will only catalyse one specific reaction. If the reactants are not the complimentary shape, the enzyme will not work for that reaction. Enzymes also work optimally at specific conditions of pH and temperature. In extremes of pH or temperature, the enzyme will **denature**. This means that the bonds holding together the 3D shape of the active site will break and the active shape will deform. The substrate will not be able to fit into the active site anymore and the enzyme cannot function.

Enzyme	Reactant	Product
amylase	starch	sugars (glucose)
protease	protein	amino acids
lipase	lipid	glycerol and fatty acids

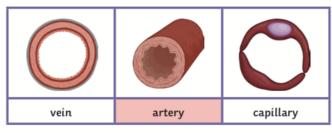
The products of digestion are used to build new carbohydrates and proteins and some of the glucose is used for respiration.

Bile is produced in the liver and stored in the gall bladder. It is an alkaline substance which neutralises the hydrochloric acid in the stomach. It also works to emulsify fats into small droplets. The fat droplets have a higher surface area and so the rate of their digestion by lipase is increased.

The Heart and Blood Vessels

The **heart** is a large muscular organ which **pumps blood** carrying oxygen or waste products around the body. The **lungs** are the site of **gas exchange** where oxygen from the air is exchanged for waste carbon dioxide in the blood. Oxygen is used in the **respiration** reaction to release energy for the cells and carbon dioxide is made as a waste product during the reaction.

glucose + oxygen → carbon dioxide + water + [energy]



The three types of blood vessels, shown above, are each adapted to carry out their specific function.

Capillaries are narrow vessels which form networks to closely supply cells and organs between the veins and arteries. The walls of the capillaries are only one cell thick, which provides a short diffusion pathway to increase the rate at which substances are transferred.

The table below compares the structure and function of arteries and veins:

	Artery	Vein
direction of blood flow	away from the heart	towards the heart
oxygenated or deoxygenated blood?	oxygenated (except the pulmonary artery)	deoxygenated (except the pulmonary vein)
pressure	high	low (negative)
wall structure	thick, elastic, muscular, connective tissue for strength	thin, less muscular, less connective tissue
lumen (channel inside the vessel)	narrow	wide (with valves)

The Heart as a Double Pump

The heart works as a **double pump** for two circulatory systems; the **pulmonary** circulation and the **systemic** circulation.

The pulmonary circulation serves the lungs and bring deoxygenated blood to exchange waste carbon dioxide gas for oxygen at the **alveoli**.

The systemic circulation serves the rest of the body and transports oxygen and nutrients from digestion to the cells of the body, whilst carrying carbon dioxide and other waste away from the cells.

The systemic circulation flows through the whole body. This means the blood is flowing at a much higher pressure than in the pulmonary circuit.

The Heart as Pacemaker

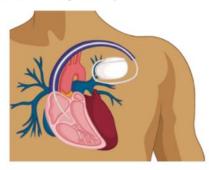
The rate of the heart beating is very carefully, and automatically, controlled within the heart itself.

Located in the muscular walls of the heart are small groups of cells which act as pacemakers. They produce electrical impulses which stimulate the surrounding muscle to contract, squeezing the chambers of the heart and pumping the blood.

The **sino-atrial node (SAN)** is located near the right atrium and it stimulates the atria to contract.

The **atrio-ventricular node (AVN)** is located in between the ventricles and stimulates them to contract.

Artificial pacemakers can be surgically implanted into a person if their heart nodes are not functioning correctly.



Coronary Heart Disease

Coronary heart disease is a condition resulting from blockages in the coronary arteries. These are the main arteries which supply blood to the heart itself and they can become blocked by build-up of fatty deposits.

In the UK and around the world, coronary heart disease is a major cause of many **deaths**.

The main symptoms can include **chest pain**, **heart attack** or **heart failure**. Yet, not all people suffer the same symptoms, if any at all.

Lifestyle factors can increase the risk of a person developing coronary heart disease.

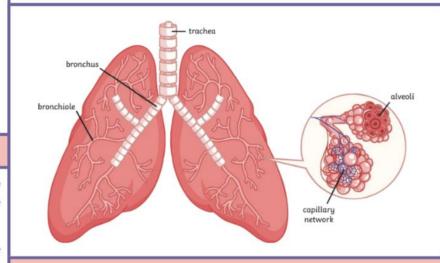
Diet – a high-fat diet (containing lots of saturated fat) can lead to higher cholesterol levels and this cholesterol forms the fatty deposits which damage and block the arteries.

Smoking – chemicals in cigarette smoke, including nicotine and carbon monoxide, increase the risk of heart disease. Carbon monoxide reduces the amount of oxygen which can be transported by the red blood cells and nicotine causes an increased heart rate. The lack of oxygen to the heart and increased pressure can lead to heart attacks.

Stress – prolonged exposure to stress or stressful situations (such as high pressure jobs) can lead to high blood pressure and an increased risk of heart disease.

Drugs - illegal drugs (e.g. ecstasy and cannabis) can lead to increased heart rate and blood pressure, increasing the risk of heart disease.

Alcohol - regularly exceeding unit guidelines for alcohol can lead to increased blood pressure and risk of heart disease.



Blood

Blood is composed of red blood cells (erythrocytes), white blood cells and platelets, all suspended within a plasma (a tissue).

The **plasma** transports the different blood cells around the body as well as carbon dioxide, nutrients, urea and hormones. It also distributes the heat throughout the body.

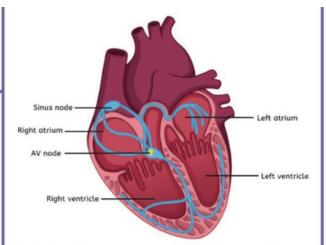


Red blood cells transport oxygen attached to the

haem group in their structure. It has a biconcave shape to increase surface area and does not contain a nucleus so it can bind with more oxygen molecules.

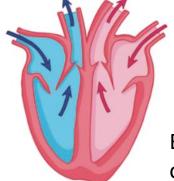
White blood cells form part of the immune system and ingest pathogens and produce antibodies. Platelets are important blood clotting factors.

at the lungs



The right atrium receives deoxygenated blood via the vena cava. It is then pumped down through the valves into the right ventricle. From here, it is forced up through the pulmonary artery towards the lungs where it exchanges carbon dioxide for oxygen. The oxygenated blood then enters the left atrium via the pulmonary vein and down into the left ventricle. The muscular wall of the left ventricle is much thicker so it can pump the blood more forcefully out of the heart and around the entire body, via the aorta.

The blood only flows in **one directio**n. This is because there are **valves** in the heart which close under pressure and prevent the backward flow of blood.



Homeostasis

Homeostasis is the regulation of a constant internal environment. The conditions are maintained to ensure optimum conditions for metabolism and changes in response to both internal and external fluctuations.

In humans, homeostasis regulates the blood glucose (sugar) levels, the body temperature, CO₂ levels and water levels.

The levels are monitored and regulated by automatic control systems which can be either nervous responses (coordinated by the nervous system) or chemical responses (coordinated by the endocrine system). Information about the environment is called a stimulus and is detected by a receptor. The information is processed by a central coordination system and a response is initiated by an effector.

A synapse is the gap where the ends of two neurons meet.



The information needs to be passed from one neuron to the next, but cannot be passed as an electrical impulse over the synapse (gap). Instead, the message is transmitted by chemical neurotransmitters.

When the electrical impulse arrives at the terminal of the first neuron, it causes a release of neurotransmitter chemicals into the synapse. They travel across the gap and bind to receptor sites on the terminal of the next neuron.

The receptor sites are specific for each type of neurotransmitter. A nerve impulse will only be created in the second neuron when a complimentary chemical binds.

The Nervous Pathway

A stimulus is a change in the environment (internally or externally). In a typical response to stimuli, this information is received by the receptor and sent as an electrical impulse along a sensory neuron towards the central nervous system (CNS). The CNS is comprised of the brain and spinal cord. Here, the impulse is passed through relay neurons and a response to the stimulus is coordinated. This could be consciously or subconsciously. The CNS sends information about the response along a motor neuron as an electrical impulse. The effector receives the impulse and carries out the response.

Synapses

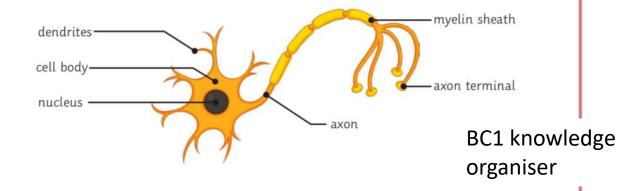
$[stimulus] \rightarrow receptor \rightarrow sensory neuron \rightarrow CNS \rightarrow motor neuron \rightarrow effector \rightarrow [response]$

Examples of receptors include rod and cone cells within the eye which respond to light and allow us to see. Or it could be the cells in the skin which respond to pressure or temperature changes allowing us to feel.

An effector could be a muscle or a gland. In response, a muscle might contract to make a movement or a gland releases a chemical into the body.

The Human Nervous System

The nervous system allows a fast, short-lived response to a stimulus in the surroundings. The information is received by a receptor, passed along the neurons (nerve cells) as an electrical impulse and results in a response. You might have to label the parts of a typical neuron:

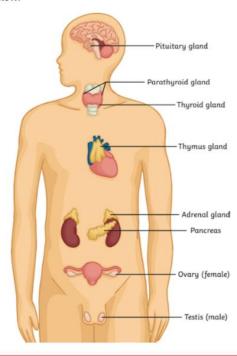


- The axon is the main part of the nerve cell. It is a long, stretched-out fibre of cytoplasm which the electrical
 impulse will travel along.
- Some axons are surrounded in a layer of fatty cells called the myelin sheath and it helps to insulate the
 electrical impulse.
- · The branched endings, dendrites, connect the neurons together to create a network.

sensory neuron	relay neuron	motor neuron
XX	YY	× Ve
	,	
		**
1,5	1/2	1 1

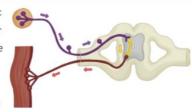
The Endocrine System

You should be able to identify the major glands of the endocrine system, as shown below.



Reflexes

A reflex is a fast and automatic response to a particular stimulus which may be harmful to the organism. They are quick because there is no conscious thought or process to deliver the response (they are



an **involuntary** action). The pathway which carries the information about a reflex action is called a **reflex arc**.

BC1 knowledge organiser

A reflex arc begins with the stimulus e.g. a bee sting or a hot object or the skin. The stimulus is detected by the receptor cells and an electrica impulse is transmitted along the sensory neuron. The impulse is passed through relay neurons in the spinal cord or the unconscious areas of the brain. The response is coordinated automatically and sent along the motor neuron to the effector cells.

Hormones

Hormones are chemical messengers transported in the **bloodstream** to an effector where they can activate a response. They are produced and released from glands around the body which all make up the **endocrine system**. Hormones do a similar job to the neurons of the nervous system but there are some differences.

	neurons	hormones
speed	fast	slow
duration	short	long
target area	specific	general

The hormones released travel in the blood plasma to their **target cells** and affect only those certain cells. Hormones act on organs or cells where constant adjustments are made to maintain a stable state.

Some examples you should know:

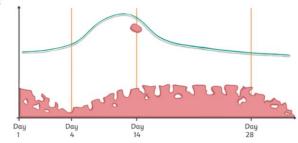
The **pituitary gland** produces a range of hormones including FSH and LH which help to regulate the menstrual cycle. The pituitary gland acts as a **master gland** because many of the hormones it releases control and coordinate the release of other hormones from other glands in the body.

The Menstrual Cycle

The menstrual cycle occurs in females, approximately every 28 days. It is a cyclical process of the building of the lining of the uterus and ovulation. If the egg become fertilised by a sperm, then pregnancy follows. If the egg is not fertilised, then the lining of the uterus is shed away and leaves the body as the menstruation (or period).

The whole cycle is controlled by four main reproductive hormones:

- · follicle stimulating hormone (FSH)
- oestrogen
- luteinising hormone (LH)
- progesterone



Hormone	Where It Is Produced	Response Caused	Interaction with Other Hormones (HT only)
FSH	pituitary gland	An egg to develop in one of the ovaries.	Stimulates the production of oestrogen.
oestrogen	ovaries	The lining of the uterus builds up and thickens.	Stimulates the production of LH. Inhibits the production of FSH.
LH	pituitary gland	Ovulation (at around day 14 of the cycle).	Indirectly stimulates the production of progesterone.
progesterone	ovaries	The uterus lining to maintain.	Inhibits the production of LH.

Respiration

Respiration is the chemical reaction which occurs inside the **mitochondria** of all living cells to release energy for living functions and processes, e.g. movement, warmth and building larger molecules for growth and repair. The reaction is **exothermic**, meaning that energy is released to the surroundings.

Respiration can be either **aerobic** (using oxygen) or **anaerobic** (without using oxygen).

```
glucose oxygen dioxide water energy C6H12O6 + 6O2 ⇒ 6CO2 + 6H2O + ATP
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In anaerobic respiration, the glucose is not completely oxidised. This means that there is less energy released than in aerobic respiration.

glucose lactic acid energy C6H12O6 ⇒ 2C3H6O3 + ATP

In plants and yeast, anaerobic respiration makes some different products. The reaction is also called fermentation and is used in bread-making and beer-brewing.

glucose ethanol carbon dioxide energy C6H12O6 ⇒ C2H5OH + CO2 + ATP

Effect of Exercise

When a person exercises, their body (specifically their **muscles**) need much more energy. To release more energy, the amount of respiration reactions occurring has to increase.

The **heart** pumps faster and the **breathing** rate and breath volume all increase to supply more **oxygen** to the muscles via the bloodstream.

If the muscles are not receiving enough oxygen to keep up the demand needed by the respiration reactions, then **anaerobic** respiration begins to occur. This incomplete oxidation of the glucose produces **lactic acid**, which can build up in the muscles and results in an **oxygen debt**.

After long periods of exercise, the muscles can become fatigued and stop contracting. You might experience a pain commonly called a **stitch**.

Metabolism

Metabolism is the combination of all the reactions in a cell or in the body.

Energy released during respiration is used during metabolic processes to synthesise new molecules:

- Glucose is converted to starch, glycogen and cellulose.
- Glycerol and three fatty acids are joined to form a lipid molecule.
- Glucose and nitrate ions are joined to form amino acids.
- Amino acids are joined to form proteins.
- Excess proteins are broken down and released as urea during excretion.

Respiration itself is also a process which is included in metabolism.

Oxygen Debt (HT only)

During vigorous exercise, the body can begin to carry out anaerobic respiration and produces lactic acid.

Lactic acid is transported via the bloodstream to the liver. The liver converts the lactic acid back into glucose. However, oxygen is needed to carry out this reaction.

The oxygen debt is the amount of the oxygen required by the body to convert the built-up lactic acid back into glucose and remove it from the respiring cells.