

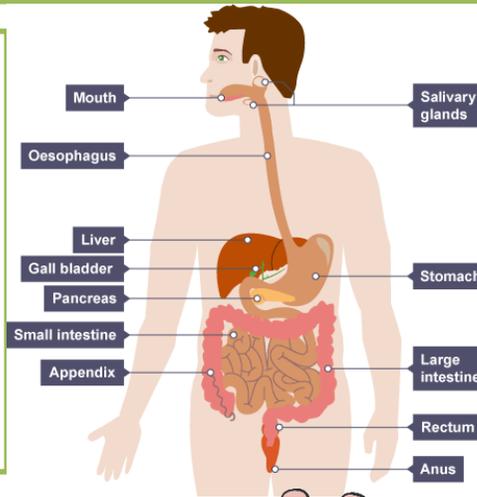
Biology Knowledge Organiser

Organisation

The human digestive system

The digestive system breaks down and absorbs food molecules into molecules our cells can actually use. The products of digestion are used to make new molecules we need, and the glucose is used in respiration. It is an organ system; the organs of the digestive system are shown on the diagram.

Mechanical digestion occurs in the mouth and stomach especially, where food is physically broken up into smaller pieces. This does not, however, break down the large molecules that our food is made from (carbohydrates, lipids and proteins). That is the role of chemical digestion, which is what enzymes do.

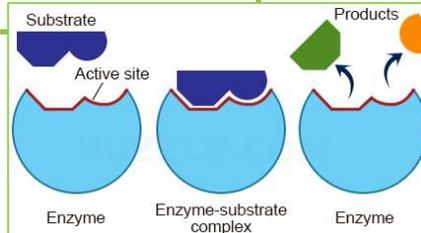
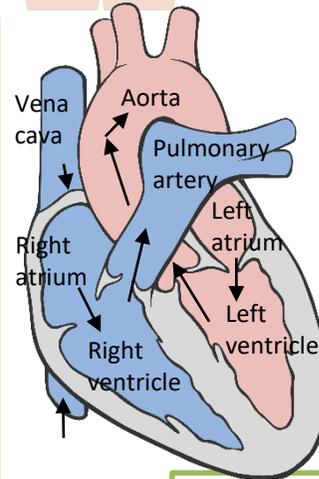


The heart

The heart is an organ whose role is to pump blood around the body. In humans and other mammals, the heart is part of a **double circulatory system**. This means the blood goes through the heart twice on its route around the body. It goes: heart → lungs → heart → body (and back to the heart again).

Learn the labelled parts of the heart. The arrows show the direction of blood flow. The heart walls are made mainly of muscle – when the heart ‘beats’, the muscle contracts to pump the blood.

The natural resting heart rate is controlled by a group of cells in the right atrium that act as a **pacemaker**. These cells set off the impulses that make the heart muscle contract. If there is a fault in the heart and the heart rate is irregular, an **artificial pacemaker** can be fitted to correct these irregularities.



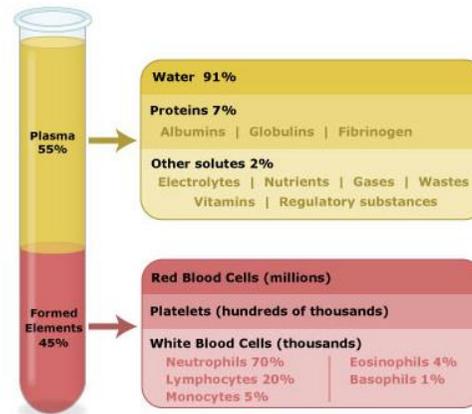
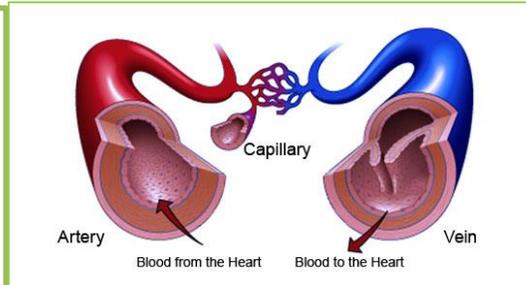
Enzymes and digestion

Enzymes are large proteins; there are many different types. All organisms use enzymes to control chemical reactions (**metabolism**). Enzymes are **catalysts**, so they speed up chemical reactions. They work by having an **active site** with a specific shape. A specific molecule slots into the active site (like a key into a lock) and the reaction takes place. So, the shape of the active site is vitally important, and only one sort of enzyme will work on each substrate. The diagram shows this ‘lock and key’ model of enzyme action.

Key Terms	Definitions
Enzyme	A biological catalyst that speeds up chemical reactions in living organisms. Enzymes are large proteins.
Digestive enzyme	Enzyme that works in the digestive system, breaking down large food molecules into simpler, smaller molecules for absorption into the blood.
Active site	The part of an enzyme where the reaction takes place. They are very specific in shape, so that a specific substrate fits into the active site.
Denature	To disrupt the shape of the active site of an enzyme. Denaturation happens when the enzyme is at too high a temperature or at the wrong pH.
Substrate	The molecule that fits into an enzyme’s active site and reacts to make a product or products.
Carbohydrate	A type of molecule found in all living things. Made of carbon, hydrogen and oxygen. Simple sugars like glucose are carbohydrates, and so are complex sugars like starch – in fact, starch is made of many glucose molecules joined up.
Lipid	Scientific name for fat. Lipids are made up of glycerol and fatty acids . Made mainly of carbon and hydrogen.
Protein	Type of molecule made from amino acids . Proteins in the body can be structural (e.g. muscle is made mainly of proteins) or metabolic (control chemical reactions – e.g. enzymes). Made mainly of carbon, hydrogen, oxygen and nitrogen.
Optimum	The ideal temperature or pH for enzymes to work.

Blood vessels

Blood is restricted to blood vessels in the body (unless you cut yourself!). There are three types: arteries, capillaries and veins. Blood being pumped by the heart always travels in the order arteries → capillaries → veins and veins return the blood to the heart. Arteries carry the blood at high pressure, so they have **thick, elastic** walls. Capillaries are where **exchange** takes place, so their walls are **only one cell thick** (for a *short diffusion pathway*). Veins carry the blood back to the heart at low pressure, so their walls are thinner than arteries (much thicker than capillaries though). However, to prevent blood flowing back the wrong way, veins have **valves** in them.



The blood

Blood is a tissue. When separated into the component parts as the diagram shows, we find that just over half of it is made up of plasma. The cells components (mostly red blood cells) are **suspended** in the plasma – meaning they are normally mixed evenly throughout the plasma. The majority of the cell parts is made up of red blood cells, which transport oxygen. The other components are white blood cells and platelets.

The food tests.

Different foodstuffs contain different parts of a healthy diet. To test foodstuffs for each part of a healthy diet you can apply a different test.

Carbohydrates – Iodine
Fats – Ethanol
Sugars - Benedict's solution
Proteins – Biurets solution

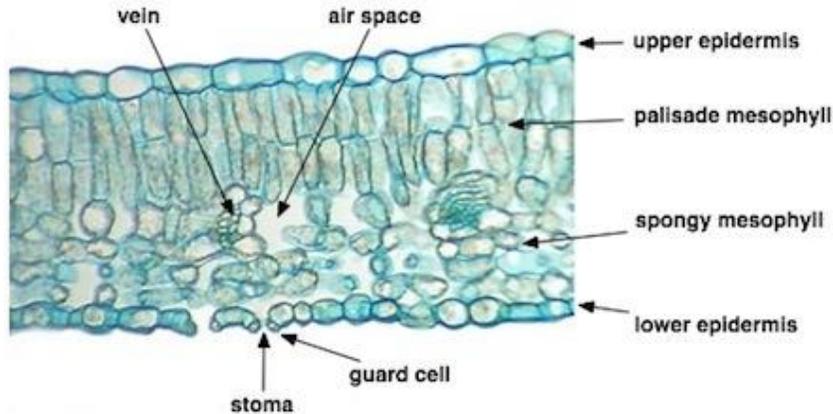
Key Terms	Definitions
Ventricles	The larger chambers in the heart. The right ventricle pumps blood to the lungs; the left ventricle pumps blood around the whole body.
Atria	Smaller chambers of the heart. These fill with blood from the vena cava and pulmonary vein, then pump the blood into the ventricles.
Aorta	The artery leaving the left ventricle. It branches off to supply, in the end, every cell of the body with blood.
Vena cava	The major vein transporting blood from the whole body back to the heart (to the right atrium)
Pulmonary artery	The blood vessel leaving the right ventricle, carrying blood to the lungs.
Pulmonary vein	Vein leading from the lungs back to the heart (to the left atrium).
Artery	Blood vessel that carries blood away from the heart, at relatively high pressure.
Capillary	Very small, thin-walled blood vessel where exchange of substances between the blood and body cells takes place.
Vein	Blood vessels that return blood to the heart at relatively low pressure. Only these vessels have valves in them.
Coronary blood vessel	The heart muscle needs its own blood supply. This comes from branches from the aorta as soon as it leaves the heart called coronary arteries.
Plasma	The liquid part of the blood, mostly made of water, but with substances like glucose, proteins, ions and carbon dioxide dissolved in it.
Red blood cells	Disc-shaped cells that contain haemoglobin , which can bind to oxygen, so it can be transported from the lungs to tissues.
White blood cells	Cells in the blood that fight infection caused by pathogens.
Platelets	Fragments of cells that cause clotting of blood at a wound, to reduce blood loss.
Clot	A solid clump of blood formed when there is an injury.

Plant tissues in the leaf and transpiration

Look at the key terms and definitions for the key types of plant tissue. Leaves are **organs** in plants that contain many of those types of tissue. Together with the stem and roots, they form an **organ system** for transport of substances around the plant. The photograph shows the **transverse section** of a leaf – a thin slice through the leaf, looking edge-on.

The **vein** contains the xylem and phloem vessels. The **stomata** (singular: stoma) are the holes through which gases are exchanged. This includes **water vapour**. Plants absorb all their water in the roots (you've already looked at root hair cells), and keep water moving constantly through by losing water as vapour from the leaves. The constant flow of water up the plant is called the **transpiration stream**. This loss of water vapour from the leaves is called **transpiration**. Transpiration is **sped up** by:

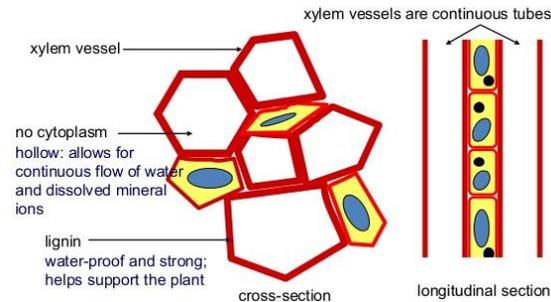
- a *higher temperature*, since water molecules have more kinetic energy so diffusion is faster
- *Lower humidity* (drier air), since there is a steeper concentration gradient if the air outside the plant is relatively drier than the air in the air spaces
- *Higher air flow* (being windier!), since this refreshes the concentration gradient all the time, as water vapour is blown away from the leaves
- *Higher light intensity*: this increases the rate of photosynthesis, which uses water, so water flows more rapidly up through the plant.



Stomata, guard cells and transpiration

Stomata must be open at least some of the time, to allow carbon dioxide to enter the leaf for photosynthesis. However, guard cells can control how many stomata are open, and how wide open they are. This is useful in dry conditions, because the plant can conserve water instead of losing lots of it through transpiration.

Key Terms	Definitions
Epidermal	Type of plant tissue that covers the surface of a plant
Palisade mesophyll	Tissue in the leaf where photosynthesis takes place
Spongy mesophyll	Tissue in the leaf with air spaces between cells – specialised for gas exchange
Xylem	Narrow tubes in the roots, stem and leaves, which transport water and mineral ions
Phloem	Other tubes that run alongside xylem, but transport sugars dissolved in water instead – a process called translocation
Meristem	Type of tissue found at growing tips of roots and shoots, containing stem cells so they can differentiate into different sorts of plant cell
Guard cell	In pairs, guard cells form the stomata on leaves – the holes through which gases are exchanged. They can open and close the stomata as required by the plant.
Transpiration	The process by which plants lose water, as vapour, from their leaves through the stomata.



Xylem and Phloem

Xylem tissue is made of hollow tubes, formed from the cell walls of dead cells, and strengthened by a substance called **lignin**. The diagram shows their adaptations to the function of transporting water and minerals.

Phloem, on the other hand, is a tissue made of living cells. They are **elongated** and stacked to form tubes. Phloem tubes transport food – dissolved sugars – made in the leaves to other parts of the plant, for use in respiration or for storage. The sugary substance they transport is called cell sap, and its transport is called **translocation**. Cell sap flows from one phloem cell to the next through **pores** (holes) in the ends of the cells.

