4.5 Homeostasis and response - knowledge organiser

4.5.1	Homeostasis
4.5.1	
Homeostasis	Maintains optimal (best) conditions for enzyme action. Include control of blood glucose concentration; body temperature; water levels Control systems include cells called receptors, which detect stimuli, coordination centres (brain, spinal cord, pancreas) which process information, effectors, muscles or glands which bring about responses.
4.5.2	Human nervous system
4.5.2.1 Structure and function Description of the control of the	Information from receptors passes along cells (neurones) as electrical impulses to the central nervous system (CNS). The CNS is the brain and spinal cord. The CNS coordinates the response of effectors which may be muscles contracting or glands secreting hormones. Stimulus → receptor→ coordinator → effector → response Synapses join different neurones. Chemicals are released and diffuse across the gap. This slows the impulse down Reflexes are automatic and rapid. They do not involve the conscious part of the brain. Remember the reaction time practical.
4.5.2.2 The brain (biology	The brain controls complex behaviour . It is made of billions of
Only) Hypothalamus Cerebellum	interconnected neurones and has different regions that carry out different functions. The cerebrum which controls memory, personality and conscious thought, the cerebellum which controls balance and coordination of movement, the medulla which controls heart rate and breathing rate, the hypothalamus which is the regulating centre for temperature and water balance Neuroscientists have been able to map the regions of the brain to particular functions by studying patients with brain damage, electrically stimulating different parts of the brain and using MRI scanning techniques. The complexity and delicacy of the brain makes investigating and treating brain disorders very difficult.
4.5.2.3 The Eye (biology	The eye is a sense organ containing receptors sensitive to light intensity
Clary nucle Commanda Commanda Companda Popi Lens Oylic tenne	and colour. Retina – light sensitive lining containing photoreceptor cells optic nerve – bundle of sensory neurones Sclera – the white of the eye, protective Cornea – front part of the eye, tough outer coat Iris – pigmented part of the eye, muscle alter the size of the pupil ciliary muscles – control the thickness of the lens for focussing suspensory ligaments – hold the lens in place Accommodation is the process of changing the shape of the lens to focus on near or distant objects.
Ciliary muscle contracted retina object CILOSE VISION CIliary muscle relaxed retina	To focus on a near object: • the ciliary muscles contract • the suspensory ligaments loosen • the lens is then thicker and refracts light rays strongly. To focus on a distant object: • the ciliary muscles relax • the suspensory ligaments are pulled tight • the lens is then pulled thin and only slightly refracts light rays.

4.5 Homeostasis and response - knowledge organiser

	Two common defects of the eyes are myonia (chart sightedness) and
	Two common defects of the eyes are myopia (short sightedness) and hyperopia (long sightedness) in which rays of light do not focus on the
	retina.
	These defects are treated with spectacle lenses which refract the light
	rays so that they do focus on the retina.
	New technologies now include hard and soft contact lenses, laser
	surgery to change the shape of the cornea and a replacement lens in the
	eye.
4.5.2.4 Control of body	Body temperature is monitored and controlled by the thermoregulatory
temperature (biology only)	centre in the brain. The thermoregulatory centre contains receptors
	sensitive to the temperature of the blood. The skin contains
	temperature receptors and sends nervous impulses to the
	thermoregulatory centre.
	If the body temperature is too high, blood vessels dilate (vasodilation)
	and sweat is produced from the sweat glands. Both these mechanisms
	cause a transfer of energy from the skin to the environment.
	If the body temperature is too low, blood vessels constrict
	(vasoconstriction), sweating stops and skeletal muscles contract (shiver).
4.5.3.1	The endocrine system is composed of glands which secrete chemicals
Human endocrine system	called hormones into the bloodstream. Pituitary gland is the 'master'
_	gland
4.5.3.2	Blood glucose too high , pancreas releases insulin . Glucose is moved into
Control of blood glucose	cells. Liver and muscle cells convert glucose glycogen for storage
concentration	Type 1 diabetes – the pancreas fails to produce enough insulin. Treat
	with insulin injections
	Type 2 diabetes – body cells no longer respond to insulin. Commonly
	treat with a carbohydrate controlled diet and exercise. Obesity is a risk
	factor.
	If blood glucose is too low, the pancreas releases glucagon, which
	converts glycogen into glucose which is released into the blood
4.5.3.3.	Water leaves the body via the lungs during exhalation.
Maintaining water and	Water, ions and urea are lost from the skin in sweat.
nitrogen balance in the	There is no control over water, ion or urea loss by the lungs or skin.
body (biology only)	Excess water, ions and urea are removed via the kidneys in the urine . If
	body cells lose or gain too much water by osmosis they do not function
	efficiently.
	(HT only) The digestion of proteins from the diet results in excess
	amino acids which need to be excreted safely. In the liver these amino
	acids are deaminated to form ammonia . Ammonia is toxic and so it is
	immediately converted to urea for safe excretion .
	The kidneys produce urine by filtration of the blood and selective
	reabsorption of useful substances such as glucose, some ions and
	water.
	(HT only) The water level in the body is controlled by the hormone ADH
	which acts on the kidney tubules. ADH is released by the pituitary
	gland when the blood is too concentrated and it causes more water
	to be reabsorbed back into the blood from the kidney tubules. This is
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	controlled by negative feedback.
	People who suffer from kidney failure may be treated by organ
	transplant or by using kidney dialysis.

4.5 Homeostasis and response - knowledge organiser

4.5.3.4	Oestrogen is the main female reproductive hormone.
Hormones in human	Testosterone is the main male reproductive hormone.
reproduction	Follicle stimulating hormone (FSH) causes maturation of the egg
	Luteinising hormone (LH) stimulates release of the egg.
	Oestrogen and progesterone are involved in maintaining the lining of
	the uterus
4.5.3.5	Oral contraceptives contain hormones to inhibit FSH, so no eggs mature.
contraception	Injection, implant or skin patch of slow release progesterone inhibits
	maturation and release of eggs for months or years. Barrier methods
	e.g. condoms and diaphragms prevent sperm reaching the egg.
	Intrauterine devices (IUD) prevent implantation of the embryo in the
	womb, or release a hormone.
	Spermicides kill sperm
4.5.3.6	FSH and LH are contained in 'fertility' drugs. In vitro fertilisation (IVF)
Using hormones to treat	involves giving a mother FSH and LH to stimulate maturation of several
infertility (HT)	eggs, the eggs are collected and fertilised by sperm in the laboratory.
	The fertilised eggs develop into embryos . These tiny balls of cells are
	inserted into the mother's uterus. IT is emotionally and physically very
	stressful, has a low success rate, can lead to multiple births
4.5.3.6	Adrenaline produced by the adrenal glands in times of fear or stress. It
Negative feedback (HT)	increases heart rate and boosts delivery of oxygen and glucose to the
	brain and muscles, preparing the body for 'fight or flight'.
	Thyroxine from the thyroid gland stimulates the basal metabolic rate,
	playing an important role in growth and development. Thyroxine levels
	are controlled by negative feedback