

Course Companion

for OCR L3 (AAQ) Cambridge Advanced
National: Health and Social Care

Unit F091: Anatomy and Physiology for Health and Social Care

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Teacher's Introduction

This is a Course Companion for **F091: Anatomy and Physiology for Health and Social Care**, part of the OCR Level 3 Alternative Academic Qualification (AAQ): Cambridge Advanced National in Health and Social Care. The aim of this resource is to guide students through the core content of this unit, providing them with in-depth information that covers each of the specification points. This resource aims to provide students with the knowledge and skills that will help them succeed in the assessment for this unit.

Remember!

Always check the exam board website for new information, including changes to the specification and sample assessment material.

For clarity and ease of use, the content of this Course Companion matches the order of the specification points. The content is structured as follows against the unit's content:

Content Area	Content
Topic Area 1: Cardiovascular system	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1.1 Composition and functions of blood 1.2 The heart (<i>structure, blood pressure, electrical activity</i>) 1.3 Blood vessels 1.4 Conditions of the cardiovascular system (<i>angina, DVT</i>)
Topic Area 2: Respiratory system	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 2.1 Structure and function of the respiratory system 2.2 Mechanics of breathing 2.3 Gas exchange 2.4 Cellular respiration 2.5 Conditions of the respiratory system (<i>asthma, bacterial pneumonia</i>)
Topic Area 3: Digestive system	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 3.1 Structure and function of the digestive system 3.2 Mechanical and chemical digestion 3.3 Absorption and assimilation 3.4 Conditions of the digestive system (<i>bowel polyps, gallstones</i>)
Topic Area 4: Musculoskeletal system	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 4.1 Skeletal system (<i>skeletal structure, structure and formation of bone, synovial joints</i>) 4.2 Muscular system 4.3 Conditions of the musculoskeletal system (<i>carpal tunnel syndrome, osteoarthritis</i>)
Topic Area 5: Control and regulatory systems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 5.1 The nervous system (<i>components, the brain, neurons</i>) 5.2 Homeostasis 5.3 Conditions of the control and regulatory systems (<i>ischaemic strokes, type 2 diabetes</i>)
Topic Area 6: Reproductive system	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 6.1 Female and male reproductive systems 6.2 Conditions of the reproductive system (<i>endometriosis, testicular cancer</i>)

Throughout the resource, there are key features to keep an eye out for:

Keywords: used to draw students' attention to various keywords throughout the unit.



Did you know? Provides further information and additional content to inspire and engage students.



Case studies

Help students to apply the issues identified in the resource to real-world scenarios.



Applied activities: encourage application of knowledge to the case studies or to real-world scenarios in the health and social care sector.



Research activities: inspire further research and stretch and challenge higher-ability students.



Some of the activities can be completed using either computers, mobile phones or tablets to aid students' research, and/or can be completed outside the classroom as homework.

There are also two sets of **questions** – *checking your understanding* and *taking it further* – provided at the end of each section (with answers included). These should help students recap their knowledge and then apply their knowledge and understanding, respectively, throughout the Course Companion.

June 2025

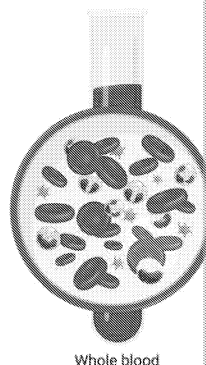
Chapter 1: Cardiovascular System

The cardiovascular system is like the body's delivery network, responsible for transporting nutrients and waste. This system includes the heart, blood and blood vessels. In this chapter, you will learn about the key processes within the cardiovascular system and the conditions that can affect it.

1.1: Composition and functions of blood

Blood flows through the blood vessels carrying oxygen, nutrients and other substances to tissue. It then picks up waste products and takes them away where they can be removed from the body. Blood needs to be able to flow easily but also contain the components to allow it to carry out these functions. It consists of liquid and cells.

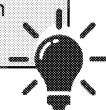
COMPOSITION OF BLOOD



White blood cells

White blood cells make up typically less than 1% of the blood and are responsible for defence against disease and immunity. There are several different types with different roles. Collectively they are known as leucocytes. Some white blood cells can engulf and kill invading microorganisms such as bacteria. This process is known as **phagocytosis**. Others (lymphocytes) can produce **antibodies** to help fight specific diseases. White blood cells can also destroy cancer cells. White blood cells often squeeze through the capillary walls to enter the tissues to fight infections.

Did you know? White blood cells can 'remember' previous infections and quickly fight them off if they show up again. This is why we have vaccines, which help to 'train' the immune system to recognise and respond to infections more quickly.



Example
You can see white blood cells in a blood smear.

Red blood cells

Red blood cells (erythrocytes) carry oxygen to cells and make up around 40–45% of the blood. A protein called **haemoglobin** carries the oxygen in the form of oxyhaemoglobin. The more haemoglobin, the more oxygen can be carried. Red blood cells are adapted by not having the organelles that most cells have, including a nucleus. They are shaped as a **biconcave** disc. This increases surface area to increase the amount of oxygen they can absorb. They have flexible cell membranes allowing them to be squeezed through narrow capillaries.

Haemoglobin – a protein that carries oxygen. It is used to carry oxygen. The reason why it is important to have iron in the diet.

Oxyhaemoglobin – haemoglobin bound with oxygen. It is transported through the blood.

Biconcave – word that describes a shape that has an indentation in the middle.

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Plasma

Plasma is the liquid part of the blood, making up around 55% of its total volume. It consists mainly of water and contains dissolved substances such as salt, glucose and amino acids from digested food. It also contains special plasma proteins such as **blood clotting factors** and hormones. Elevations in plasma proteins can increase **blood viscosity**, impairing blood flow. It carries the blood cells through the circulatory system.

Blood clotting factors – these travel in the blood and they help to form blood clots.

Blood viscosity – the higher the viscosity, the harder it is for the blood to flow around the body.

Platelets

Platelets are responsible for blood clotting and make up less than 1% of the blood. They are usually carried around the blood in an inactive, disc-shaped form, allowing them to flow easily through the blood. However, when activated from damage to blood vessel walls, they become spikey. This shape makes them stick to the site of damage, preventing blood loss through the tear in the blood vessel. They also contain tangles of fibrin protein strands, which are formed from blood clotting factors, playing a key role in the clotting process.

Applied activity: Make a model of the blood to fill a beaker or jar. You can choose your own components but below are some suggestions:

- Plasma – water with yellow food colouring in, diluted syrup
- Red blood cells – pomegranate seeds for red blood cells
- White blood cells – mini marshmallows
- Platelets – small white beads

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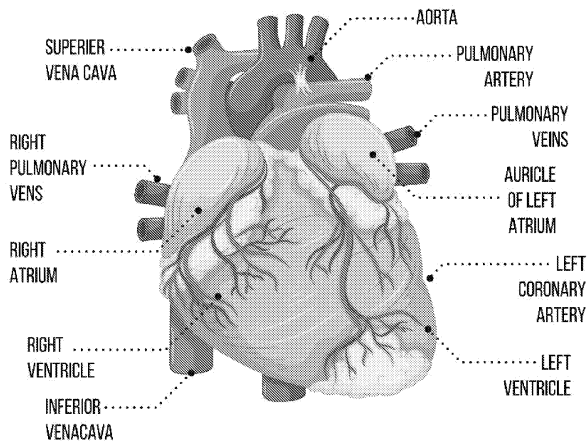


1.2: The heart

The heart is the pump of the cardiovascular system. It is composed mostly of cardiac muscle which keeps contracting and relaxing throughout life to keep the heart beating. The heart pumps blood through the blood vessels of the circulatory system so that it can carry substances from one part of the body to another. At the end of this section you should understand how the heart is structured, what blood it carries, and the electrical activity that regulates the heart's function.

Structure of the heart

For each circulation of the body, it passes through the heart twice. The first time blood is pushed from the right-hand side of the heart to the lungs where carbon dioxide diffuses out of the blood and oxygen diffuses in. The now **oxygenated** blood returns to the left-hand side of the heart which is then given another boost so that it has enough pressure to move around the rest of the body. This **double circulatory system** is necessary because the blood loses pressure when it goes to the lungs, and it would not be able to get around the rest of the body.



Oxygenated
when oxygen is added to red blood cells by haemoglobin.

Deoxygenated
when much of the oxygen in the blood has been used for respiration.

Double circulatory system
the blood passes through the lungs and the body twice for each complete circuit.

Diagram of the heart showing the four chambers and major blood vessels.

Chambers of the heart

The heart is made up of four chambers which can be seen labelled on the diagram. The top two chambers are known as atria. They receive blood at low pressure from veins. The lower two chambers are known as ventricles. They have much thicker muscular walls because they pump blood further – out of the heart.

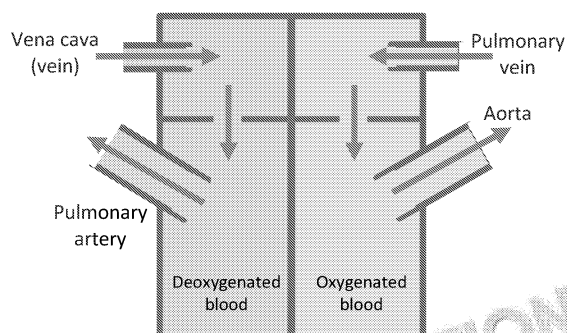
Chamber	Function
Right atrium	Receives blood from the superior and inferior vena cava which bring deoxygenated blood from the body. Blood passes from here into the right ventricle below.
Left atrium	Receives blood from the pulmonary veins which bring oxygenated blood from the lungs. Blood passes from here into the left ventricle below.
Right ventricle	Receives blood from the right atrium. It contracts to pump deoxygenated blood out of the heart, through the pulmonary artery, to the lungs.
Left ventricle	Receives blood from the left atrium. It contracts to pump oxygenated blood out of the heart, through the aorta (largest artery in the body) to the rest of the body.

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Blood vessels of the heart

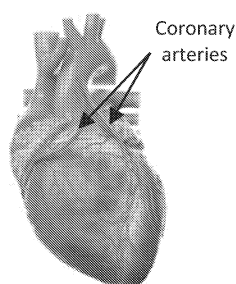
The blood vessels are explained in more detail later in this chapter. In general terms, arteries bring blood away from the heart and veins bring blood towards the heart. It is important to know the names of the blood vessels related to the structure of the heart.



Blood vessel	Oxygenated or deoxygenated
Superior vena cava (vein)	Deoxygenated
Inferior vena cava (vein)	Deoxygenated
Pulmonary vein	Oxygenated
Pulmonary artery	Deoxygenated
Aorta (artery)	Oxygenated

The coronary artery and veins

The heart itself is a muscle and needs its own blood supply to carry oxygen and nutrients so that it has the energy to keep pumping. The heart muscle is supplied with blood through the coronary artery which runs from the base of the aorta around the outside of the heart, branching into smaller arteries as it goes. Blood is returned to the heart through the coronary veins which return the blood to the right atrium. If the coronary artery becomes blocked, parts of the heart do not receive a blood supply, and the result is a heart attack (cardiac arrest). The severity will depend on which part of the artery is blocked.



Exam tip

Arteries do not carry deoxygenated blood, and veins do not carry oxygenated blood. The exception is between the two ventricles where blood to the heart (arteries) is deoxygenated.

Applied activity: Put the labels in the correct order to show the path of blood through the heart chambers in the correct order. Start at the Vena cava vein; aorta; lung vein; right ventricle.

Applied activity: Simulate the flow of blood through the coronary arteries.

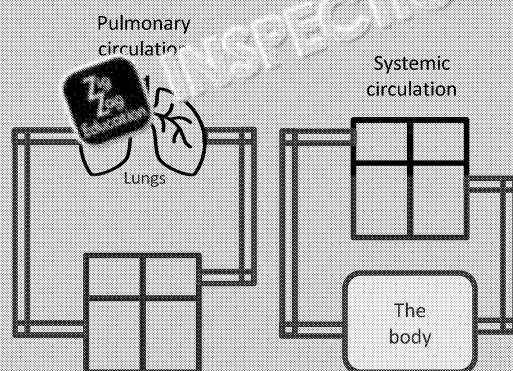
- Two paper cups represent blood vessels. The coronary artery is represented by a straw. The coronary vein is represented by a straw. Prevent a mess by using a container to catch the water.

Instructions:

1. Make a hole in the side of each cup big enough to fit the straw to the bottom.
2. Cut the straws in half and insert them in each hole so that they are flush with the outside of the cups.
3. Seal the holes around the straws with modelling clay.
4. Partially block the straw that represents a blocked coronary artery.
5. Pour water into the cup that represents the left atrium of 'blood' through the straw that represents the coronary artery.
6. If the partially blocked coronary artery is not sealed, water will leak out. This will be the consequence of a heart attack.

Applied activity: Draw a similar diagram to the one below showing the main chambers and blood vessels. Label the chambers and blood vessels and colour them as follows:

Red – oxygenated blood
Blue – deoxygenated blood



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Valves

It is important that blood does not flow the wrong way through the heart otherwise deoxygenated blood making the heart less efficient. Different valves within the heart

Valve	Type of valve	Location	
Tricuspid valve	Atrioventricular valve	Between the right atrium and right ventricle	Prevents backflow from the ventricle to the atrium through the pulmonary artery
Bicuspid valve (or mitral valve)	Atrioventricular valve	Between the left atrium and left ventricle	Prevents backflow from the ventricle to the atrium through the aorta
Aortic valve	Semilunar valve	At the base of the aorta	Prevents backflow from the aorta to the left ventricle.
Pulmonary valve	Semilunar valve	At the base of the pulmonary artery	Prevents backflow from the pulmonary artery back into the right ventricle.

Atrioventricular valve – heart valve between an atrium and the ventricle below it. There are two of these valves: the tricuspid valve on the right and the bicuspid (mitral valve) on the left.

Semilunar valve – type of valve found in blood vessels. They consist of three pockets of tissue that prevent blood from flowing the wrong way. This closes the blood vessel and prevents backflow of blood. There are two of these valves: the aortic valve at the base of the aorta and the pulmonary valve at the base of the pulmonary artery.

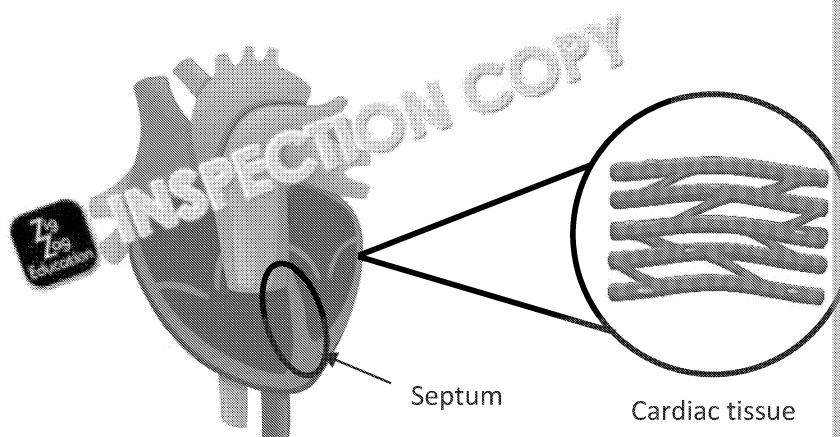
Did you know? The lub-dub sound of the heart is caused by the heart valves opening and closing.



Other structures

In addition, the heart has other crucial structures that you should be aware of:

- **Septum** – thick wall of tissue that divides the heart into the left and right sides to prevent oxygenated blood from the left side from mixing with deoxygenated blood from the right side.
- **Cardiac tissue** – involuntary (automatic) muscle throughout the walls of the heart that gives it the ability to contract rhythmically and pump blood throughout the body.

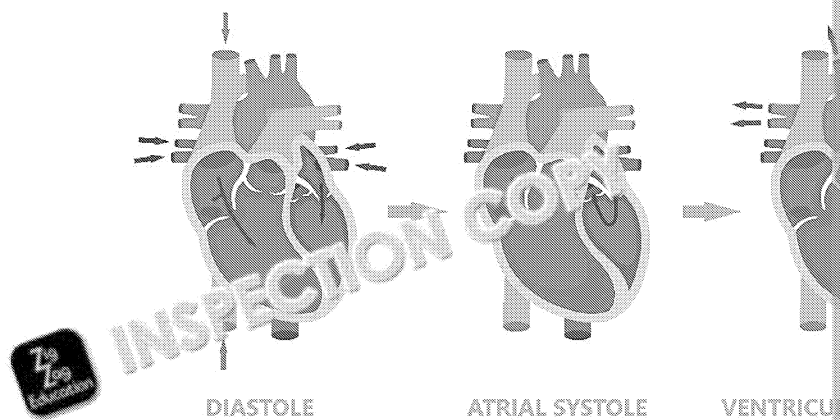


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Cardiac cycle and blood pressure

The cardiac cycle is the name given to the processes which occur during one beat. parts of the heart are contracting or relaxing, which direction the blood is flowing, open or closed at each stage. When the heart is relaxed it is known as diastole and as systole. However, the atria and ventricles mostly relax and contract at different



1. **Diastole:** Both atria and ventricles relax. Blood floods into both atria from the veins. Some blood flows from the atria to the ventricles. The atrioventricular valves are open, allowing blood to flow from atria to ventricles.
2. **Atrial systole:** Atria contract forcing more blood into the ventricles, which are relaxed. The atrioventricular valves at the base of the two arteries are closed.
3. **Ventricular systole:** Now that the ventricles are full, the ventricles contract. The atrioventricular valves are closed, preventing backflow of blood into the atria. Blood is pushed out through the semilunar valves and into the aorta and pulmonary arteries.

Applied activity: Use a blood pressure monitor to measure your blood pressure. Note the values – systole (when the heart is contracting) and diastole (when the heart is relaxed). How do stress or doing exercise affect your blood pressure?

Applied activity: Draw a table like the one below. Try to fill it out without looking at the notes and then check your notes.

Stage of cycle	Which parts of the heart, if any, are contracting?	Which valves are open?	Which valves are closed?	Where is blood flowing from and to?
Diastole				
Atrial systole				
Ventricular systole				

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Exam tip

Remember the difference between the terms systole and diastole with the following phrase:
Systole – **S**trong contraction
Diastole – **D**eep relaxation



What is blood pressure?

Blood pressure is related to the volume of blood in the cardiovascular system and width of blood vessels. More fluid in the blood will lead to higher blood pressure. It is important to have a reasonably high blood pressure, particularly in the arteries, otherwise blood would not get to cells and tissues fast enough to provide them with the essential substances such as nutrients and oxygen.

Systolic and diastolic pressure

As mentioned, when the heart beats, it goes through two main phases:

- **Systolic phase:** the heart contracting and pushing blood into arteries. This causes the systolic pressure.
- **Diastolic phase:** the heart relaxing and filling with blood. This causes the diastolic pressure.

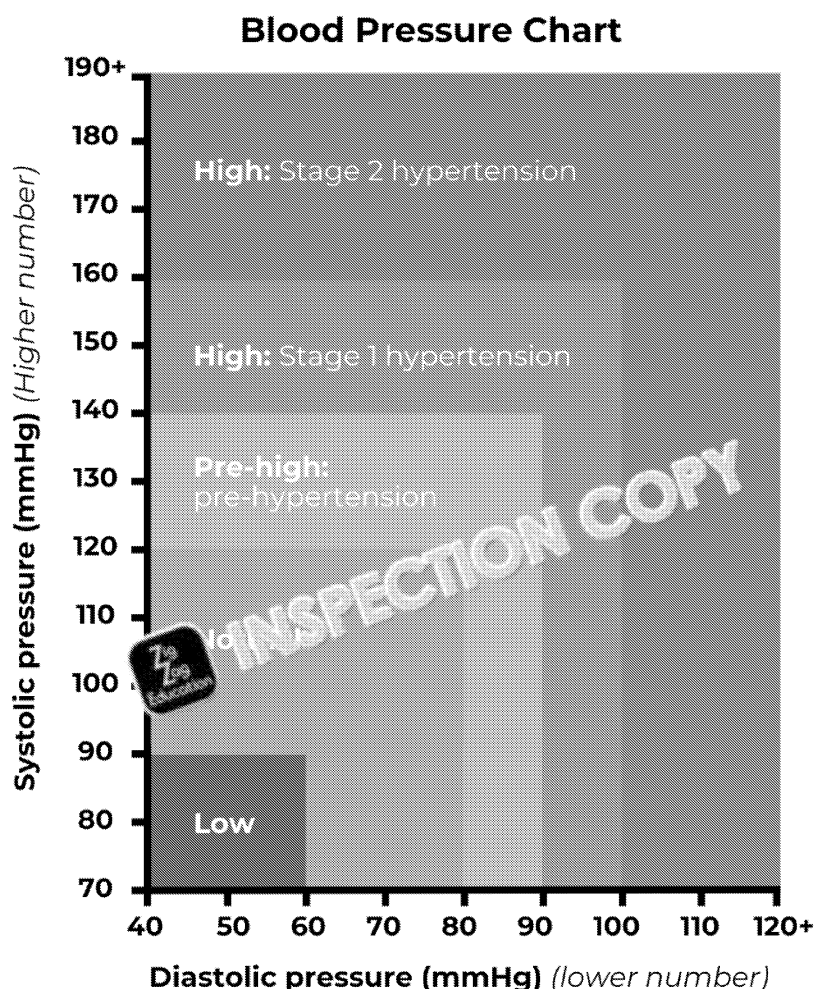
Blood pressure values

Blood pressure is measured by recording two types of pressure:

- **Systolic pressure** – this is the higher number and measures the pressure in the arteries when the heart contracts and pumps blood out.
- **Diastolic pressure** – this is the lower number and measures the pressure in the arteries when the heart relaxes between heart beats.



These values show how healthy someone's blood pressure is and can be measured on a chart:



Applied pressure

Compare pressure category or high).

Readings:
1) 124/70
2) 138/80
3) 155/90

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Electrical activity of the heart

Electrical activity is another crucial part of the cardiovascular system, controlling the flow of blood. This system is also known as the conduction system and is made up of many specialised cells that control how the heart beats at the right time; whether we're awake or asleep, it's beating 24/7.

Location and function of the key components

The cardiac muscle of the heart is described as myogenic (or intrinsic), meaning it generates its own electrical stimulus. The electrical stimulus in the cardiac cycle takes the following path:

1. Sino-atrial (SA) node:

Often referred to as the pacemaker of the heart, it regulates the heart rate by sending out an electrical stimulus which travels across the muscle cells in the atria, causing them to contract (atrial depolarisation).

2. Atrioventricular (AV) node:

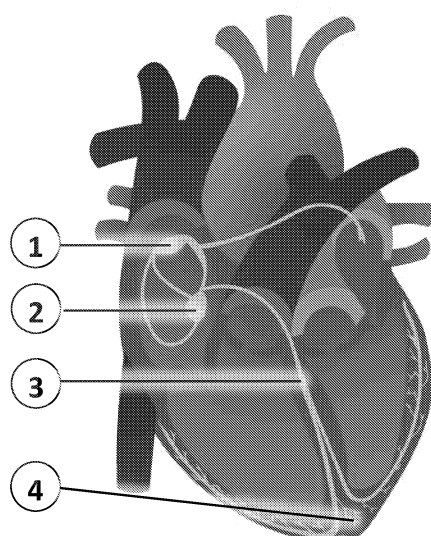
The impulse travels to the AV node, where it delays the next contraction to allow the atria to fill with blood. Once the AV valves have closed, the stimulus travels to the bundle of His.

3. The bundle of His:

The stimulus travels down the bundle of His, which is a group of conduction fibres that branch into right and left branches which consist of the Purkinje fibres.

4. Purkinje fibres:

These are found in the ventricular walls and cause ventricular contraction as they spread the electrical impulse in the ventricles (ventricular depolarisation).



Atrial depolarisation – the effect that the SA node has on the atria, causing them to contract by spreading the electrical stimulus across them.

Ventricular depolarisation – the effect that the AV node has on the ventricles, causing them to contract by spreading the electrical stimulus.

Atrial and ventricular repolarisation – occurs during a brief time period following the contraction, where the electrical impulse returns to a baseline value.

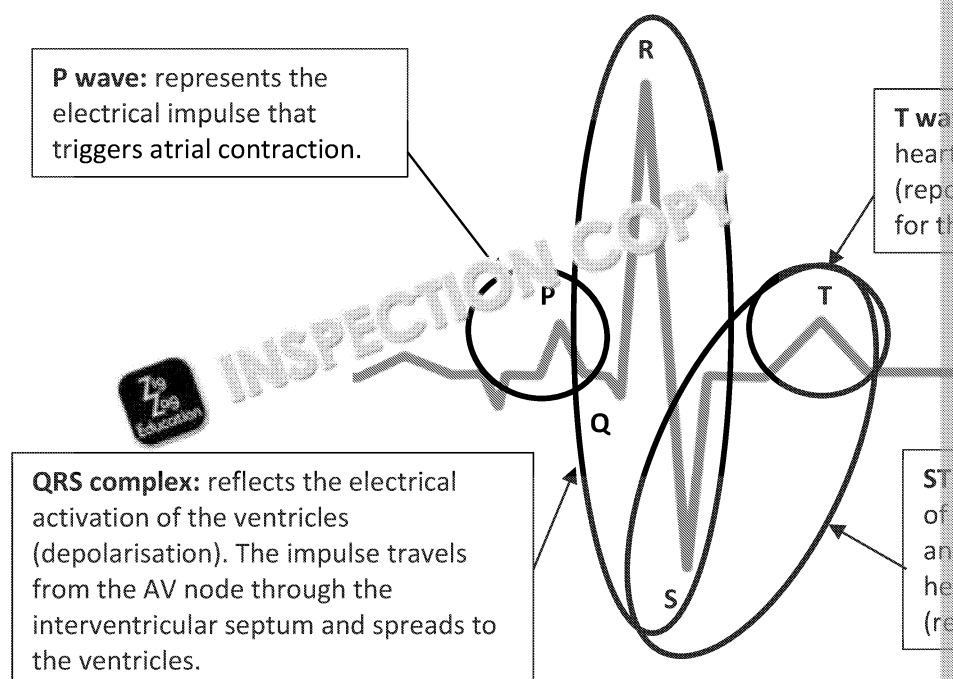
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Research activity: Watch this useful YouTube video which explains the key components of the electrical activity system in more detail: [zzed.uk/12929-Cardiac](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zzed.uk/12929-Cardiac)
Make some notes to aid your understanding!

Electrocardiogram (ECG) trace

An electrocardiogram (ECG) is a test that records the electrical activity of the heart onto specific parts of the body (chest, arms and legs). It measures heart rate, rhythm and electrical impulses, producing ECG traces – graphical representations of electrical activity. The trace consists of waves, including P, Q, R, S and T waves.



These ECG traces help healthcare professionals to identify any potential problems. Abnormal ECG traces may indicate arrhythmias (irregular heartbeats), heart attacks or electrolyte imbalances.

- **P wave abnormalities:** if this is irregular, absent or an abnormal shape it may suggest issues with the atrial contraction.
- **QRS complex abnormalities:** long or distorted QRS waves can suggest issues with ventricular conduction or a blockage within the bundle of His.
- **ST segment abnormalities:** raised or reduced ST segment can indicate **ischemia** or **heart attack**.
- **T wave abnormalities:** inverted or unusually tall T waves can signal electrolyte imbalances.

Heart attack – if the coronary artery is blocked, it can cause a heart attack.

Ischemia – a lack of oxygen reaching the heart muscle can cause chest pain.

Exam tip

You may be asked to label the diagram in the exam, remember the letters are in alphabetical order.

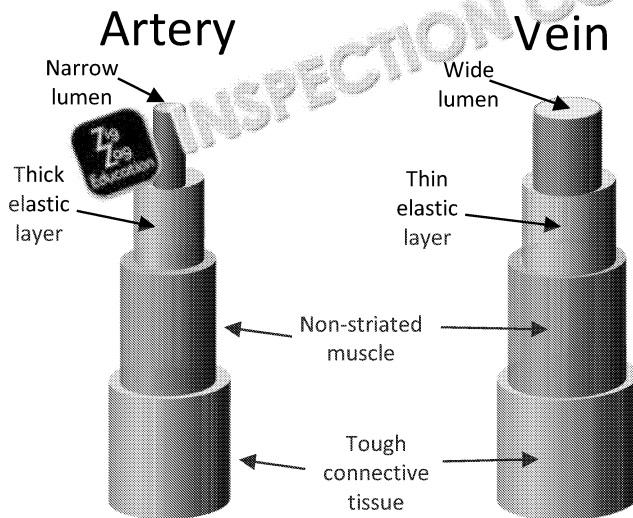
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1.3: Blood vessels

Blood vessels are an important part of the cardiovascular system as this is how blood travels around the body. There are three main types of blood vessel, each with different structures due to their different functions:

1. **Arteries** carry blood away from the heart
2. **Veins** carry blood towards the heart
3. **Capillaries** carry blood through the tissues where exchange of substances takes place



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Arteries

The main function of arteries is to take blood away from the heart. In arteries the blood is at very high pressure, so the walls of the arteries need to be very strong. Structural adaptations such as thick muscular walls, elastic walls and a narrow **lumen** help aid this function. The thick muscular walls allow the arteries to control blood flow by tightening or relaxing. The elastic walls help the arteries stretch and the narrow lumen helps maintain the high pressure needed to move blood effectively.

Capillaries

The function of capillaries is to exchange substances to the cells which surround the tissues. To allow this, the walls are very thin (one cell thick) so that substances can pass easily. Capillaries also have porous walls (small holes in walls) that aid substance exchange. They have a very narrow lumen and slow blood flow.

Veins

From the capillaries, blood enters small veins to return to the heart. Blood pressure is low as it goes through the capillaries. The low blood pressure makes it difficult for the blood to flow back to the heart. To help with this, veins have a wide lumen which allows the blood to flow easily at low pressure. Additionally, to prevent backflow there are semilunar valves at regular intervals.

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Summary

Below is a table comparing the structure and function of the three main types of blood vessel.

	Arteries	Veins	
Function	Carry blood away from the heart	Carry blood towards the heart	Connect arteries and veins Carry blood to and from exchange surfaces bringing nutrients and oxygen to cells and away waste products
Wall thickness	Thick, muscular	Fairly thin	One cell thick
Elasticity	Very elastic	A little elastic	Not elastic
Lumen size	Narrow	Wide	Very narrow through in capillaries
Valves	No valves except pulmonary artery (which have one each)	Semilunar valves at regular intervals along the vein	No valves
Blood pressure	High or very high	Low	Low

Applied activity: Use different colours of modelling clay to make models of each of the three types of blood vessel.

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1.4: Conditions of the cardiovascular

Cardiovascular conditions affect the heart and blood vessels, leading to problems with blood delivery. Common symptoms include pain, swelling and breathlessness. People can develop these conditions due to poor lifestyle choices, such as smoking and poor diet, and family history.

Angina

Overview and causes

Angina is caused by reduced blood flow to the heart muscle, causing chest pain or discomfort, often described as pressure, tightness or squeezing. It is often triggered by activity such as walking or climbing stairs. It typically lasts a few minutes and tends to get better at rest. Angina is commonly caused by **atheroma** – fatty deposits that build up in the walls of the coronary arteries. This is part of **atherosclerosis**, which narrows the coronary arteries and reduces oxygen delivery to the heart. Structural changes in the cardiovascular system directly affect the function of the heart, especially during increased demand (e.g. exercise).

Main signs and symptoms

- Chest pain that may radiate to the arms, neck and jaw
- Tight chest
- Dizziness
- Breathlessness
- Nausea

Diagnosis and monitoring

Multiple methods are available to diagnose and monitor angina, including:

Method	How it's used	
Electrocardiogram (ECG)	Records the electrical activity of the heart to detect abnormalities such as whether the heart is beating too fast or too slow. It can reveal signs of ischemia, often identified by a depression of the ST segment.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• When someone has angina• To diagnose• If a heart attack• To guide treatment
Angiogram	An X-ray which uses a special dye to show blood through the coronary arteries, veins or the heart. It identifies blockages, aneurysms or signs of narrowing.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• After an angiogram• When symptoms are severe• Before coronary artery surgery or bypass
Blood test	Measures cholesterol levels and other biomarkers like troponin , which helps detect blockages or heart muscle damage.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• To assess risk• If a heart attack• To evaluate treatment

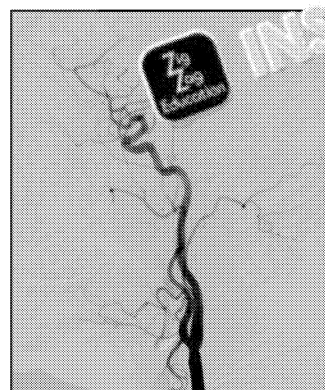


Image showing an angiogram

Aneurysm – swollen area in a blood vessel where the wall is weak. If it bursts, it can cause serious bleeding.

Troponin – protein in heart muscle that leaks into the blood when there is damage.

Exam tip



You may be asked to interpret angiograms of this condition in your exam.

Research activity:

Visit the website which shows what heart disease is.

[zzed.uk/12929-7](https://www.zzed.uk/12929-7)

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Treatment

Treatments for angina can help prevent angina attacks, reduce symptoms and lower the risk of complications such as heart attacks. There are a few options, some of which require surgery.

		How it works	Benefits
Surgical treatments	Angioplasty	A small balloon is inserted into a blocked artery to allow for a stent to be placed. This holds the blood vessel open to increase blood flow.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Less invasive (still requires a catheter) ✓ Shorter recovery times ✓ Relatively quick procedure ✓ No general anaesthetic required
	Coronary bypass	A healthy blood vessel is taken from another part of the body and connected above and below a blocked blood vessel. This allows for an alternative route for blood flow.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ More effective long term ✓ Treats severe blockages <div> Did you know? During coronary bypass surgery, the heart is sometimes temporarily stopped! This is to allow the surgeon to be more precise. </div>

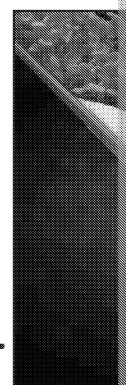
		How it works	Benefits	
Non-surgical treatments	Nitrolingual pump (angina pump)	This is a spray that works by relaxing and widening blood vessels (known as vasodilation). This allows for improved blood flow.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Fast-acting ✓ Convenient and portable ✓ Non-invasive 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> X Short-acting X May interact with other drugs (e.g. iron supplements) X Unpleasant taste
	Anticoagulants	Medication that prevents the formation of and breaks down blood clots.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Fast-acting ✓ Non-invasive ✓ Helps prevent clot-related complications 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> X Increased risk of bleeding X Unpleasant taste X Vomiting X Bruising

Factors increasing likelihood of condition

There are many factors which can increase the risk of angina, all of which are linked to lifestyle. Examples include:

- ➔ **Obesity** – not only does being obese place extra demand on the heart to supply blood to the extra tissue, but it is also a contributing factor to atherosclerosis, which can result in angina.
- ➔ **Diet high in fat and salt** – a diet rich in fats that contain a 'bad' type of cholesterol known as low-density lipoprotein (LDL) can result in clogged arteries, increasing the risk of angina and potentially heart attacks. A diet high in salt is also a risk factor for angina, increasing the likelihood of atherosclerosis (fatty plaque that builds up in the arteries), which reduces blood flow.

Did you know? This image demonstrates atherosclerosis, with the yellow showing where plaque has accumulated in the artery.



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- ➡ **Smoking** – smoking damages the walls of the arteries, which can lead to cholesterol build-up. This can lead to blockages in blood flow.
- ➡ **Diabetes** – this can cause damage to blood vessels due to high blood sugar levels. If blood sugar stays high for a long time, it can result in inflammation and build-up of fat in the arteries.
- ➡ **Stress** – high levels of stress can increase blood pressure and release hormones that narrow arteries, making angina more severe.

Control and prevention

Making different lifestyle choices is key to managing and preventing angina, all of which help to improve blood flow. Examples include:

- ✓ **Reducing fat and salt in diet** – making healthy eating choices which are low in bad fats and salt helps to reduce the build-up of LDL cholesterol and atherosclerosis. As a result, this helps to promote increased blood flow.
- ✓ **Stopping smoking** – though smoking can cause long-term, damaging consequences to the cardiovascular system, stopping can be the first step to reversing the damage. After just one month of not smoking, the damage to arteries begins to reverse.
- ✓ **Reducing stress** – prioritising lower stress levels can help reduce high blood pressure. This may help relax the arteries and reduce angina symptoms.
- ✓ **Exercising regularly** – physical activity not only keeps the cardiovascular system healthy, it also helps to reduce the risk of obesity, improve cholesterol levels and promote emotional well-being. These factors work together to address many of the risk factors for angina, helping to manage the condition.
- ✓ **Losing weight** – this helps to reduce the risk factors associated with obesity, such as high blood pressure and high cholesterol. Prioritising a healthy weight this helps to improve heart function and reduce the risk of angina.

Applied activity: Imagine you are a healthcare professional explaining to a person the changes they should implement. Design a leaflet outlining these changes and explain why they are important in controlling and preventing their angina!



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Impact on the individual

Angina can significantly impact an individual's life – from uncomfortable physical symptoms to the emotional challenges of experiencing this condition, it affects all aspects of a person's life. In your exam, remember these impacts as PIES.

Physical	The physical symptoms associated with angina, including chest pain, nausea and fatigue, may cause significant physical discomfort and prevent an individual from engaging in daily activities such as exercise and physical tasks.
Intellectual	Experiencing angina symptoms may make it difficult to concentrate. This could create challenges in education, work or family life.
Emotional	Living with angina can cause emotional distress due to worries about physical, intellectual and social challenges. The unpredictability of symptoms also increase fear, frustration, and the risk of developing anxiety and depression.
Social	The symptoms experienced with angina may cause an individual to prevent or avoid engaging in social events that involve physical activity, leading to isolation and reduced participation in social life. The emotional changes may also lead to emotional stress or cognitive difficulties.

Case study

John has angina and has begun experiencing more severe symptoms. As a result, he's unable to visit his grandson at weekends, as he fears an angina attack might occur if he engages in physically demanding activities with him. John has also experienced difficulties concentrating at work, resulting in warnings from his boss due to concerns about his performance.



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Deep vein thrombosis (DVT)

Overview and causes

DVT is a blood clot that forms in a deep vein, typically in the leg or pelvis, which causes restricted blood flow. It can be very serious if this blood clot breaks loose and travels to the lungs – causing something known as a pulmonary embolism. A pulmonary embolism occurs when a blood clot breaks free and travels to the lungs, causing a blockage that restricts blood flow.

Main signs and symptoms

These signs and symptoms **all** occur at the site of the DVT, including:

- pain and tenderness
- swelling
- redness

Diagnosis and monitoring

Detecting and monitoring DVT can be done through the following:

Method	How it's used
Ultrasound	Uses high-frequency sound waves to produce images of blood vessels to identify if and where there are any blood clots.
Venography	Uses an X-ray to examine the blood flow in the blood vessels by injecting a dye (typically iodine-based) into the veins. This helps detect blood clots or other issues.

Treatments

There are a few treatment options for DVT, all of which help to prevent a blood clot from getting worse and reduce the risk of pulmonary embolism.

Did you know? Anticoagulants are known as 'blood thinners' – they don't thin the blood! This is how they work.

	How it works	Benefits	
Anticoagulant medicine	Medication that prevents the formation of and breaks down blood clots.	✓ Fast-acting	X
		✓ Non-invasive	X
		✓ Easy to administer (available to take in oral and injectable forms)	X
Thrombolytic therapy	Thrombolytics ('clot-busting' drugs) work by dissolving the blood clot, which helps to restore normal blood flow.	✓ Long-term treatment, helping to prevent future clots	X
		✓ Breaks down blood clots	X
		✓ More effective than anticoagulants at completely breaking down blood clots	X
Thrombectomy	Surgical procedure which removes a blood clot from a blood vessel.	✓ Helps prevent long-term complications such as post-thrombotic syndrome (PTS)	X
		✓ Removes large blood clots	X
		✓ Immediate results	X
		✓ Minimally invasive	X

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	How it works	Benefits	
Filter	A small metal device is placed in the inferior vena cava to catch blood clots before they reach the lungs.	✓ Prevents clots from travelling to other parts of the body	X
		✓ Can be used as a treatment option for individuals who can't take anticoagulants or thrombolytics	X
		✓ Long-term solution – can be kept in the body for a long time	X
			X

Factors increasing likelihood of condition

Several factors can increase the risk of DVT, all of which are linked to the cardiovascular system. These include:

- ➡ **Age** – an individual can have DVT at any age, but being over the age of 60 increases the risk. Age also slows down blood flow, increasing the likelihood of blood clotting.
- ➡ **Being overweight** – this puts extra pressure on the veins, especially in the pelvis, increasing the risk of blood clots.
- ➡ **Smoking** – smoking influences how blood flows by damaging the walls of the arteries, resulting in an increased risk of blood clots.
- ➡ **Contraceptive medication** – certain birth control pills, especially those containing oestrogen, can cause high levels of clotting factors in the blood, making it easier for blood clots to form.
- ➡ **Hormone replacement therapy (HRT)** – similar to contraception, HRT can increase clotting risk due to oestrogen.
- ➡ **Previous DVT** – having a blood clot in the past increases the chances of developing another DVT. This is a result of weakened and damaged veins which may make it easier for new clots to form.
- ➡ **Flying / restricted movement** – sitting for long periods, e.g. during a flight, can cause blood to pool in the legs and damage the veins behind the knees. High altitudes can also affect blood circulation, all of which increase the risk of blood clots.

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Control and prevention

There are many methods which can help manage and prevent DVT, all of which help to reduce blood clots.

- ✓ **Compression stockings** – tight-fitting socks which help to improve blood flow and reduce pain and swelling. They can be used to help alleviate symptoms associated with DVT and help prevent blood clots.
- ✓ **Regular movement** – moving the body, especially after long periods of sitting, can help to improve blood flow and reduce the risk of clots.
- ✓ **Hydration** – keeping hydrated can help maintain the proper viscosity of the blood, making it less likely to clot. This is especially important during periods of illness as dehydration can cause slow blood flow and increased risk of clots.
- ✓ **Lifestyle changes:**
 - **Stopping smoking** – quitting smoking not only improves blood flow and prevents blood clot formation, it also helps other treatments (such as those mentioned above) to be more effective.
 - **Exercising regularly** – by strengthening muscles in the legs, exercise can help the heart, preventing blood from pooling in the legs where clots may form. This is especially important after a pulmonary embolism.
 - **Living at a healthy weight** – being a healthy weight can help to improve blood flow and prevent clots. Being overweight can place extra pressure on the veins, increasing the risk of clots.

Applied activity: Discuss with your partner how the methods listed link to the card knowledge from this chapter to guide your discussion.

Impact on the individual

Living with DVT can impact many aspects of life – from uncomfortable physical symptoms like swelling to the intellectual challenges of dealing with this condition, it affects many areas of an individual's life.

Physical	The symptoms associated with DVT, such as pain, swelling and redness, may cause mobility difficulties and restrict an individual's ability to engage in everyday activities or exercise.
Intellectual	The physical discomfort caused by DVT may impair concentration, planning and decision-making, which can affect work, education and daily responsibilities.
Emotional	DVT can be significantly distressing, including the physical discomfort and the intellectual and social changes that may come with it. Fears of pulmonary embolism, recurring blood clots and the long-term nature of this condition may increase the risk of depression, anxiety and other mental health challenges.
Social	Living with DVT may lead to social isolation due to mobility restrictions or uncomfortable physical symptoms, preventing an individual from engaging in social activities. This could lead to relationship strain and loneliness.

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Chapter 1: Questions (1.1–1.4)

Checking my understanding:

1. State **one** function for each composition of blood.
 - i) White blood cells
 - ii) Red blood cells
 - iii) Plasma
 - iv) Platelets
2. Which of the following heart chambers receives blood from the left atrium?
 - a) Right atrium
 - b) Left atrium
 - c) Left ventricle
 - d) Right ventricle
3. Complete the sentence below to describe the function of the conduction system.
The conduction system controls **A)** _____ the heart beats and pumps blood.
B) _____ components, including the SA node, **C)** _____, bundle of His and AV node.
4. Explain how **one** structural adaptation of capillaries aids their function.
5.
 - a) How is angina caused?
 - b) State **two** ways angina can be treated.
6. Which of the following is **not** a risk factor of DVT?
 - a) Contraceptive medication
 - b) Flying
 - c) Smoking
 - d) Low blood pressure

Developing my understanding/skills:

7. Jenny, 50, has recently been diagnosed with angina. Her doctor has told her to reduce her fat and salt intake, stop smoking and reduce her stress levels.
 - a) State **one** symptom of angina.
 - b) Explain why the **three** factors the doctor has identified may be contributing to Jenny's angina.
8. Patrick, 67, has deep vein thrombosis (DVT). He has started to experience the symptoms, such as swelling and redness on his leg. He decides to ask his doctor what treatment options are available to him, and he has been offered the following:
 - Thrombolytics
 - Thrombectomy
 - a) Give an overview of what DVT is.
 - b) Explain how these treatments work.
 - c) Evaluate the effectiveness of these two treatments.

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Chapter 2: Respiratory System

The body needs energy to be able to function. Most of this energy comes from aerobic respiration which takes place in the cells of the body and requires oxygen. For this to happen, oxygen needs to be able to get around us into each cell in the body. The oxygen is carried to the cells by the cardiovascular system. The blood needs to be able to get into the blood easily. The role of the respiratory system is to get the oxygen into the blood and remove carbon dioxide from the blood. Too much carbon dioxide makes the blood acidic. If the respiratory system does not function properly then the body will not have enough energy. Disorders which affect the respiratory system include asthma and bacterial pneumonia. Understanding the structure and function of the respiratory system helps with the prevention, diagnosis and treatment of these disorders.

Example
Removes
energy
oxygen

2.1: Structure and function of the respiratory system

To get enough oxygen into the blood there needs to be a gas exchange surface which is provided by the alveoli in the lungs. Airways such as the trachea, bronchi and bronchioles lead from the alveoli. Air passes through the nose and mouth before it enters the trachea. The structure and function of these are described in more detail below.

Epiglottis and larynx

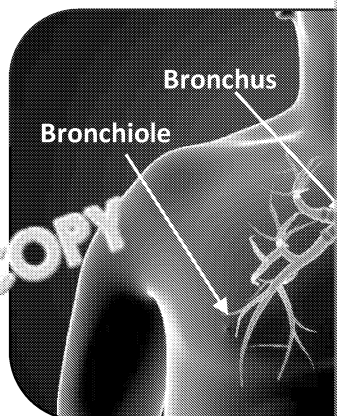
After the nose or mouth, the epiglottis and larynx are where the respiratory system begins.

Structure	Location	Function
Epiglottis	A flap of tissue located below the tongue towards the back of the throat.	Acts as a 'flap' to prevent food entering the trachea.
Larynx	A tubular structure in the middle of the neck, sitting at the top of the trachea and oesophagus.	Passes air from the trachea to the lungs. The structure is also responsible for producing sounds, which is why we can hear our own voice.

Trachea

The trachea carries air from the nose and mouth to the lungs. It extends from the throat down the neck and into the chest where it divides into two bronchi just above the heart. It has C-shaped rings of cartilage embedded within the walls to keep the tube open so air can flow easily. These rings keep the trachea open so the air can flow easily.

It helps to warm and moisten the air before it reaches the delicate lungs. It also filters out dust, pollen, pollutants and infectious microorganisms such as bacteria and viruses. To do this, the inner lining of the trachea is made of specialised epithelium tissue. This tissue produces mucus to trap the particles. The cilia have cilia to move the mucus to the throat to be swallowed. Most infectious microorganisms are killed by the strong stomach acid.



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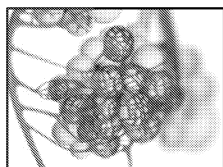


Did you know? The rings of cartilage in the trachea are C-shaped with the open part facing the back of the trachea. The oesophagus (food pipe) runs down behind the trachea and can expand to pass food through it. If the cartilage rings were whole, the oesophagus would not be able to pass food through the trachea and the food would be more likely to get stuck.

Lungs – bronchi, bronchioles and alveoli

There are two lungs located in the thorax – one on each side of the heart. Each **bronchus** carries air from the trachea into one of the lungs. The bronchi branch into smaller and smaller tubes until they reach the alveoli, where gas exchange takes place. The bronchi, like the trachea, have cartilage rings and specialised epithelial tissue to trap unwanted particles and warm and moisten the incoming air.

As the bronchi get narrower, they eventually become too narrow for the rings of cartilage and transition into **bronchioles**. Bronchioles have muscular walls so that the amount of air entering the alveoli can be controlled. The function of the bronchioles is to carry the air to the alveoli. Bronchioles are also lined with ciliated epithelial tissue, which traps particles and moves them out of the lungs.



Alveoli are the site of gas exchange in the lungs. They have very thin walls. The cells are simple cuboidal epithelial cells which are flattened to allow carbon dioxide and oxygen to pass through them easily. The alveoli are surrounded by a network of capillaries so that oxygen can enter the blood and carbon dioxide can leave.

Did you know? Alveoli are only between 100 µm and 300 µm in diameter and there are about 300 million per lung. This large number ensures a very large surface area of about half a tennis court.

Key structures involved in mechanics of breathing

As air moves through the respiratory system, several key structures work together to facilitate the process of breathing, ensuring the efficient movement of air into and out of the lungs.

Structure	Location	Function
Diaphragm	A sheet of muscle at the base of the thorax (chest cavity).	Controls breathing. When it contracts and lowers, allowing the lungs to expand (inhalation). When it relaxes and rises, forcing air out of the lungs (exhalation).
Did you know? You don't just use your diaphragm for breathing. You also use it for coughing, sneezing and singing.		
Ribcage	In the chest, attached to the spine and curving around to the sternum.	Protects vital organs such as the heart and lungs as well as aiding breathing by moving the chest cavity. It does this by contracting and relaxing the muscles between the ribs, known as intercostal muscles.
Internal intercostal muscles	Between the ribs, beneath the external intercostal muscles.	Push air out of the lungs by contracting and pulling down the ribcage. This increases the volume of the chest cavity and forces air out.
External intercostal muscles	The outer layer between the ribs. They run from the back (vertebral column) to the front (sternum).	Allow the lungs to fill with air by contracting and pulling up the ribcage. This increases the volume of the chest cavity, allowing air to flow in.

More on this is covered in Section 2.2.

Protective structures of the lungs

The pleural membranes and pleural fluid play crucial roles in protecting and facilitating the movement of the lungs. The pleural membranes reduce friction and allow the lungs to move efficiently within the chest cavity.

Structure	Location	Function
Pleural membrane	Lines the chest wall, wrapping around the heart to form the sides of the middle part of the chest and covers the lungs.	Provides cushioning and prevents the lungs from rubbing against the chest wall.
Pleural fluid	A lubricating fluid inside the pleural cavity (the space between two layers of the pleural membrane).	Lubricates the pleural membranes to prevent friction and helps make breathing easier.

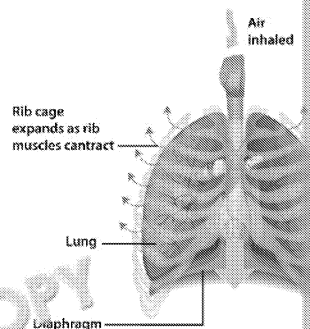
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2.2: Mechanics of breathing

The air in the lungs needs to be constantly replaced as the oxygen gets absorbed into the blood and carbon dioxide enters from the blood. Breathing out (expiration or exhalation) gets rid of the used air, and breathing in (inspiration or inhalation) replaces it with fresh air.

To breathe in, air in the lungs needs to be at lower pressure than air outside the body. To breathe out, air in the lungs must be at a higher pressure than outside the body. The respiratory system is designed to ensure that these different pressures can be achieved by changing the volume of the lungs. If you have the same number of air molecules in two different-sized containers, the air pressure in the smaller container would be at higher pressure than the air in the larger container.



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To breathe in you need to decrease the pressure in the lungs, which means you need to increase their volume. To breathe out it is the opposite – you need to increase the pressure in the lungs by decreasing the volume. The lungs are not able to change their own volume. The outside of the lungs is effectively stuck to the inside of the chest cavity by the **pleural membranes**. So, when the chest cavity expands, the lungs expand. When the chest cavity gets smaller, the lungs are squeezed into a smaller volume. The two structures which can cause the change in chest cavity, and therefore lung volume, are the diaphragm and the ribcage.

The role of the diaphragm and the internal and external intercostal muscles

The diaphragm is a sheet of muscle at the base of the thorax (chest cavity). When it contracts it becomes dome-shaped, giving the lungs less room. When it relaxes it pulls down and flattens, increasing the chest cavity and the lungs.

The ribcage is flexible because the ends of the ribs near the sternum are made of cartilage. When the ribcage expands, the volume of the chest cavity and the lungs increases. The ribs are moved by the intercostal muscles, known as intercostal muscles. There are two types of intercostal muscles – internal intercostal muscles and external intercostal muscles. It is the external intercostal muscles that are involved in normal breathing. When the external intercostal muscles contract, the ribcage is pulled up and out. This expands the chest cavity, giving the lungs more volume. When they relax, the ribcage springs back into its natural position and air is forced out of the lungs.

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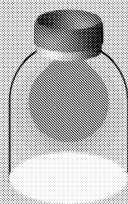
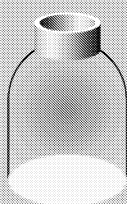
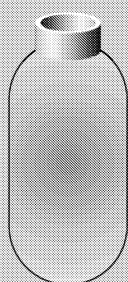


Summary of the mechanics of breathing:

	Inspiration / inhalation / breathing in	Expiration
External intercostal muscles	Contract	Relax
Internal intercostal muscles	Relax	Contract
Ribcage	Moves up and out	Spring back
Diaphragm	Contracts and moves down and flat	Relaxes and moves up
Lung volume	Increases	Decreases
Lung pressure	Decreases	Increases
Result	Air rushes in from outside the body through the nose or mouth due to higher pressure outside the body than inside the lungs	The higher pressure inside the lungs forces air out through the nose or mouth

Applied activity:

1. Cut the top of a plastic bottle all the way around at about 10 cm from the top. You are left with a bottle with a short neck.
2. Place one balloon in the bottle with the end of the balloon over the open bottom of the bottle.
3. Tie a knot in the end of the other balloon and cut off the round tip.
4. Place the second balloon around the cut end of the bottle. Air should now not be able to get in or out as there is a balloon at either end.
5. Pull down the second balloon, making sure that you don't pull it off the bottle.
6. Watch the first balloon inflate like the lungs inflate due to pressure changes.
7. Which respiratory system structure does the second balloon represent?
8. How does the movement of the second balloon cause pressure changes inside the bottle?
9. Why do these pressure changes cause the first balloon to inflate?



Case study

Asa is in the third trimester of her pregnancy. She often feels breathless even when she is resting. As the foetus grows it pushes upwards on the lungs which can no longer expand as much due to the pressure of the foetus. The lungs cannot increase their volume enough so less air can get into the lungs and she has to breathe more often. This gives the sensation of breathlessness.

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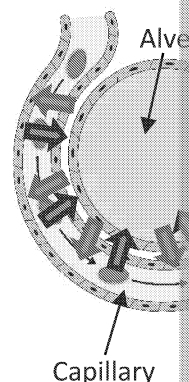
2.3: Gas exchange

Gas exchange is the process by which oxygen from the lungs passes into the blood from the blood into the lungs. This occurs in the alveoli. Each **alveolus** is surrounded by capillaries and carbon dioxide moves from one place to the other by **diffusion**.

Alveolus – the singular of alveoli. The alveoli are the structures within the lungs where oxygen gets absorbed into the blood and carbon dioxide is removed from the blood – gas exchange.

Diffusion – the process whereby molecules move from an area of high concentration to an area of low concentration. It is a passive process which does not require the body to use energy.

Diffusion gradient – the difference in concentration between two areas. The greater the difference, the steeper the gradient. The stronger the diffusion gradient, the faster molecules move from an area of higher concentration to an area of lower concentration.



The air in the alveoli has a relatively high concentration of oxygen compared to the blood in the capillaries which surround the alveoli. This is because the oxygen concentration in the alveoli is the same as the oxygen concentration of the air we breathe in. The blood in the capillaries that surround the alveoli is deoxygenated as it has already been round the body. Oxygen diffuses from a high concentration of oxygen in the alveoli to a low concentration in the surrounding blood. To get into the blood, oxygen has to pass through the alveoli and capillary walls as well as the red blood cell membranes.

Exam tip

Remember diffusion goes from high to low concentration. The steeper the slope, the faster the molecules will move from high to low concentration (top of the slope to the bottom).

Once in the bloodstream, oxygen binds to haemoglobin molecules in red blood cells. This binding is crucial for transporting oxygen efficiently throughout the body. At the same time, carbon dioxide diffuses into the alveoli from the capillaries. This occurs because the concentration of carbon dioxide in the alveoli is lower than in the blood, creating a **diffusion gradient**. This means that carbon dioxide moves from an area of high concentration (alveoli) into an area of low concentration (blood). Carbon dioxide moves from an area of high concentration (in the capillaries) into an area of low concentration (alveoli).

Did you know? Normal body temperature is used in gas exchange calculations. This is known as an approximation and is approximately 15°C.

The structural adaptations of the alveoli play an important role in facilitating this process:

- **Thin walls** – the walls of the alveoli are one cell thick, allowing for gases to diffuse a shorter distance to the blood.
- **Large surface area** – the alveoli cover a large surface area in the lungs, increasing the area for gas exchange to take place.
- **Fluid-lined** – the alveoli are lined with a thin layer of fluid that keeps the walls moist, allowing gases to diffuse more easily across.

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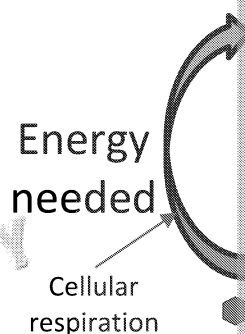


2.4: Cellular respiration

Your body requires a lot of energy to stay alive and even more to carry out activities. This energy comes from the food we eat. Even when it has been digested, our food is not in a form that cells can use for energy. This is where cellular respiration comes in, as it converts the nutrients from food into usable energy for our cells.

Cells store energy in a molecule known as adenosine triphosphate (**ATP**). ATP can release energy quickly when it is broken down into adenosine diphosphate (**ADP**). It does this by breaking a bond between the middle part of the molecule and a **phosphate group**. Chemical reactions which take place in cells to generate ATP molecules are known as cellular respiration. Cellular respiration breaks down nutrients such as glucose into smaller molecules. This is an example of catabolism, which releases energy. The energy released from the catabolic reactions of cellular respiration is used to make ATP from ADP.

Cellular respiration can occur without oxygen and is known as anaerobic respiration. Cellular respiration which uses oxygen is known as aerobic respiration and is much more efficient than anaerobic respiration as it produces significantly more ATP molecules. Anaerobic respiration does take place in your body, usually during strenuous activity when oxygen begins to run out. However, anaerobic respiration cannot make enough by itself to keep you alive. Oxygen is needed.

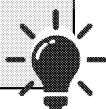


ATP – chemical called adenosine triphosphate which acts as a store of energy.

ADP – chemical called adenosine diphosphate. It is formed when ATP has been used and can be easily converted back to ATP by cellular respiration.

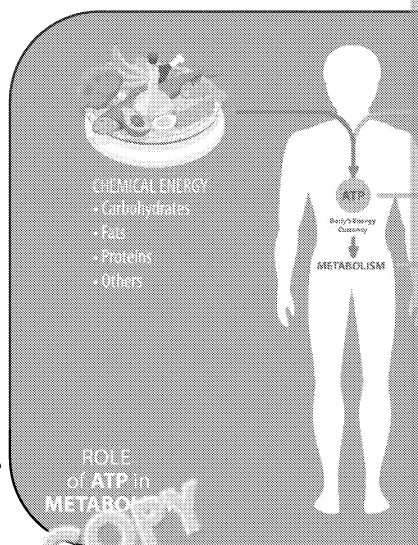
Phosphate group – part of a molecule containing a phosphate atom.

Did you know? An average cell in your body can use around 10 million molecules of ATP per second. Very active cells, such as muscle and liver cells, use a lot more.



Exam tip

Think of ATP and ADP as different states of a rechargeable battery. When the battery is charged, it is like ATP. When the battery is used, it is like ADP. It needs to be recharged.



Applied activity: Research the kilocalorie needs of your favourite foods. Compare the kilocalorie needs of males and females as follows:

Males: 2,500 kcal
Females: 2,000 kcal

Research activity: Find out the chemical equations for both aerobic and anaerobic respiration (in humans) and write down the word formulae.

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Aerobic respiration	Anaerobic respiration
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Requires oxygen and glucose. Involves a complex series of reactions which mostly take place within the mitochondria of cells. Produces carbon dioxide and water as by-products. Produces up to 38 molecules of ATP for each glucose molecule used. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Breaks down glucose without the need for oxygen. Involves reactions that take place in the cytoplasm of the cell. Produces lactic acid in animals and alcohol (ethanol) and carbon dioxide as products in plants. Produces only two molecules of ATP for each glucose molecule used.

Applied activity: Discuss with your partner the similarities and differences between aerobic and anaerobic respiration.

Lactic acid is an acid formed by cells during anaerobic respiration. It is not responsible for muscle soreness after exercise as many think.



Exam tip

You do not need to know the glycolysis chain of microorganisms.



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2.5: Conditions of the respiratory system

Respiratory conditions, such as asthma and bacterial pneumonia, affect the airways. Symptoms include shortness of breath, wheezing and coughing. People can be at risk of these conditions due to factors such as environmental triggers (e.g. pollution), family history and lifestyle.

Asthma

Overview and causes

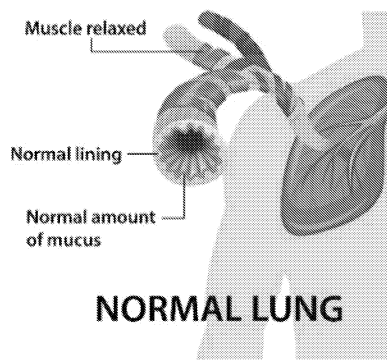
Asthma is a narrowing of the airways (bronchi, bronchioles) due to inflammation of the airway walls and bronchoconstriction (tightening of the muscles surrounding the airways). The airways are sensitive to certain triggers (e.g. pollen and dust), which causes the smooth muscle of the airways to constrict. This is due to an overactive immune response. The overreaction of the immune system causes overproduction of mucus, inflammation of the airway walls and for the muscles surrounding the bronchi and bronchioles to contract, narrowing the airways. The narrowed airways make it harder to get air into and out of the lungs, reducing gas exchange. This means that less oxygen can enter the bloodstream.

It is a **chronic** condition which has no cure but can be managed. Some children may find their asthma disappears, often in their teens, but it may return later in life. Some people do not develop asthma until they are adults. It is a common condition which can have a big impact on quality of life. People with asthma can suffer periods when their symptoms are worse – these are known as asthma attacks. It is important to treat asthma attacks immediately as they can cause death.

Did you know?
Lung UK, in 2017, reported that 1.2 million people in the UK have asthma. On average, asthma costs the UK economy £1.3 billion a year.

Main signs and symptoms

- Wheezing
- Tight chest
- Coughing
- Breathlessness



Diagnosis and monitoring

A couple of methods are available to diagnose and monitor asthma, both of which assess lung function.

Method	How it's used	
Peak flow meter	A small, portable device used to measure how quickly someone can exhale air from their lungs. It helps determine how well air is moving out of the lungs.	• • •
Spirometer	A device that assesses lung function in more detail, measuring volume and how quickly someone can breathe in and out, as well as how quickly they can do it. It helps detect any problems with breathing, like obstructive or restrictive issues. It also helps identify if any other respiratory conditions are present, like bronchitis or emphysema .	• • • •

Obstructive – relating to blockages in airflow.

Restrictive – where the ability of the lungs to expand is restricted.

Bronchitis – inflammation in the bronchial tubes, causing difficulties breathing, coughing and phlegm.

Emphysema – a lung disease where alveoli become damaged, causing difficulty breathing.

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Treatments

Since asthma is a chronic condition with no cure, treatment aims to control symptoms over time.

	How it works	Benefits
Reliever inhaler	A medicine which helps to quickly open up the airways by relaxing the lung muscles. This provides relief during an asthma attack or when symptoms such as wheezing and breathlessness occur.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Portable ✓ Fast-acting, providing immediate relief ✓ Easy to use
Preventer inhaler	A medicine which contains steroids which help reduce inflammation in the airways over time and prevent asthma symptoms from occurring.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Portable ✓ Easy to use ✓ Helps manage long-term asthma symptoms ✓ Reduces frequency and severity of symptoms/attacks
Steroid tablets	Medication used for more severe asthma, used to help reduce inflammation and control symptoms or when inhalers do not provide sufficient relief	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Easy to use ✓ Alternative treatment when inhalers don't work ✓ Effective for managing more severe asthma
Nebuliser	Changes liquid asthma medication into a fine mist to allow for easy inhalation. It can deliver a high amount of medicine directly to the respiratory system to reduce inflammation and alleviate symptoms.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Delivers medication more effectively, especially during a severe asthma attack ✓ Suitable for individuals who struggle using inhalers, such as children

Did you know? Steroid tablets can be used for many health conditions, from asthma to inflammatory bowel disease.



Case study

Yusuf is 10 years old and is a keen footballer at school. He has asthma but has forgotten to take his preventer inhaler. It is spring and a lot of flowers are flowering. The pollen count is high. Yusuf starts to feel short of breath. His teacher can hear that he is wheezing. Yusuf complains of a tightness in his chest and his breath back. He asks him to take slow deep breaths, but his symptoms worsen. He calls for an ambulance. Because Yusuf has breathing difficulties, he is treated as a priority. The paramedics arrive quickly. The paramedics treat him with a nebuliser which is a machine that turns liquid medicine into a fine mist which Yusuf breathes in through a mouthpiece. His parents arrive soon after.

Adrenal suppression – linked to prolonged use of oral steroids, can affect the body's ability to produce natural cortisol. This can cause weakness and low blood pressure.

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Factors increasing likelihood of condition

The causes of asthma are what lead a person to suffer from the condition in the first place.

- ➡ **Family history** – people with a close family member who suffers from asthma have a higher chance of developing the condition – this is a genetic cause.
- ➡ **Triggers** – often the genetic cause combines with other factors, such as:
 - **Chest infections** – having a chest infection can trigger asthma by making the airways more inflamed and sensitive. Other respiratory illnesses, including cold and flu, can also trigger asthma, causing inflammation and mucous which can worsen symptoms such as breathlessness, coughing and wheezing.
 - **Allergies** – allergies to substances such as animal dander, dust, feathers, dust and pollen can trigger asthma symptoms because they cause the immune system to overreact. This reaction releases chemicals that make the airways swell and tighten, leading to breathlessness and wheezing.
 - **Medicines** – certain medicines, such as non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), e.g. aspirin and ibuprofen, can exacerbate asthma symptoms in sensitive individuals. This is because these medicines can cause the body to produce substances known as leukotrienes (which are present during an asthma attack), which can trigger symptoms like wheezing and difficulty breathing.
 - **Mould or damp** – living in mouldy or damp conditions can trigger asthma by releasing tiny spores (reproductive cells produced by mould) into the air. When these spores are inhaled, they can irritate the airways and trigger asthma symptoms. Additionally, damp environments can increase the growth of dust mites and harmful bacteria, which can irritate the immune system and make asthma symptoms worse.
 - **Environmental factors** – the environment we are exposed to, such as pollution, can also trigger asthma. Pollution can irritate and inflame the airways, causing symptoms like coughing and wheezing. Asthma can also be triggered by temperature changes. Hot humid weather can irritate the airways, making it harder to breathe. Cold weather can irritate the airways, dry them out and trigger symptoms. Hot humid climates can promote the growth of mould and bacteria, which can irritate the immune system and trigger an immune system reaction.
 - **Exercise-induced** – for some individuals, their asthma can be triggered by physical activity. Physical activity increases breathing rate, causing airways to narrow due to constriction. This can lead to a loss of heat and moisture in the airways, which can trigger symptoms.

Applied activity: Discuss with your partner how these factors which increase the risk of asthma link to the respiratory system.

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Control and prevention

Methods to control and prevent asthma are all aimed at helping individuals to live with the condition. This involves implementing treatments and lifestyle changes which can help people to manage their asthma by reducing the frequency and severity of symptoms as well as preventing serious asthma attacks from happening.

Examples include:

- **Preventer inhaler** – using this treatment can help to reduce the frequency and severity of symptoms by reducing the inflammation in the airways. However, for this treatment to be effective, it must be used consistently over a long period of time.
- **Steroid tablets** – individuals may be prescribed this medication to help control symptoms they have experienced an asthma attack. Steroid tablets do this by helping to reduce inflammation in the lungs, preventing it from getting worse. This medication is usually used for a short period of time to help individuals recover, control and reduce their symptoms and prevent an asthma attack. In some cases, they can be used over a long period.
- **Avoiding triggers** – certain triggers can bring on or worsen asthma symptoms. For some people, avoiding these triggers is the solution to managing their asthma. For example, someone with an animal fur allergy may avoid being in environments where there are animals, e.g. pets. Doing so can help to prevent an immune system reaction that causes their airways to become inflamed.
- **Lifestyle changes** – making healthy lifestyle changes, such as exercising regularly, can help control and prevent asthma. Exercise helps improve and strengthen our lungs, making them more efficient. Over time, it can help to reduce inflammatory proteins responsible for asthma symptoms, helping to reduce symptoms such as breathlessness and wheezing. Additionally, regular exercise can help reduce flare-ups, improve lung function and reduce airway inflammation.

Applied action
example of how to avoid a trigger. Explain what this means for the individual.

Impact on the individual

Living with asthma doesn't just affect breathing; it can impact a person's physical, emotional, and social dimensions. From the chronic nature of this condition, to the unpleasant symptoms of breathlessness, asthma can have far-reaching consequences on daily life.

Physical	The physical symptoms of asthma, such as wheezing and breathlessness, can cause significant discomfort and interfere with daily activities. This may make it harder to exercise and to engage in activities that require physical exertion.
Intellectual	Experiencing asthma symptoms may affect concentration and decision-making. This can interfere with daily responsibilities such as work, school, or family life.
Emotional	The chronic nature of asthma may cause emotional distress for the individual, including anxiety about having an asthma attack or feeling frustrated that the condition limits their daily activities. Additionally, fears of certain triggers could contribute to high levels of stress and avoidance of situations.
Social	Asthma symptoms may make it difficult to engage in social activities, especially those that involve physical exertion or exposure to certain triggers. Fears of an asthma attack could lead to avoiding social events, which could place strain on personal relationships.

Case study
Zara, a 16-year-old girl, has asthma. She has experienced an asthma attack during her school sports lesson. She has been advised to avoid outdoor activities and has been given a GP referral for a better understanding of her condition and how to manage it.

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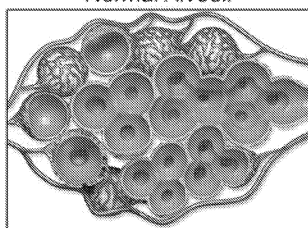


Bacterial pneumonia

Overview and causes

Bacterial pneumonia is a serious infection in the lungs caused by bacteria. It leads to inflammation of the lung tissue, causing the alveoli to fill with pus and other fluids. As these fluids accumulate in the alveoli, oxygen transfer into the blood is impaired, resulting in reduced oxygen levels in the body.

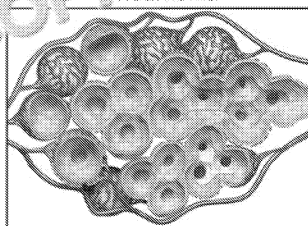
Normal Alveoli



Main signs and symptoms


- Cough, which may include mucus that is yellow, green or bloody
- Breathing difficulties (can be shallow breathing, shortness of breath)
- Chest pain, which gets worse when you breathe deeply or cough
- Fever
- Other symptoms include extreme fatigue, sweating/chills and increased heart rate (tachycardia)

Pneumonia



Diagnosis and monitoring

There are a few ways bacterial pneumonia can be both diagnosed and monitored.

Method	How it's used	
Physical examination	A healthcare provider listens to the lungs with a stethoscope to check for abnormal breath sounds (e.g. crackles or bubbling) to detect signs of inflammation in the lungs.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If some symptoms • Initial • To de • To he
Chest X-ray	A chest X-ray is often used to detect the location of the infection by revealing areas of lung consolidation , where the alveoli are filled with pus, fluid, or inflammatory cells. <div>  <p>Lung consolidation – when the alveoli are filled with pus or fluids instead of air.</p> </div>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When suspected • To confirm the exam • To co the e • To m impro • If sev suspe
Sputum test	Analyses the mucus or phlegm coughed up from someone's lungs to identify the type of bacteria causing the infection. A sample of sputum (lung fluid) is collected after a strong cough.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To id • When antib
Blood test	A blood test can help detect signs of infection, such as elevated white blood cell counts or other markers of inflammation, which may suggest bacterial pneumonia.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When detai • To co asses • To m to tre

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Applied activity: Imagine you are a healthcare professional. Design an informative leaflet about the different methods used to diagnose and monitor bacterial pneumonia.

Treatments

Treatment for bacterial pneumonia typically involves targeting the bacteria causing the infection, as well as managing the symptoms to aid recovery.

	How treatment works	Benefits
Antibiotics	Tablets – oral antibiotics are absorbed into the bloodstream to target the infection and help control bacterial growth.	✓ Non-invasive ✓ Convenient and easy to take ✓ Fast-acting
	Intravenous – antibiotics delivered directly into the bloodstream, providing a more rapid and efficient treatment, especially in severe cases of bacterial pneumonia.	✓ More direct and faster delivery of antibiotics ✓ Useful for severe cases of bacterial pneumonia ✓ Doesn't rely on digestion for absorption, allowing the full dosage to reach the bloodstream
Fluids	Intravenous (delivering directly into a vein through injection or drip) or oral fluids are given to rehydrate the body to prevent dehydration. This helps to support recovery and makes mucus easier to clear by thinning it.	✓ Prevents and treats dehydration, especially for severe cases when a patient can't drink fluids ✓ Ensures controlled and precise fluid intake ✓ Supports overall recovery
Did you know? Fluids aren't just for rehydration! Some treatments involve removing fluid from the lungs if there is too much between the lungs and the chest wall.		
Oxygen	Oxygen supplementation can be used to support patients unable to breathe independently. This can be delivered through nasal tubes or face masks.	✓ Increases oxygen levels in the bloodstream, reducing the strain on the heart and lungs ✓ Non-invasive

Factors increasing likelihood of condition

Certain factors can increase the risk of developing bacterial pneumonia, all of which

- **Lifestyle choices** – engaging in certain lifestyle behaviours, e.g. smoking, can increase the risk of pneumonia by damaging the respiratory system, impairing the body's ability to fight off infection and weakening the immune system, making someone more vulnerable to respiratory infections.

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- **Age** – certain age groups can be more vulnerable to bacterial pneumonia, especially babies and the elderly. This is because babies' immune systems are still developing and the elderly have weaker immune systems, making it harder for them to fight off infections.
- **Underlying health conditions** – chronic illnesses such as **chronic obstructive pulmonary disease**, diabetes and asthma can increase the risk of bacterial pneumonia. For example, conditions that allow harmful bacteria to grow in the airways, diabetes can weaken the immune system, and the damage caused by asthma can weaken the lungs.
- **Weakened immune system** – when the immune system isn't functioning properly, the body becomes less capable of defending itself against bacterial infections in the lungs. Conditions that weaken the immune system, such as HIV/AIDS, cancer treatments, or immunosuppressive drugs, also increase the risk of bacterial pneumonia.

Control and prevention

Bacterial pneumonia can be a very serious, life-threatening illness. Therefore, measures aimed at controlling and preventing it are crucial, especially for those most at risk. There are two main strategies:

- **Flu vaccinations** – flu vaccinations help protect against influenza, a viral infection that can lead to secondary bacterial pneumonia. They are especially important for vulnerable groups, such as infants, the elderly and those with underlying health conditions, as they help to reduce the risk of serious complications, such as hospitalisations and death. Additionally, the more people get vaccinated, the less likely this illness can spread, due to **herd immunity**.
- **Lifestyle changes** – lifestyle changes, such as giving up smoking, maintaining good hygiene, and managing chronic conditions like COPD, can help reduce the risk of pneumonia. Exercising regularly has been found to reduce the risk of serious complications from bacterial pneumonia through its impact on strengthening the immune system. Not only does it benefit overall health, but also supports lung function and helps to clear mucus.

Herd immunity is the immunity to a disease that exists in a community as a whole. It occurs when a large percentage of immune-competent people in a community have acquired immunity to an infectious agent, either through vaccination or through previous infections.

Case study

Patrick, 68, maintains a healthy lifestyle and stays active with regular dog walks and swimming. However, he was recently diagnosed with COPD due to smoking in his younger years.



Applied knowledge – left. Determine the risk of developing pneumonia and identify factors that can decrease the risk.

Impact on the individual

Experiencing bacterial pneumonia can significantly impact an individual. Not only can it have wide-reaching effects on a person's well-being, but it can also impact their physical to social interactions.

Physical	The physical symptoms of this illness, such as breathlessness, fever, can cause significant discomfort and fatigue. These symptoms can impact daily activities, such as eating or sleeping, and lead to weight loss.
Intellectual	The physical toll of this illness, such as a fever, can cause confusion and memory loss. These cognitive challenges can make it harder for the individual to perform daily tasks, including difficulties with focus and decision-making.
Emotional	Dealing with this serious illness could cause feelings of anxiety, fear, and sadness. Individuals who are particularly vulnerable, like the elderly, could suffer significantly from the life-threatening nature of this illness.
Social	The physical symptoms and infectious nature of this illness can cause individuals to isolate themselves from engaging in daily activities or interacting with family and friends.

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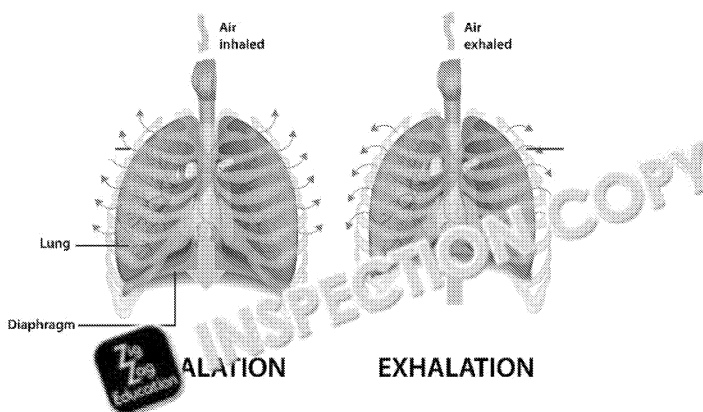
Chapter 2: Questions (2.1–2.5)

Checking my understanding:

- State **one** function for the following:
 - Epiglottis
 - Bronchioles
 - Alveoli
 - Pleural membrane
- During inspiration, the internal intercostal muscles relax. What do the internal intercostal muscles contract during expiration?
- What structural adaptations do the alveoli have to aid gas exchange? Select all that apply.
 - Walls that are two cells thick
 - Large surface area
 - Lined with fluid
 - Neutrophils
- Which molecule do cells store energy in?
- State **one** method of diagnosing and monitoring asthma. (1 mark)
- Which of the following are treatments for bacterial pneumonia? Select all that apply.
 - Intravenous antibiotics
 - Oxygen therapy
 - Steroid inhalers
 - Nebuliser
- Complete the sentences below to describe the location and function of the diaphragm.
The diaphragm is a sheet of muscle located at the **A)** _____ of the **B)** _____. Its function is to **C)** _____.

Developing my understanding/skills:

- The diagram shows the mechanics of breathing.



Explain what happens during inspiration to the external intercostal muscles.

- Charlie has asthma and has been struggling to manage his condition. He has experienced more severe and frequent symptoms and asthma attacks, so he has decided to visit his GP to talk about treatment options. Charlie already has a reliever inhaler.

Discuss which treatment would be best for Charlie. Consider the benefits, risks, and why you would recommend this treatment.

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Chapter 3: Digestive System



We need nutrients to act as the basic building blocks for our bodies and to provide energy. We get our nutrients from food. Food must be in an appropriate state for our bodies to use it. The digestive system is able to get to the cells of the body where it is needed. The digestive system is to break down food both physically and chemically into constituent molecules. These can then be used by the body. Importantly, they are now small enough to enter the bloodstream and can be carried to all the cells in the body.

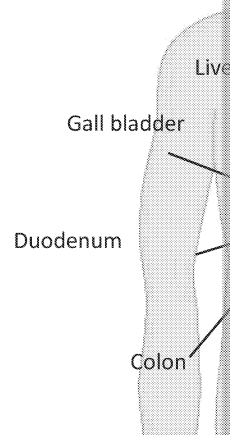
3.1: Structure and function of the digestive system

The digestive system has two main functions:

1. **Digestion** – the physical and chemical breakdown of food into small and simple molecules
2. **Absorption** – the transfer of these small nutrient molecules into the blood

The different structures of the body ensure that these two functions can occur. Generally, the structures higher up in the digestive system break down the food (digestion) while the structures further down absorb the nutrients into the bloodstream (absorption).

The digestive system consists of the alimentary canal and some accessory organs. The alimentary canal is the tube which extends from the mouth at one end of the digestive system to the anus at the other. There are different sections of the alimentary canal which have specific functions. Food passes through the alimentary canal and changes as it goes along due to the different structures it passes through. The accessory organs help the alimentary canal carry out its functions.



Did you know? The stomach lining needs to be protected against stomach acid and the enzymes of the stomach. To do this, special cells in the lining of the stomach produce thick mucus.



Exam

You must be able to draw a diagram of the digestive system and label the main parts.

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Functions of structures of the alimentary canal

Component	Location	Function
Buccal cavity	The beginning of the digestive tract, extending from the lips to the pharynx (throat)	This is where the alimentary canal breaking down food (by chewing), (e.g. tasting) and producing sound.
Oesophagus	A food pipe located behind the trachea, connecting the pharynx and the stomach	The oesophagus (food pipe) carries food to the stomach. It has muscular walls that contract as peristalsis. Food has already been chewed in the mouth and has had saliva added. Food will continue to be digested while in the oesophagus and produced here.
Stomach	Inside of the body, near the top of the abdomen	The stomach churns food and mixes it with enzymes released into the stomach. The stomach also releases hydrochloric acid (HCl), which helps break down food swallowed with food and provides an acidic environment for enzyme activity. Note: the acid is not for the food.
Small intestine	Lower abdomen, between the stomach and the large intestine	Responsible for nutrient absorption. It produces digestive enzymes along with bile, help break down food. The nutrients are then absorbed through tiny structures in the small intestine called villi. Any remaining nutrients go to the large intestines, and will eventually be excreted.
↳ Duodenum	The first section of the small intestine, connecting the stomach to the middle of the small intestine	The duodenum is a small section of the small intestine that connects the stomach to the ileum. It is the first part of the digestive system where most chemical digestion occurs. Enzymes are released by both the pancreas and the duodenum. Carbohydrates, proteins and lipids are broken down into simple sugars, amino acids and fatty acids.
↳ Ileum	The final and longest part of the small intestine, leading to the large intestine	The ileum is where the nutrients that are not absorbed from the lumen of the duodenum are absorbed. It has a lot of adaptations to absorb nutrients. A large surface area is created by the villi in the wall. Finger-like projections called villi are found in the wall. The villi are covered in blood vessels which line the villi.
Large intestine ↳ Colon	Surrounds the small intestine, forming the final part of the digestive tract	The colon, part of the large intestine, absorbs water and electrolytes from the bloodstream and forms what is known as faeces to be removed from the body. Some nutrients are also absorbed into the blood here.
↳ Rectum	End of large intestine	The rectum holds stool, and absorbs water and electrolytes, making the waste more solid. Signals are sent to release the stool from the rectum.
↳ Anus	End of rectum	The final stage of the alimentary canal. Food is expelled from the body. The process is controlled by sphincters, special muscles which contract and relax to allow food to pass.

The **bowel** collectively refers to both the small and large intestines. The small intestine focuses on nutrient absorption, while the large intestine focuses on the reabsorption of water and the expulsion of waste.

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Functions of structures of accessory organs

Accessory organs of the digestive system, such as the liver, pancreas, and gall bladder, process food by producing enzymes, bile, and other substances that aid in the breakdown of food, which is then being part of the alimentary canal.

Component	Location	Function
Liver	Upper part of the abdomen on the right, below the diaphragm	The liver has many functions not related to digestion. However, in the process of digestion, the liver produces a substance called bile that breaks down fat droplets into smaller droplets, which are easier to digest. This is known as emulsification. The smaller the droplets, the easier they are to digest. So, bile does it easier for enzymes to digest. Bile is made in the liver, stored in the gall bladder, and is released into the duodenum when needed.
Bile duct	Tube that runs from the liver and gall bladder to the small intestine	<p>Did you know? The liver is able to regenerate itself and is the only organ that can grow back if it has been removed by surgery. This may be possible to donate part of your liver to someone else while you are alive.</p>
Pancreas	Back of stomach, extending across the abdomen	The pancreas has an endocrine function and produces hormones. However, its role in the digestive system is to produce enzymes. These are made in the pancreas and released into the duodenum through the pancreatic duct, where they help break down fats, carbohydrates, and proteins.
Gall bladder	Under the liver, on the right side of the abdomen	The gall bladder is where bile, made in the liver, is stored until it is needed in the duodenum. The gall bladder contracts when the stomach empties its contents into the duodenum, releasing bile into the small intestine.
Salivary glands	Under the lining of the mouth and pharynx	Salivary glands release saliva into the mouth. Saliva contains digestive enzymes and helps to moisten food, making it easier to swallow. The enzymes in saliva begin the digestion of carbohydrates like starch into smaller carbohydrates.

Applied activity: Test the action of saliva. Slowly chew a piece of bread or cracker without swallowing for a few minutes. Does it start to taste sweet? Explain this in terms of the function of saliva.

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3.2: Mechanical and chemical d

In order to digest food, we need two key processes to work together – mechanical and chemical digestion. Mechanical digestion is where food is physically broken down to reduce it into smaller pieces. By breaking down food into more manageable particles, this supports chemical digestion, which further breaks down food using enzymes. Let's look at these processes in more detail.

Mechanical digestion

As mentioned, mechanical digestion is the process of physically breaking down food to reduce its size. This physical breakdown involves three main processes:

- **Chewing** – also known as mastication, this is the beginning of mechanical digestion starting at the mouth. This is where the food we eat is broken down by the teeth, which grind the food into smaller particles. Once chewed, the tongue directs the food towards the pharynx, where it continues its journey down the oesophagus.
- **Churning** – this happens in the stomach, where the smooth muscles in the stomach contract and relax to mix food with digestive juices (stomach acid and digestive enzymes). This process happens over several hours, where food is turned into a substance known as chyme. Chyme then enters the duodenum, where most chemical digestion takes place.
- **Peristalsis** – this is a wave-like rhythmic contraction and relaxation of muscles in the gut wall. It helps to move food and chyme through the gastrointestinal tract. It does this by contracting circular muscles behind the food to push it forwards, while longitudinal muscles ahead of it contract and widen to shorten the path, making movement easier. This process works a bit like a snake swallowing its prey and slowly pushing it down its body. See the image, right, which shows this process in action.

Mechanical digestion is incredibly important for chemical digestion, as it increases the surface area of food. By breaking down food into smaller pieces, it allows digestive enzymes to act more efficiently, speeding up chemical breakdown and improving nutrient absorption.

Muscles con

Muscles re



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Chemical digestion

Although mechanical digestion is a crucial part of digestion, breaking down food is not enough on its own. Without chemical digestion to change the food's chemical properties, the digestive system wouldn't be able to extract the important nutrients we need from food, such as carbohydrates, proteins and lipids (fats). Through **digestive enzymes**, food is broken down into smaller nutrients that can be absorbed by the body. Enzymes work like keys, with different types unlocking certain nutrients. To unlock these nutrients, three key stages are needed:

- **Mouth** – the process of chemical digestion begins in the mouth with the enzyme salivary amylase. This breaks down carbohydrates into simple sugars such as glucose.
- **Stomach** – in the stomach, chemical digestion continues with the help of gastric juices secreted by the gastric glands. These juices contain hydrochloric acid and protease which break down proteins into amino acids. Hydrochloric acid is added to make sure the acidic conditions in the stomach are at the right level for proteases to function.
- **Small intestine** – as mentioned, most chemical digestion takes place here. Enzymes are released by both the walls of the duodenum and by the pancreas. There are different types of enzymes so that carbohydrates, proteins and lipids are all digested here. Fats are broken down by lipase into fatty acids and glycerol. Bile, produced in the liver, is released into the duodenum to help break down large fat globules into smaller ones for lipase to act. By the time the food, now known as chyme, leaves the duodenum, it contains simple sugars, amino acids, fatty acids and glycerol.

Applied activity: Simulate the function of the stomach to physically break down food. Use a strong sealable plastic bag (like a freezer bag). Add some torn pieces of soft food (so as not to tear the bag) such as bread. Add about 100 ml of water to simulate the stomach fluids. Now gently squeeze the bag and churn the food about, mixing it well with the water. You should find that the food will gradually break down leaving a thick creamy liquid. Why is it not enough for the digestive system to just physically break down the food in this way?

Did you know? Explain why people with food intolerances, such as lactose intolerance, need to take care of the enzymes they eat. What happens to the enzymes in the stomach, which are broken down, which are not?



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3.3: Absorption and assimila

Digestion is the physical and chemical breakdown of food into small, simple molecules to benefit from the food we consume – including nutrients such as vitamins and proteins – it first needs to absorb the digested food molecules into the bloodstream. **absorption.** Once absorbed, the nutrients travel through the circulatory system to the cells. The cells then convert these absorbed nutrients into useful substances in a process called **assimilation**. We will now look at these two terms.

Absorption

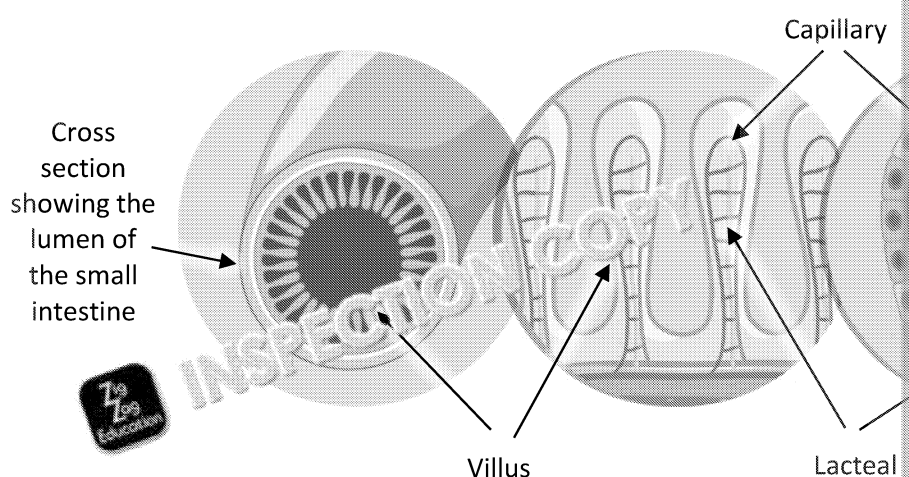
Absorption is the process of transferring digested food molecules into the bloodstream in the small intestine, which plays a key role in ensuring that essential nutrients are absorbed.

The main digested food molecules absorbed in the small intestine include:

- glucose (from carbohydrates)
- fatty acids and glycerol (from fats)
- amino acids (from proteins)

The small intestine has specialised structures to aid its function:

Structure	Function	How its structure aids its function
Villi	The inner lining of the small intestine is covered with finger-like projections that absorb the food molecules.	Increases surface area to absorb more nutrients to the bloodstream.
Blood capillaries	Within each villus (<i>plural villi</i>) is a network of capillaries that is responsible for absorbing food molecules into the bloodstream.	Thin, permeable walls allow for short diffusion distance into the bloodstream.
Lacteals	Each villus also contains a structure called a lacteal, which is part of the lymphatic system. Lacteals absorb fatty acids and glycerol into the lymphatic system.	Lacteals provide a short diffusion distance into the lymphatic system, entering the bloodstream.



Did you know? Once digested, fats are packaged into large particles called chylomicrons, which are too large to enter through the capillary walls.



Did you know? The villi contain several types of cells, including enterocytes (which absorb nutrients), goblet cells (which secrete mucus to protect the lining), and Paneth cells (which produce antimicrobial enzymes to kill bacteria). Other cells include endocrine cells (which release hormones to regulate digestion) and stem cells (which replace old or damaged intestinal cells).

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Assimilation

Once nutrients are absorbed into the blood, they are transported to cells where the process called assimilation takes place, in which nutrients are converted into essential functions such as energy production, growth, and repair.

The capillaries with their thin, permeable walls, play a key role in transferring nutrients to body cells. As blood flows through capillaries, nutrients move from the plasma (the liquid portion of blood) into the tissue fluid surrounding cells. This movement is driven by **hydrostatic pressure**, which forces fluid and dissolved nutrients out of the capillaries and into the surrounding tissues, ensuring that cells receive the nutrients they need.

There are several nutrients that are assimilated in the body. Let's explore some of them.

- **Glucose storage** – the liver can store excess glucose into glycogen, which is stored when needed.
- **Amino acids for protein synthesis** – amino acids from digested proteins are used to build new proteins, essential for growth, repair, and enzyme production.
- **Fat use and storage** – fatty acids and glycerol are absorbed and either used for energy or stored in adipose tissue as an energy reserve.
- **Vitamin absorption** – the small intestine absorbs vitamins, such as vitamin B12, which is essential for blood cell formation and other bodily functions.
- **Minerals for bodily functions** – essential minerals like calcium are assimilated for bone health and teeth, while iron is needed for haemoglobin production in red blood cells.

Assimilation is important; without it the body would not be able to use the nutrients.

Applied activity: Create a flow chart that traces the journey of a nutrient from food through all stages of digestion. Here is an example of one for protein:

1. **Ingestion** – protein is consumed from eating an egg
↓
2. **Mechanical digestion (mouth)** – the teeth break down the egg into smaller pieces
↓
3. **Chemical digestion (mouth)** – amylase (digestive enzyme) within the saliva breaks down carbohydrates, but no protein breakdown happens in the mouth
↓
4. **Digestion (stomach)** – pepsin (digestive enzyme) and stomach acids break down proteins
↓
5. **Digestion (small intestine)** – trypsin and peptidase (enzymes) break down proteins into amino acids
↓
6. **Absorption (small intestine)** – amino acids are absorbed into the bloodstream
↓
7. **Transport (cardiovascular system)** – blood transports amino acids to muscle cells
↓
8. **Assimilation** – muscle cells use amino acids to synthesise new proteins for growth and repair

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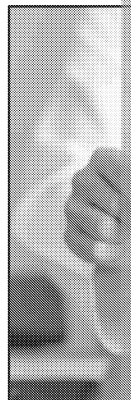
3.4: Conditions of the digestive

When parts of the digestive system aren't functioning properly, certain conditions can arise. Common symptoms that arise in these conditions include abdominal pain, changes in bowel movements, and nausea. While family history and underlying health conditions can contribute to these conditions, lifestyle factors also play a significant role.

Bowel polyps

Overview and causes

This condition is an abnormal production of cells in the lining of the bowel, occurring in the colon and rectum. Bowel polyps are mostly harmless, but they can develop into bowel cancer, which is why diagnosing, monitoring and treating this condition is so important. Bowel polyps can vary in size from small to large; large bowel polyps can cause abdominal pain, diarrhoea, and blood in the stool due to blocking a part of the bowel.



Main signs and symptoms

- Blood or mucus in stool
- Changes in bowel movements such as diarrhoea and constipation
- Abdominal pain

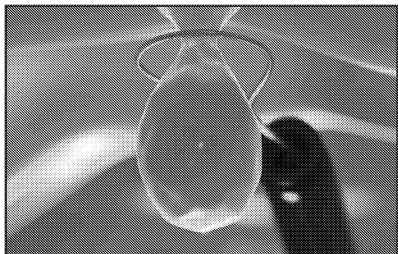
Diagnosis and monitoring

There are two main ways to diagnose and monitor bowel polyps:

Method	How it's used
Screening	Although this is usually done for bowel cancer, screening can also help detect polyps. This involves collecting a sample of stool, which is sent to a lab for testing. This test screens for tiny amounts of blood in the stool which can be caused by polyps.
Colonoscopy	A small camera with a light is inserted into someone's rectum to detect any polyps in the colon.

Treatments

Treatments for bowel polyps aim to remove the abnormal production of cells in the lining of the bowel. Depending on the severity and size of the polyp, certain treatments are given.

	How it works	Benefits
Polypectomy	<p>This is where a 'wire loop' is inserted into the rectum which removes the polyps by snaring them off without damaging the surrounding tissue. This is usually used alongside a colonoscopy. See image below which shows a polypectomy.</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Painless✓ Simple procedure✓ Quick recovery time✓ Allows for a sample to be collected to test for cancer✓ Helps prevent colorectal cancer (by removing polyps before they become cancerous)

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	How it works	Benefits
Open surgery	A surgical procedure involving an incision into the abdominal wall, where a section of the colon is removed where the polyp is. This treatment is used for more severe, large polyps which pose a greater risk of developing into cancer.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Helps prevent colorectal cancer (by removing polyps before they become cancerous) ✓ Can address more severe cases of bowel polyps ✓ Alleviates symptoms associated with large polyps such as abdominal pain and blood in stool

Case study

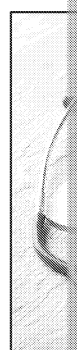
Samir, 61, recently had a colonoscopy that revealed a large polyp in his colon. He was given two options but as he doesn't fully understand what they involve, their benefits, or their risks, he is struggling to decide.

Factors increasing likelihood of condition

Certain factors can increase someone's risk of bowel polyps, from diet to certain health conditions. This is because all of these factors influence the digestive system, which can increase the risk of abnormal cell growth in the lining of the bowel.

- **Gender** – men are more at risk of developing bowel polyps than women.¹ Although the reasons for this aren't fully understood, it's believed hormonal differences, genetics and lifestyle factors can contribute to the growth in men's bowels.
- **Age** – those who are over the age of 50 are more likely to develop bowel polyps. This is because as we age, the risk of abnormal cell growth in the bowel increases.
- **Diet** – a diet high in fat and processed foods can be difficult for the digestive system to process, as bile and digestive juices can struggle to break down these fatty foods. As a result, this means the by-products from these foods can become stuck in the colon and lead to abnormal growth of cells in the bowel.
- **Family history** – those with a family member who has had bowel polyps are more at risk of developing the condition. This is due to genetic factors that may increase the likelihood of abnormal cell growth in the bowel. This is why individuals with a family history of bowel polyps are recommended to undergo regular screening to detect and monitor polyps and prevent cancer.
- **Crohn's disease** – this is a chronic condition that causes inflammation and swelling in the gastrointestinal tract. This inflammation can make it more likely for abnormal cells to grow in the bowel, as well as bowel cancer.
- **Smoking** – smoking is incredibly damaging to each system within the body. People who smoke are more at risk of bowel polyps because of the harmful substances (particles that cause cancer) present in tobacco smoke. These substances can get into the tissues of the body, leading to abnormal cell growth in the bowel.

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¹ MD Anderson <https://www.mdanderson.org/cancerwise/colon-polyps--10-things-to-know.h00-159538167.html#:~:text=Men%20are%20more%20likely%20to,of%20screening%20for%20colorec> 06/02/2025)

Control and prevention

Controlling and preventing bowel polyps involves making healthy lifestyle changes. These changes can help to improve the functioning of the digestive system and prevent the likelihood of abnormal cell growth.

- **High fibre diet** – eating a diet rich in fibre, such as fruits, vegetables and wholegrain foods, can help to reduce abnormal cell growth in the bowel by keeping the walls of the colon healthy and strong. Eating this diet can also help to reduce the risk of reoccurring polyps.
- **Losing weight** – losing weight helps to lower the levels of fat and cholesterol in the body, which can reduce the likelihood of developing bowel polyps. Losing weight can also improve overall digestive health and reduce inflammation, lowering the risk of abnormal cell growth.
- **Exercising regularly** – engaging in physical activity on a regular basis can help to improve circulation and digestive function. Exercise also helps in maintaining a healthy weight, which further lowers the risk of polyps.
- **Stopping smoking** – quitting smoking can help prevent any further damage to the digestive system caused by smoking. As a result, this can help to reduce the risk of further abnormal cell growth and improve the overall health of the digestive system.

Impact on the individual

Experiencing bowel polyps can significantly impact someone's life, especially in relation to their physical, intellectual, emotional and social well-being.

Physical	The physical symptoms of bowel polyps, such as abdominal pain, bloating and changes in bowel movements, could cause significant physical discomfort, especially if the polyps are large. This could make it challenging for individuals to perform daily activities like chores and responsibilities, as well as exercise.
Intellectual	These physical symptoms could make it difficult for individuals to concentrate, decision-making and problem-solving. As a result, this could impact their ability to complete education, or family life.
Emotional	The sensitive nature of this condition could make individuals feel embarrassed or ashamed of experiencing this condition. Additionally, fears of polyps leading to cancer could cause significant emotional distress such as anxiety and stress.
Social	The embarrassment or emotional distress caused by bowel polyps could prevent individuals from seeking the medical support they need. Individuals may feel uncomfortable discussing their condition with friends or family, which could prevent them from seeking the medical support they need.

Applied activity: Come up with a real-life case study that shows how bowel polyps can impact a person's life in relation to PIES.

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Gallstones

Overview and causes

This is where stones form in the gall bladder from crystals of cholesterol and bilirubin (a yellow substance in bile). These stones gradually become larger and can become trapped in the bile duct, blocking the secretion of bile into the small intestine. This blockage can affect the digestion of fat.

Main signs and symptoms

- Abdominal pain
- **Jaundice**
- Fever
- Nausea

Jaundice – a condition caused by abnormally high levels of bilirubin, causing the skin and eyes to turn yellow.

Diagnosis and monitoring

There are a number of ways to diagnose and monitor gallstones:

Method	How it's used	When it's used
Physical examination	A healthcare professional examines someone's upper right stomach area by placing their hands on this area while asking the individual to breathe. Any pain during this process helps identify the presence of gallstones.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If someone shows signs and symptoms of gallstones • To diagnose gallstones • To direct future treatment
Ultrasound	Involves moving an ultrasound across an individual's abdomen. This creates an image of the structures of the abdomen to detect any gallstones present.	
Blood test	A blood sample is taken to help identify gallstones by detecting any infections, such as jaundice, which can be caused by gallstones.	

Treatments

There are surgical and non-surgical options for treating gallstones. Surgical treatments involve removing the gall bladder to alleviate symptoms and prevent future gallstones from happening. Non-surgical treatments help manage symptoms such as abdominal pain.

Did you know? Non-surgical treatments can help you get rid of gallstones and prevent future surgery if necessary.

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		How it works	Benefits
Surgical treatments	Laparoscopic cholecystectomy	<p>This is a keyhole surgery where numerous small incisions are made in the abdomen. Thin surgical instruments are then placed inside the abdomen to remove the gall bladder.</p> <p>Keyhole surgery – a type of operation which allows a procedure to be performed inside a part of the body without requiring a large incision.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Less invasive ✓ Quicker recovery ✓ Shorter hospital stay ✓ Less pain after surgery ✓ Alleviates symptoms and avoids future complications
	Open cholecystectomy	<p>A larger incision is made in the right side of the abdomen (under the ribs) to remove the gall bladder.</p> <p>Research activity: Find out when open cholecystectomy is used instead of laparoscopic cholecystectomy.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Alleviates symptoms and avoids future complications ✓ Overcomes limitations of laparoscopic cholecystectomy such as less control over excessive bleeding, decreased visibility, and suitability for patients who have had previous abdominal surgery

		How it works	Benefits
Non-surgical treatments	Pain relief	<p>Painkillers can be prescribed to individuals to help alleviate symptoms such as abdominal pain by interrupting pain signals before they reach the brain.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Easy to use ✓ Can be used alongside surgical treatment ✓ Non-invasive

Did you know? Antibiotics are another non-surgical treatment which are used to treat infections which can be caused by gallstones.

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Factors increasing likelihood of condition

There are certain factors which can increase the risk of developing gallstones, all of which are discussed below.

- **Gender** – females are more at risk of developing gallstones due to higher levels of oestrogen, particularly from pregnancy or contraceptives. High levels of oestrogen can slow down the movement of the gall bladder and increase cholesterol in the bile. Together, these factors can lead to the formation of gallstones.
- **Age** – being older than 40 can increase the risk of developing gallstones because as we age the gall bladder can become less effective at emptying, and bile can become more concentrated, increasing the likelihood of stone formation.
- **Obesity** – being obese can increase the likelihood of developing gallstones because of the higher levels of cholesterol in the bile. This makes it easier for cholesterol to form stones.
- **Family history** – family history of gallstones can increase the likelihood of developing gallstones due to genetic factors that may affect bile composition or gall bladder function.
- **Alcohol abuse** – the link between alcohol abuse and gallstones is still up for debate, but it is believed that alcohol can indirectly increase the risk of gallstones forming. This is because alcohol can cause liver problems, which can affect bile production and contribute to gallstone development.

Case study

Yasmin is 43 years old and worried she might develop gallstones because her mother has had them. She doesn't drink or smoke, and eats a healthy diet.

Applied activity

Identify the factors that increase the higher risk of developing gallstones. Consider what lifestyle changes could be helping to prevent this.

Control and prevention

Controlling and preventing gallstones involves making lifestyle changes that can help maintain healthy gall bladder function and reduce the risk of developing stones.

- **Dietary changes** – eating a balanced diet, low in unhealthy fats and high in fibre, can help prevent gallstones. Making these dietary changes can promote healthy digestion and gall bladder function. Additionally, reducing fatty and processed foods can lower cholesterol, which helps to reduce the risk of gallstones forming.
- **Losing weight** – losing weight can help reduce the risks associated with being obese, including lowering cholesterol levels in the bile. In turn, this helps reduce the likelihood of gallstone formation.

Impact on the individual

Gallstones can be incredibly painful and uncomfortable for someone to experience, and can have a significant impact on physical, intellectual, emotional and social dimensions.

Physical	The symptoms that accompany gallstones, such as abdominal pain, nausea and vomiting, may make it hard for individuals to function in daily life. Individuals may also experience fatigue from these symptoms, which may make it harder to engage in physical activities. Additionally, these symptoms could disrupt basic needs such as eating and sleeping.
Intellectual	These physical symptoms could make it difficult for individuals to concentrate, leading to difficulties with decision-making and problem-solving. A fever or fatigue could further interfere with cognitive abilities. As a result, this could impact an individual's ability to perform at work or in their family life.
Emotional	Dealing with gallstones can be emotionally distressing, especially if the symptoms are severe. Abdominal pain in particular could increase suffering and cause individuals to feel frustrated. Additionally, the lack of non-surgical treatments for gallstones could cause worry and stress for individuals, particularly for those who fear surgery.
Social	Individuals with gallstones may struggle to engage in social activities due to the symptoms that accompany it. Abdominal pain, nausea and a fever could make it difficult to be out and about, and increase the risk of loneliness. Additionally, jaundice from engaging in social activities due to concerns about how they look could lead to embarrassment of having visible symptoms like yellowing of the skin or eyes.

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Chapter 3: Questions (3.1–3.4)

Checking my understanding:

- Which of the following structures of the alimentary canal is responsible for turning semi-solid food into a liquid form?
 - Buccal cavity
 - Small intestine
 - Ileum
 - Stomach
- Where in the digestive system is bile stored?

Mechanical digestion is the process of physically breaking down food to reduce its size.
- State **one** process that happens in mechanical digestion.
- What structure is responsible for absorbing fatty acids and glycerol?
 - Cecum
 - Lacteals
 - Villi
 - Plasma
- John has just started experiencing blood in his stool, constipation and painful defecation. He has gone to his GP. State what condition John is most likely suffering from.
- Which of the following are treatment options for gallstones? Select **all** that apply.
 - Laparoscopic cholecystectomy
 - Painkillers
 - Open surgery
 - Polypectomy
- Complete the sentences below to describe the function of the salivary glands.

The salivary glands release A) _____ in the mouth. Saliva contains B) _____ and C) _____ to moisten the food and D) _____ it so it's easier to swallow. The enzymes in the saliva begin D) _____ digestion.

Developing my understanding/skills:

- Identify the enzymes which break down the following food groups:
 - Protein
 - Fat
 - Carbohydrate
- Patrick, 57, has recently developed several bowel polyps. Despite maintaining a healthy diet and exercising, he is a smoker. His doctor has explained that his age, gender and smoking may be increasing his risk for this condition.
 - Explain what bowel polyps are.
 - Justify why Patrick's doctor has identified his age, gender and smoking as risk factors for this condition.

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Chapter 4: Musculoskeletal system

The musculoskeletal system consists of the muscular system and the skeletal system. Both are needed for movement. The skeleton provides structure, support and protection, acts as a mineral store and produces both red and white blood cells. The muscular system enables you to move. It is needed to pull different bones in relation to each other so that movement can be achieved. Problems with the skeleton, such as the strength of the bones or movement at the joints, can affect support and movement. Problems with muscles or the structures which attach muscles to bones will also affect movement. By the end of this section, you should understand the components of the skeletal and muscular systems, as well as the conditions that can affect the musculoskeletal system.

4.1: Skeletal system

The skeletal system is made up of various components. First, let's focus on its structure.

Skeletal structure

Bones are the framework of our body and allow movement by working with muscles. Bones also provide protection of vital organs, and joints allow different types of movement. They are split into the appendicular skeleton (made up of the upper limbs, lower limbs, shoulder girdle and pelvic girdle) and the axial skeleton (made up of the core bones of the body, including the thoracic cage, the vertebrae and the cranium).

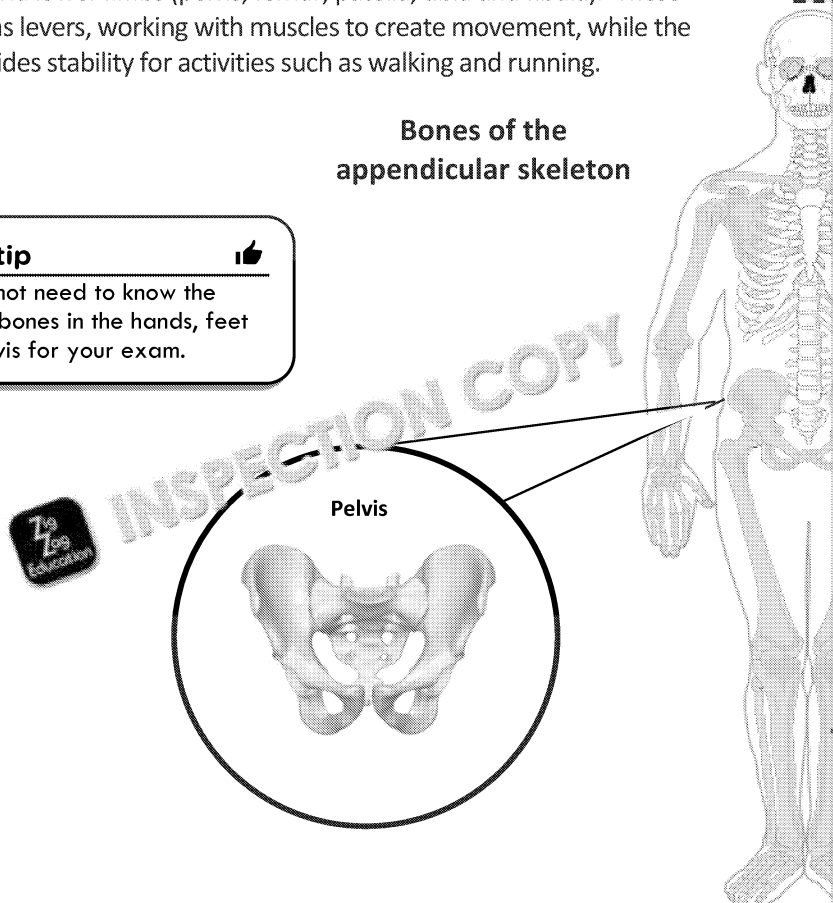
The appendicular skeleton

The appendicular skeleton is responsible for movement, flexibility and **locomotion**. It includes the upper limbs (scapula, clavicle, humerus, radius and ulna) and lower limbs (pelvis, femur, patella, tibia and fibula). These bones act as levers, working with muscles to create movement, while the pelvis provides stability for activities such as walking and running.

Bones of the appendicular skeleton

Exam tip

You do not need to know the specific bones in the hands, feet and pelvis for your exam.



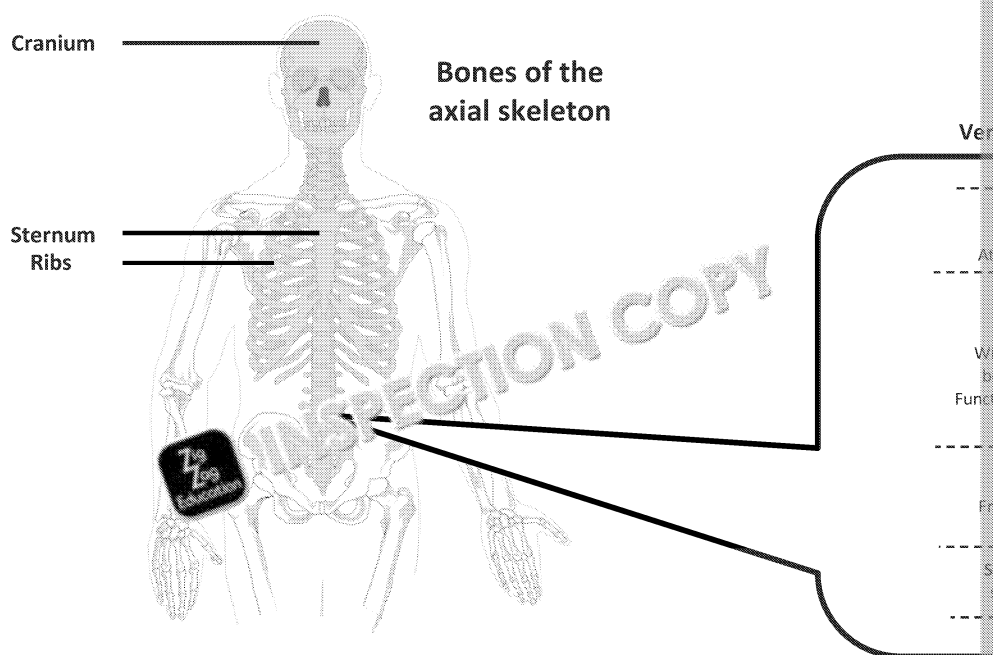
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The axial skeleton

The axial skeleton provides support, protection and posture. It includes the cranium, which protect vital organs such as the brain, heart and lungs.



Structure of bone

Bones provide the framework for the body and other functions, such as protection, movement, blood cell production and mineral storage. Bones are composed of living tissue that adapts, grows and changes throughout the life of a person. The limbs are made of long bones.

Below is a diagram showing the main structural components of a bone, which you will need to know for your exam.

Did you know? Bone has several functions.

- ✓ **Protection:** It is hard, so it is used to protect organs. For example, the skull protects the brain, the ribcage protects the heart and lungs.
- ✓ **Structure:** It gives the body structure.
- ✓ **Movement:** There are special areas where muscles attach, as one of the main functions of bones is movement of the body.
- ✓ **Storage of minerals:** The bones also store minerals. For example, calcium is stored in bones. Calcium has different functions in the body, including helping with communication between nerve cells.
- ✓ **Blood cell production:** The bone marrow, which is found inside the bones, is where the blood cells are made.

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Growth plate: a section of cartilage found on the end of long bones in children and young adolescents. Once the bones have stopped growing, it transforms into an epiphyseal line.

Cancellous bone: a sponge-like bone tissue found in the epiphysis.

Periosteum: tough connective tissue that surrounds all other bone features.

Compact bone: very dense bone tissue that surrounds the bone (inside the periosteum).

Articular cartilage: tissue that covers the ends of long bones, acting as a lubricant to reduce friction at joints.

Epiphysis: the end of a long bone which forms a joint.

Diaphysis: the central shaft of a long bone between the two epiphyses.

Epiphysis

Other bone anatomy you should be aware of is **bone marrow**. This is sponge-like bone tissue that is the location of blood cell production, including red blood cells, white blood cells and platelets. Bone marrow also plays a key role in supporting the immune system by producing **plasma cells**, a type of white blood cell that is responsible for producing antibodies.

Did you know? There are key minerals that are stored within bones known as **bone minerals**. They aid bone growth and health!



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Formation of bone

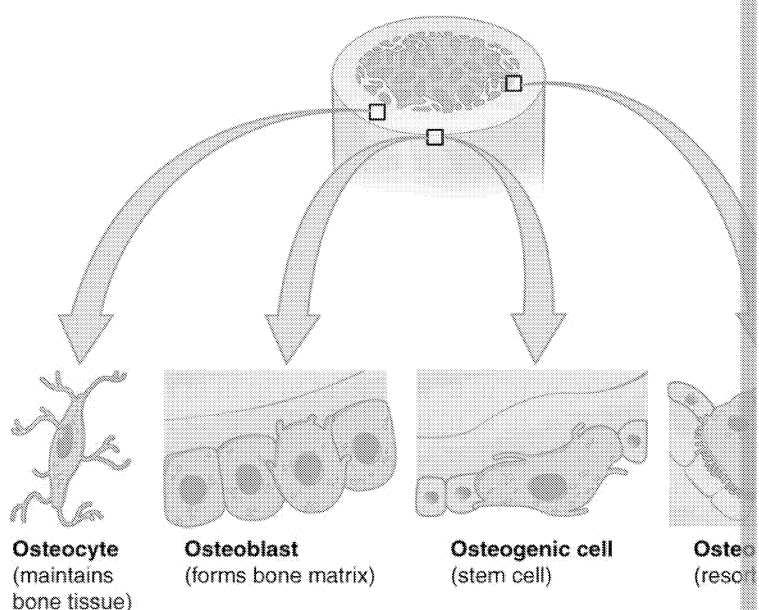
It is known that bone is a living tissue and it changes and grows throughout life. In the human body can break down and build new bone tissue when required, similar to how skin is destroyed and replaced. **Ossification** is the term given to the process of bone remodelling. Ossification uses **osteoclasts** (bone breakdown, where old bone tissue is dissolved) and **osteoblasts** (remodelling / growth, where new bone tissue is created).

Calcium is the mineral that acts as the building block of bones, alongside vitamin D, which helps the body absorb calcium. When a bone is being remodelled and a breakdown of bone occurs, it releases less calcium (because calcium is for bone growth). **Osteoclasts** are cells that remove old bone tissue. Removal of calcium makes bones more brittle, allowing them to be broken down to release calcium.

Osteoblasts carry calcium to the bone to build new bone tissue. The new bone is built in layers. Osteocytes build layer upon layer of bone tissue.

A good example of bone remodelling at work is the growth plates in children and adolescents. During childhood, the growth plates are constantly remodelled until the long bones have reached full maturity. The growth plates are then replaced by the epiphysis.

Did you know? In conditions like osteoporosis, there is a reduction in bone density over a long period of time. Bones become much weaker and are more prone to fracture.




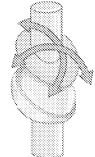
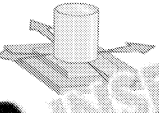

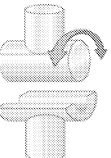
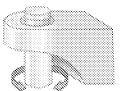
Structure of synovial joints

Synovial joints allow movement. The shoulder, elbow, knee, finger joints and hips are all examples of synovial joints. They are a little more complicated in structure than the other two types of joint (fibrous and cartilaginous) as they have to allow two bones to move smoothly against each other. The ends of the bones are covered with a layer of cartilage because cartilage is smoother than bone so the bones can move against each other with less friction. The friction is further reduced as the joint is encased in a tough capsule which contains a fluid known as synovial fluid. Synovial fluid is made by the synovial membrane which lines the joint. The bones themselves are connected to each other with ligaments.

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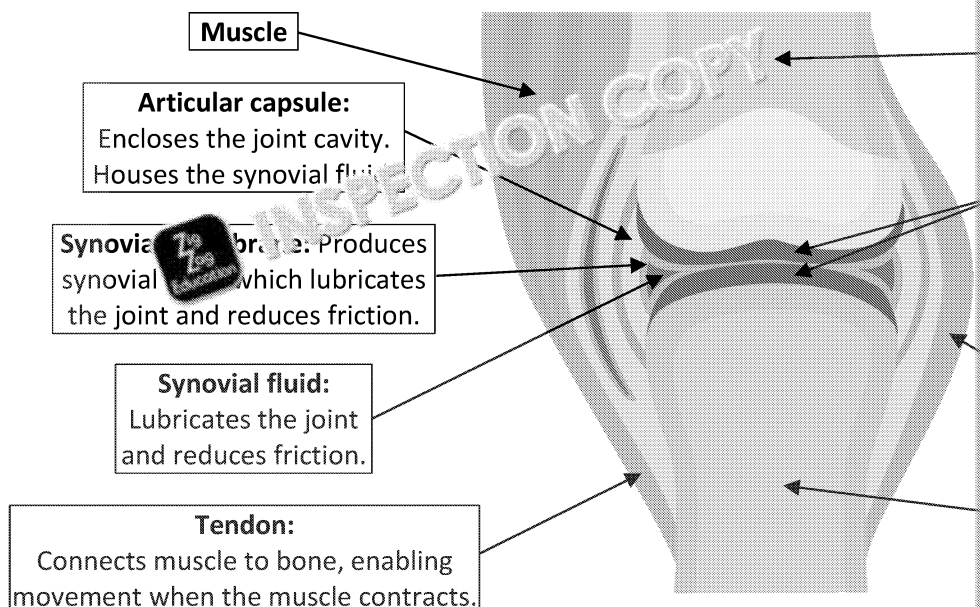
There are six types of synovial joint found in the body that allow the body to move

Type	Diagram	Movement(s)	
Ball-and-socket		Flexion, extension, abduction, adduction, rotation, circumduction	Hi
Condylloid		Flexion, extension, abduction, adduction, circumduction (no rotation)	W an
Gliding		Sliding or gliding movements	Ha an
Saddle		Flexion, extension, abduction, adduction, circumduction (more freedom than condylloid)	Th
Hinge		Flexion and extension only	Elk
Pivot		Rotation around a single axis	Ne (ra

Applied activity: In pairs, practise using different types of synovial joint. One movement, and the other identifies which type of synovial joint is being used.

* You do not need to know the names of each joint in brackets, just the locations.

You should now know the location of, and types of, movement found at different range of different movements and are designed to help prevent injury. Their functions and preventing injury is based on their structure. This is outlined below.



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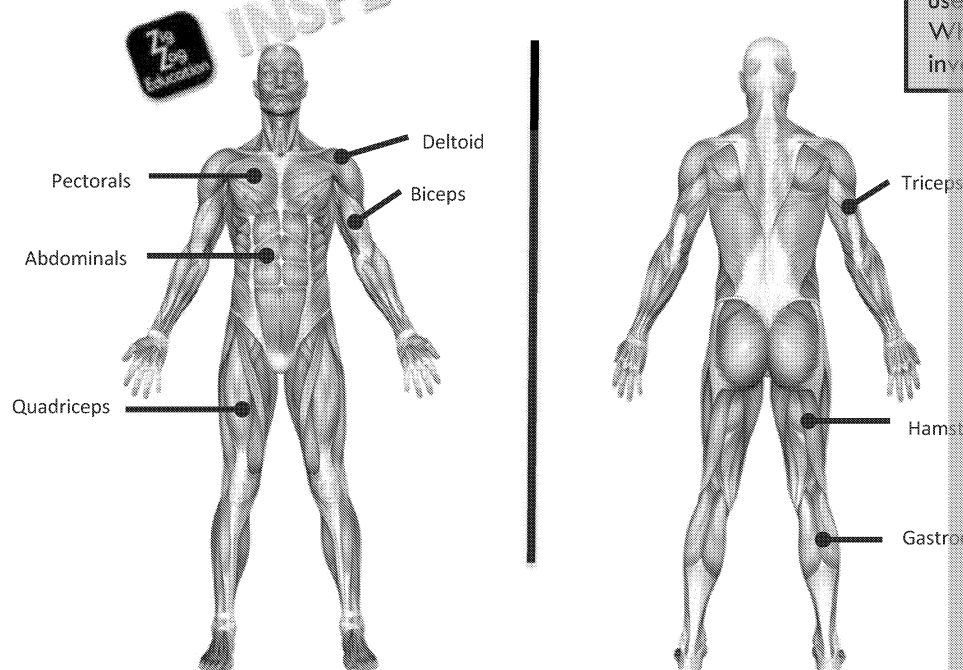
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4.2: Muscular system

The muscular system is made up of the skeletal muscles (mostly striated muscle tissue) that attach to the skeleton. Movement of the skeleton occurs at the joints, which is where one bone connects to another. Bones need to be connected securely to each other at joints, otherwise the skeleton is at risk of falling apart. Ligaments are made of tough fibrous tissue that holds one bone to another at a joint. For a bone to move at a joint, it must be pulled by a muscle. So, the muscles must be securely attached to a bone. Tendons are tough fibrous tissue that attaches muscles to joints.

Skeletal muscles are under voluntary control, meaning that movement is consciously caused when the person chooses. When muscles contract, working in **antagonistic pairs**, they pull the bones to cause movement at joints. Below is a diagram that you can use to identify the key skeletal muscles.



Muscle	Function
Biceps	Flexes the elbow and assists in supination (rotating the forearm).
Triceps	Extends the elbow, straightening the arm.
Pectorals	Moves the shoulder; specifically allows flexion, adduction , and
Deltoid	Abducts the arm (especially the middle deltoids), and the anterior deltoids assist in shoulder flexion, extension, and rotation.
Hamstrings	Flexes the knee and extends the hip, important for walking, running,
Quadriceps	Extends the knee and helps with hip flexion.
Gastrocnemius	Flexes the knee and plantar flexes the ankle (points the toes down) during running, and jumping.
Abdominals	Flexes and rotates the torso, helps stabilise the pelvis, and assists during exercise and forced exhalation.

Adduction – movement of a body part towards the midline.

Abduction – movement of a body part away from the midline.

Plantar flexion – movement where the top of the foot moves towards the ground.

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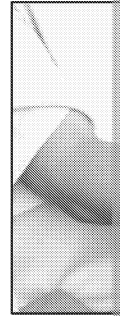
4.3: Conditions of the musculoskeletal system

Conditions which affect the musculoskeletal system, such as carpal tunnel syndrome, affect the muscles, bones and joints. Common symptoms include pain, weakness and limited movement. These conditions can significantly impact daily life, and factors such as lifestyle, age and genetics can increase the likelihood of developing them.

Carpal tunnel syndrome

Overview and causes

This is a condition that occurs when the median nerve, which runs from the forearm into the palm of the hand, becomes compressed as it passes through the carpal tunnel in the wrist. This pressure on the nerve interferes with its normal function, leading to reduced sensory and motor control. The compression prevents the nerve from transmitting electrical signals, which can cause numbness in the hand, as well as tingling or weakness.




Main signs and symptoms

- Numbness in hand
- Pain in arm or hand
- Tingling
- Weakness in hand or wrist

Diagnosis and monitoring

There are a few ways carpal tunnel syndrome can be diagnosed and monitored, and healthcare professionals can use these to assess nerve function and detect signs of compression.

Method	How it's used
Physical examination	<p>A healthcare professional examines the wrist for signs of muscle loss (atrophy) and asymmetry. They may also apply pressure to the carpal tunnel to trigger symptoms and perform movement tests such as the Phalen test, where specific wrist positions help confirm the diagnosis.</p> <div><p>Did you know? This image shows the Phalen manoeuvre. This movement provokes pain in patients with carpal tunnel syndrome.</p></div>
Ultrasound	<p>Involves using high-frequency waves to create images of the wrist. This test detects if there is median nerve swelling, compression or flattening.</p>
Electromyography (nerve test)	<p>A fine needle electrode is inserted into specific muscles controlled by the median nerve to assess electrical activity during contraction and relaxation, helping detect any muscle or nerve damage.</p>

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Treatments

There are surgical and non-surgical treatment options for carpal tunnel syndrome to reduce pressure on the median nerve, alleviate symptoms and improve wrist and hand function.

		How it works	Benefits
Surgical treatments	Carpal tunnel surgery	Also known as carpal tunnel release surgery, this is a procedure which involves cutting the transverse carpal ligament to relieve pressure on the median nerve.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Long-term solution compared to non-surgical options ✓ Addresses the root cause of nerve compression ✓ Alleviates symptoms ✓ Restores motor and sensory functions

		How it works	Benefits
Non-surgical treatments	Wrist splint 	<p>A wrist splint is worn around the wrist to limit movement. This keeps the wrist in a neutral position to reduce pressure on the median nerve.</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Non-invasive ✓ Easy to use ✓ Relief of symptoms after a few weeks of use ✓ Non-surgical option
	Pain medication	Painkillers can be prescribed to individuals to reduce inflammation or alter the way the brain perceives pain signals, offering symptomatic relief.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Easy to use ✓ Non-invasive ✓ Can be used alongside other treatments
	Hand exercises	Helps strengthen supporting muscles and improve flexibility, which may reduce pressure on the nerve and alleviate symptoms.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Non-invasive ✓ Convenient, can be done anywhere ✓ Helps alleviate symptoms and treat the root cause

Factors increasing likelihood of condition

The following factors can increase the risk of developing carpal tunnel syndrome:

- ➔ **Wrist fracture** – a broken wrist can cause the space in the carpal tunnel to narrow, increasing pressure and irritation on the median nerve, which can result in carpal tunnel syndrome.
- ➔ **Obesity and being overweight** – excess weight can cause fluid build-up which can increase pressure on the median nerve and contribute to increased risk of carpal tunnel syndrome.
- ➔ **Family history** – having a close family member with carpal tunnel syndrome can increase the risk of developing this condition. Genetics are believed to play a role in structural abnormalities of the carpal tunnel, making it more prone to compression.
- ➔ **Working with vibrating tools** – repetitive motions and vibrations from power tools, for example, can cause musculoskeletal strain on the wrist and hands, such as damage to blood vessels, nerves and joints. This can compress the median nerve in the carpal tunnel.

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- ➔ **Prolonged/regular computer-based activities** – continuous typing or using a mouse can cause repetitive stress on the median nerve, increasing the risk of carpal tunnel syndrome.
- ➔ **Rheumatoid arthritis** – inflammatory conditions such as rheumatoid arthritis can cause thickening of the tissues around the carpal tunnel, putting pressure on the median nerve.
- ➔ **Hormonal or metabolic changes (thyroid imbalance)** – hormonal fluctuations, such as those experienced during menopause, can cause swelling in the wrists due to fluid retention in the carpal tunnel. This build-up can place increased pressure on the median nerve. Additionally, metabolic changes, such as a thyroid imbalance, can cause **peripheral neuropathy**. This can also lead to fluid retention which puts extra pressure on the median nerve.

Peripheral neuropathy is a condition that affects the brain and nerves, causing numbness and pain in those exposed to carpal tunnel syndrome.

Research activity: Research the different types of hand exercises for carpal tunnel syndrome. Consider how these exercises help to reduce pressure on the median nerve.



Control and prevention

Controlling and preventing carpal tunnel syndrome involves adopting specific measures to reduce pressure on the median nerve:

- ✓ **Grip with less force** – using a lighter grip can help reduce strain on the wrist and prevent excessive pressure on the median nerve.
- ✓ **Take breaks when working with hands** – taking regular breaks, especially when performing repetitive movements or using vibrating equipment, helps to avoid prolonged stress on the wrist and reduces the risk of compression in the carpal tunnel.
- ✓ **Keep hands warm** – keeping the hands warm helps maintain better circulation and prevents stiffness, helping to reduce pressure on the median nerve.
- ✓ **Hand stretches** – performing hand stretches improves flexibility and can relieve tension in the wrist and arm, all of which helps reduce pressure on the median nerve.

Impact on the individual

Carpal tunnel syndrome can have a significant impact on a person's life. Since we rely on our hands for nearly everything, sensory and motor issues can affect many aspects of daily living, particularly in terms of PIES.

Physical	The sensory and motor symptoms, such as pain, numbness and weakness in the wrists, can cause physical restrictions. Individuals may struggle to use their hands or wrists, which could interfere with most daily activities.
Intellectual	Carpal tunnel syndrome may affect an individual's ability to focus due to discomfort or pain. This can impact tasks that require mental effort, such as problem-solving.
Emotional	Dealing with the pain and physical restrictions that accompany the condition can cause emotional distress. Individuals may experience feelings of frustration, especially if the condition interferes with their ability to engage in or perform daily tasks.
Social	Individuals may find it difficult to participate in social activities that require the use of their hands, such as eating or holding objects, which can lead to social isolation.

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Osteoarthritis

Overview and causes

This is a degenerative joint disease where there is a gradual breakdown of joint cartilage. This results in reduced joint space and friction between the bones, which increases inflammation and the formation of **bone spurs**. While osteoarthritis is non-inflammatory in nature (in contrast to rheumatoid arthritis), inflammation can still occur secondarily. This leads to symptoms such as pain and stiffness.

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Bone spurs – bony growths that develop along the edges of bones, often in joints affected by osteoarthritis.

Main signs and symptoms

- Pain
- Inflammation
- Stiffness
- Limited range of movement
- Grating and cracking sounds in joints

Diagnosis and monitoring

Diagnosing and monitoring osteoarthritis involves detecting the extent of cartilage damage and the presence of bone spurs.

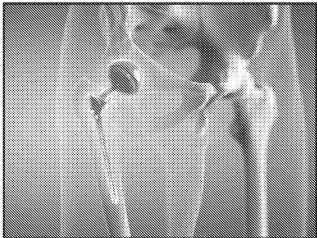
Method	How it's used	
Physical examination	A healthcare professional examines the affected joint for signs of osteoarthritis by visually assessing the area (checking for swelling, redness, etc.), checking for tenderness and evaluating range of motion.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If • To • To
X-ray	<p>This provides a detailed image of a joint, allowing for the detection of joint space loss, bone spurs and other structural changes in the bone.</p> <p>Research activity: Research X-rays for osteoarthritis. See whether you can detect bone spurs, a loss of joint space and other structural characteristics.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • •
Exploratory surgery	<p>Also known as arthroscopy, this is a keyhole surgery whereby a healthcare professional makes a small incision into a joint. A fine device is inserted with a small camera at the end which can provide an image inside the joint to detect cartilage damage, bone spurs and inflammation.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • •

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Treatments

There are surgical and non-surgical options for osteoarthritis. Surgical options help reduce joint damage by repairing or replacing damaged joints, whereas non-surgical options focus on managing symptoms such as pain and inflammation.

		How it works	Benefits
Surgical treatments	Joint fusing	Also known as arthrodesis, this is a procedure in which damaged cartilage between two bones is removed. The bone ends are trimmed and secured with metal hardware (e.g. screws and plates). Over time, the bones heal and fuse into a single solid structure.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ High success rates in eliminating pain and symptoms ✓ Long-term solution in addressing symptoms ✓ Safe and effective procedure
	Joint replacement	A procedure which involves removing a joint damaged by osteoarthritis and replacing it with an artificial implant. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Significantly reduces symptoms ✓ Improves mobility in affected joint ✓ Long-lasting results (implants can last 10–15 years, depending on the individual and activity level)

		How it works	Benefits
Non-surgical treatments	Pain medication	Painkillers can be prescribed to individuals to help reduce the perception of pain by altering how the nervous system processes pain signals.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Non-invasive ✓ Easy to use ✓ Can be used alongside surgical treatments ✓ Helps people manage their condition
	Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs)	NSAIDs are medication which help reduce pain and swelling by interfering with specific enzymes.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Helps reduce inflammation ✓ Non-invasive ✓ Easy to use ✓ By managing pain and inflammation, NSAIDs can improve joint mobility and function

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		How it works	Benefits
	Steroid injection	A steroid injection is administered into the affected joint to help decrease inflammation, stiffness and pain. It works by mimicking the effects of natural hormones made by the adrenal glands.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Provides localised relief to affected joint ✓ Improves mobility ✓ Quick effect

Factors increasing likelihood of condition

Certain factors can increase the risk of developing osteoarthritis, all of which contribute to inflammation or increased strain on the cartilage.

- ➔ **Age** – as we age, the likelihood of developing osteoarthritis increases. This is because joints undergo repeated stress, which can gradually wear down cartilage, causing 'joint wear and tear'. Additionally, as we age, our cells and tissues lose their ability to handle stress, making them more prone to damage and cartilage breakdown.
- ➔ **Obesity** – extra body weight increases the strain on joints, contributing to faster cartilage breakdown and a higher likelihood of developing osteoarthritis. Additionally, higher levels of fat increase the amount of inflammation-causing proteins, which can trigger inflammation in the joints.
- ➔ **Other joint conditions** – osteoarthritis can develop in joints that have already been damaged by another condition, such as **rheumatoid arthritis** or **gout**. These conditions can cause inflammation that leads to cartilage breakdown, making the joints more susceptible to osteoarthritis (which is referred to as 'secondary osteoarthritis').
- ➔ **Joint injury** – experiencing an injury to the joint increases the risk of osteoarthritis. Inflammation in the joint can lead to damage to the joint, causing cartilage breakdown. Factors such as the severity of the injury, the degree of swelling, and the time taken for the joint to heal can influence whether someone will develop osteoarthritis after an injury.

Control and prevention

While osteoarthritis cannot be fully prevented, it can be minimised by engaging in healthy lifestyle habits and using supportive devices.

- ✓ **Joint support devices** – using supportive devices, e.g. a knee brace, can help individuals engage in activities which would usually cause pain or instability. These devices can help manage symptoms such as joint pain, reduce pressure on affected joints and improve stability.
- ✓ **Lifestyle changes** – implementing lifestyle changes, such as exercising regularly and losing weight, can help prevent and control osteoarthritis. Physical activity, especially low-impact exercises such as swimming and walking, not only helps strengthen the muscles around affected joints but also keeps the cartilage lubricated, which can reduce pain and stiffness. Additionally, losing weight helps reduce the amount of strain put on the joints which contributes to cartilage breakdown, as well as reducing the amount of inflammation-causing proteins.

Research activity: Research examples of different types of joint support device. Find out how they work, their benefits, and how they can help manage osteoarthritis symptoms.



Rheumatoid arthritis – an autoimmune condition that causes inflammation in the joints, leading to pain and swelling.

Gout – a condition caused by the buildup of uric acid crystals in the joints, leading to pain and swelling.

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Impact on the individual

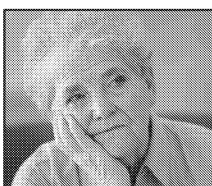
Living with osteoarthritis can be significantly debilitating, making everyday tasks of this, it can impact physical, intellectual, emotional and social dimensions.

Physical	The physical symptoms that accompany this condition, such as pain and stiffness, can make physical tasks (walking, lifting objects, climbing stairs) difficult to perform.
Intellectual	Chronic joint pain and the physical discomfort of this condition may impact cognitive functions such as concentration, decision-making and problem-solving. As a result, performance in all aspects of someone's life, from work to family life, may be affected.
Emotional	Living with this condition may cause feelings of hopelessness, frustration and depression. Due to the physical limitations it can place on daily activities. Additionally, the chronic pain increases the risk of anxiety and depression, especially when it interferes with independence.
Social	The physical limitations caused by osteoarthritis may prevent individuals from participating in social activities, especially if they involve physical movement. This can lead to isolation, loneliness, and place strain on relationships.



Case study

Anne, 75, has osteoarthritis and has been experiencing increased joint pain and inflammation. These symptoms have limited her ability to engage in her favourite activities, such as cooking and visiting her neighbour for afternoon lunch. She has tried reading and doing crosswords to pass the time, but struggles to concentrate due to the pain. As a result, she feels frustrated, lonely and depressed.



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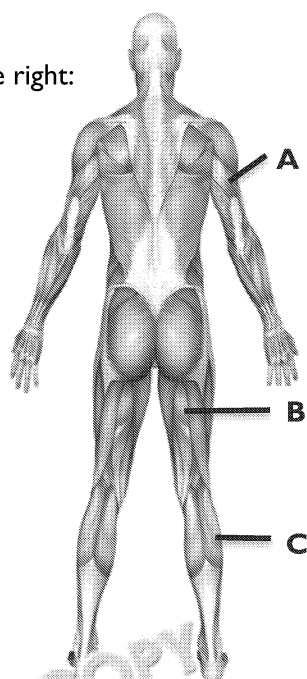
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Chapter 4: Questions (4.1–4.3)

Checking my understanding:

1. What is the appendicular skeleton responsible for? Select **all** that apply.
A) Locomotion
B) Protection
C) Movement
D) Posture
2. State the function of osteoblasts.
3. Which synovial joint allows movement in all directions?
A) Condylod
B) Pivot
C) Ball-and-socket
D) Gliding
4. State **one** way carpal tunnel syndrome can be diagnosed and monitored.
Which of the following is a risk factor for osteoarthritis? Select **all** that apply.
A) Gout
B) Obesity
C) Family history
D) Hormonal imbalance
5. Identify the muscles in the diagram on the right:



6. Give **three** types of bone structure.

Developing understanding/skills:

7. Complete the sentences below which describe what carpal tunnel syndrome is.

Carpal tunnel syndrome is a condition that occurs when the **A)** _____ becomes inflamed as it passes through the carpal tunnel in the wrist. This compression prevents the **B)** _____ from sending proper signals, which can cause **D)** _____, tingling and weakness.

8. Jamie has osteoarthritis in his knee. His doctor has suggested he should engage in regular physical activity and use joint support devices to help manage his condition.

Explain why the doctor has recommended physical activity and joint support devices.

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Chapter 5: Control and regulatory

The body is a very complicated structure with different body systems that need to interact with each other and adapt to changing internal and external conditions. Coordination is carried out by the nervous system. The nervous system carries out a lot of unconscious processes such as maintaining body temperature, adapting breathing rate as needed, and deciphering messages from sensory cells to give you the perception of sight. It also is responsible for all conscious thoughts and decisions.

It consists of nervous tissue including different types of neurons and their connections. It is important to understand how it works in order to be able to diagnose and treat disorders of the nervous system, such as ischaemic stroke and type 2 diabetes.

5.1: The nervous system

The nervous system is the body's command centre. It processes information, sends responses that allow us to interact with the world around us. Understanding the nervous system, as well as the role of the brain and neurons, is essential for understanding many health conditions.

Components of the nervous system

The central nervous system

The central nervous system (CNS) consists of the brain and spinal cord. It is where all the coordination takes place. Both receive information from sensory neurons. This information is processed by the central nervous system. If action is needed, instructions are sent to effectors (muscles or glands) by motor neurons. Most processing occurs in the brain, but the spinal cord can make smaller decisions without referring to the brain.

One example is a reflex reaction. For example, if your hand touches something very hot, sensory neurons send this information to the spinal cord which triggers your arm muscles to move your hand out of the way. This reaction occurs before the brain has time to process the information, saving time and protecting the arm from harm.

Research activity: Research the structure of the brain and make a list of the different sections. What processes is each section responsible for?

The peripheral nervous system

The peripheral nervous system consists of all parts of the nervous system that are not in the brain or spinal cord. It is mostly made up of neurons carrying both sensory and motor signals. Sensory neurons carry signals from receptors such as touch receptors in the skin. Motor neurons carry signals from the brain to organs and muscles. The peripheral nervous system includes all the sensory and motor neurons that are bundled together to form nerves.

Ganglia are also part of the peripheral nervous system. Ganglia are swellings in the nerve fibres that are found close to the spinal cord but are still part of the peripheral nervous system. They are where all the cell bodies of the neurons that make up the nerve collect. As there are two main types of neurons, there are also two main types of ganglia. One type of ganglion contains the cell bodies (soma) of sensory neurons, and the other contains the soma of motor neurons. The sensory ganglia are part of the peripheral nervous system whereas the motor ganglia are part of the central nervous system.

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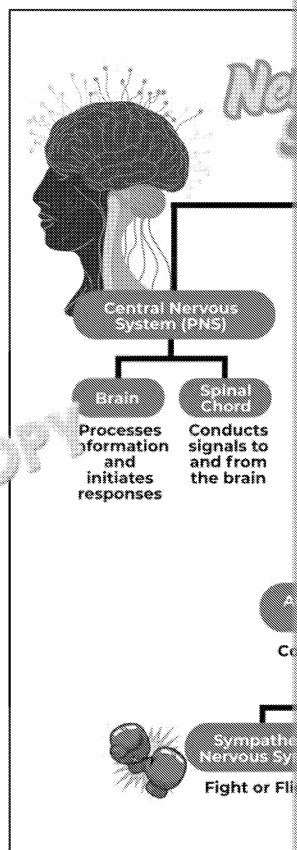
The autonomic nervous system

The autonomic nervous system controls involuntary functions of the body. These are the functions that keep us alive and keep our internal environment balanced – a process known as homeostasis. Examples of functions controlled by the autonomic nervous system include heart rate and breathing rate, digestion, secretion of hormones from glands, and automatic response to external stimuli. The part of the nervous system which controls voluntary actions, such as deciding to walk across the room, is known as the somatic nervous system.

The autonomic nervous system consists of sensory and motor neurons. Information about the internal environment is sent to the CNS along sensory neurons. Information about muscles and glands in response to changes in the internal environment are sent along motor neurons from the CNS to muscles or glands. The autonomic nervous system can be divided into two branches:

1. **The sympathetic nervous system** prepares the body for action.
2. **The parasympathetic nervous system** restores the body to its normal state after action has taken place.

As you can see from the table below, preparing the body for action means **inhibiting** the digestive system. This is because digestion requires energy that could be used for the action. The parasympathetic nervous system brings things back to normal after action.



Exam tip

Remember the **parasympathetic** nervous system sounds a bit like a **parachute** which slows you down while you fall out of the sky, and the parasympathetic nervous system slows your body down after action.

Exam tip

Remember the **sympathetic** nervous system as it increases the rate of digestion, and the sympathetic nervous system increases digestion.

Sympathetic nervous system	Parasympathetic nervous system
Increases heart rate	Reduces heart rate
Increases breathing rate	Reduces breathing rate
Dilates pupils of the eye	Contracts pupils of the eye
Dilates airways of the lungs	Constricts airways of the lungs
Slows down digestion	Stimulated digestive system

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The brain

The brain is the control centre of the nervous system, connecting with the spinal cord to form the central nervous system. The brain controls everything we do, from our physical functions, such as memory and emotion, to maintaining homeostasis, such as regulating body temperature. Understanding the structure and function of the brain is crucial for comprehending how the nervous system works as a whole.

Applied activity: Test your autonomic immune system. Rest for a few minutes and record your heart rate and breathing rate. Now do some physical activity such as running on the spot for 1 minute and record your heart rate and breathing rate every minute until both return to the level they were before. Which points of the process was the sympathetic nervous system sending messages to? Which points was the parasympathetic nervous system in control. Explain your answer. Did some people react differently? Can you explain why?

Different parts of the brain have specialised roles, and they all work together to ensure the body functions properly. Examples include:

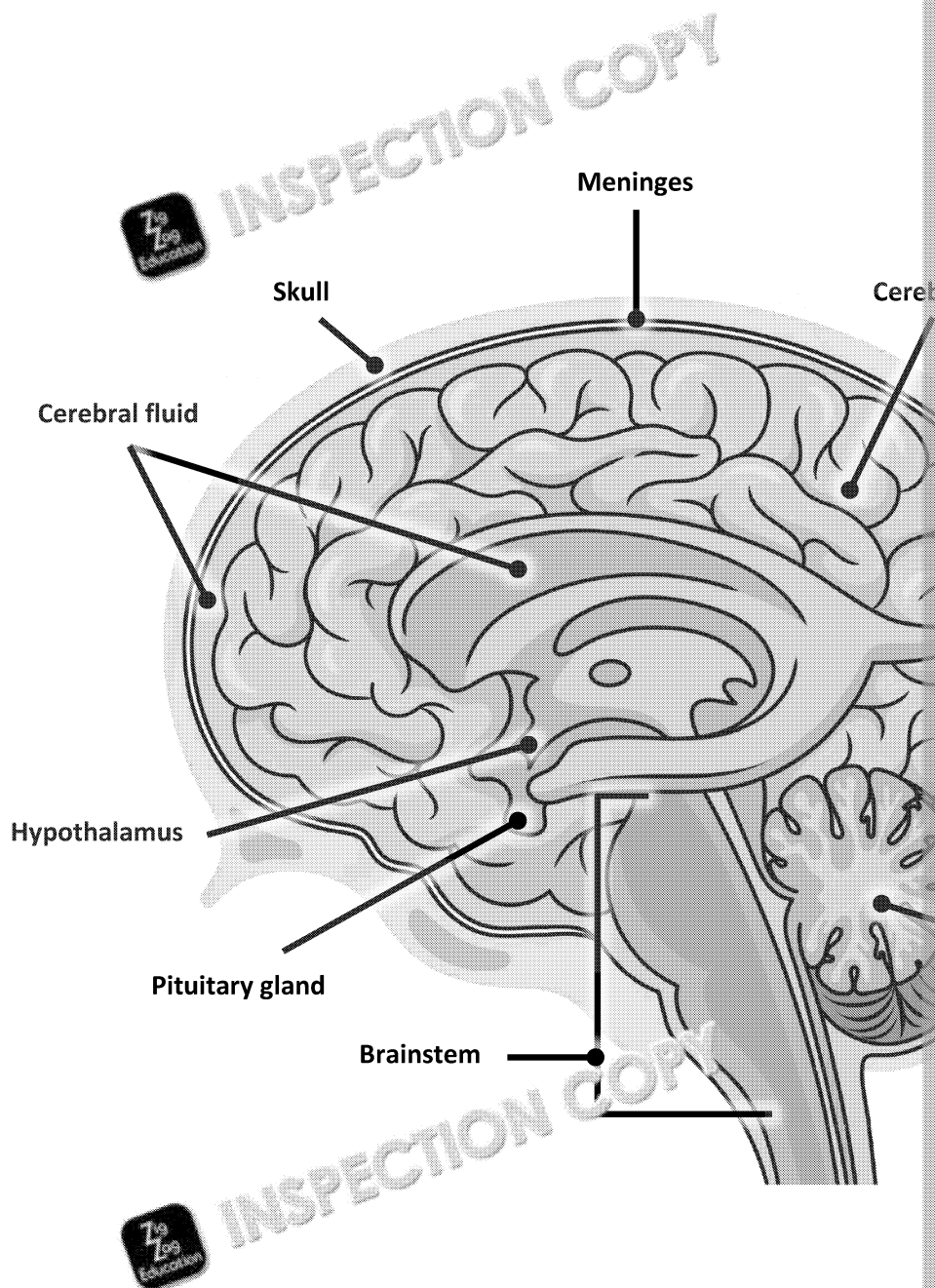
	Location	
Cerebral cortex	Outermost layer of the brain	Also known as the cerebrum, it is responsible for higher-level functions such as sensory processing, memory, emotion, and decision making.
<div>  <p>Sensory processing – the way the brain receives, interprets and responds to information from the senses (sight, sound, touch, taste and smell).</p> <p>Emotion regulation – ability to manage and control emotions.</p> </div>		
Cerebellum	Back of the brain, near the brainstem	Responsible for balance, as well as fine-tuning motor movements.
Brainstem	Bottom of the brain, connecting the brain to the spinal cord	Regulates essential functions such as heart rate, breathing, and plays a role in motor coordination and arousal.
<div> <p>Did you know? Damage to the brain stem can be life-threatening. If it stops functioning permanently, a person is legally dead in the UK.</p> </div>		
Meninges	Protective layers around the brain and spinal cord	Act as a shock absorber for the nervous system.
Cerebral fluid	Fills the ventricles of the brain and the space between the meninges, surrounding and protecting the brain and spinal cord.	Fluid that cushions the brain and removes waste.
Pituitary gland	Pea-sized gland located at the base of the brain below the hypothalamus (just behind your nose).	Known as the 'master gland', it controls many body functions, including the stress response.

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The role of the hypothalamus

Both the nervous system and the endocrine system are responsible for controlling unconscious or automatic processes in the body. The hypothalamus is a structure in the brain and is the link between the central nervous system and the endocrine system. The hypothalamus is part of the central nervous system and so receives information from sensory neurons and can control body functions by sending signals to muscles and glands via motor neurons. The hypothalamus also releases hormones in response to stimulation from the sensory neurons. These hormones usually stimulate other glands, usually the pituitary gland, to release their own hormones. It can also stimulate the pituitary gland directly via nerve impulses. The hypothalamus is the main area where homeostasis is controlled.



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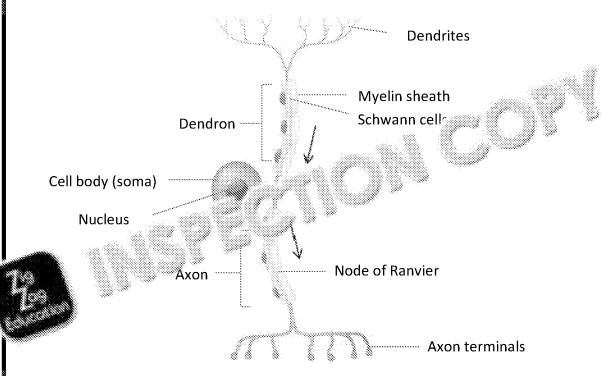


Neuron

Nervous tissue consists of specialised cells and falls into two groups – **neurons**, which carry messages, and **neuroglia**, which support the neurons.

Structure of neurons

The two main types of neuron are sensory neurons and motor neurons, as detailed below.

Sensory neuron	
	
Features	<p>A sensory neuron has a long process known as a dendron which extends from the sensory cell to the cell body (soma) which is located just outside the spinal cord. The soma contains the nucleus, which controls cell functions and maintains the neuron's activity. The sensory neuron has a short axon which carries impulses into the spinal cord; here, these impulses can either be transmitted to an interneuron, which relays the information to a motor neuron, or they can directly synapse with a motor neuron. Both the dendron and the axon are protected with a myelin sheath which consists of special cells known as Schwann cells. The myelin sheath increases the speed of impulse transmission by allowing the signal to jump between small gaps called nodes of Ranvier.</p>
Function	<p>To carry nerve impulses from a sensory cell or organ to the central nervous system (brain or spinal cord). For example, they carry information from a touch sensor in your finger to your brain, allowing you to feel what you are touching.</p>

Neuroglia are sometimes called glia or glial cells. There are several types, all supporting the neurons. There are about 10 times more neuroglia than there are neurons. Neuroglia support neurons in several ways:

- Provide nutrients and oxygen to the neurons
- Help maintain the internal environment of the neurons to ensure they continue to function
- Protect the neurons by destroying **pathogens**
- Provide structure
- Include the cells that make up the myelin sheath that surrounds the axons of neurons, which speeds up the nerve impulse

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Axon – long process of a neuron which carries nerve impulses away from the cell body.

Central nervous system (CNS) – the part of the nervous system consisting of the brain and spinal cord.

Dendrites – tiny branches of a neuron which carry nerve impulses towards the cell body.

Dendron – long process of a neuron which carries nerve impulses towards the cell body.

Myelin sheath – protective coating which surrounds some axons and dendrons on the CNS.

Nerve impulse – electrical signal which travels along a neuron.

Neuroglia – specialised nervous tissue cells which support neurons.

Neuron – specialised cell that can carry messages in the form of electrical impulses.

Pathogens – microscopic organisms which can cause diseases, including viruses, bacteria and fungi.

Spinal cord – bundle of nerve cells which runs through the vertebral column (backbone) and is part of the central nervous system.

Nerve action

Nerve action refers to the transmission of electrical impulses along neurons and the synapse. This occurs across synapses, allowing signals to travel between different parts of the body's messaging system, delivering signals for sensation, movement and reflexes. This process involves several components, each with a specific function:

1. Stimulation and action potential

When a neuron is stimulated (e.g. by a sensory receptor or another neuron), an action potential is generated. This is an electrical impulse caused by a rapid change in electrical charge across the axon membrane—a process known as depolarisation.

2. Impulse travels along the axon

The action potential travels along the neuron's axon, jumping between the nodes of Ranvier (gaps in the myelin sheath) in a process called saltatory conduction, which increases the speed of transmission.

3. Arrival at the synaptic knob

When the impulse reaches the synaptic knob (the swollen end of the axon terminal), it triggers the opening of calcium channels, allowing calcium ions to enter the neuron.

4. Release of neurotransmitters

The influx of calcium causes neurotransmitters—chemical messengers stored in vesicles—to be released into the synaptic cleft (the gap within the synapse).

5. Crossing the synapse

The neurotransmitters diffuse across the synaptic cleft and bind to specific receptors on the membrane of the next neuron or target muscle/gland).

6. Response in the next cell

Once the receptors are activated:

- If the signal is excitatory, it may trigger a new action potential in the next neuron.
- If it's inhibitory, it may prevent the next neuron from firing.

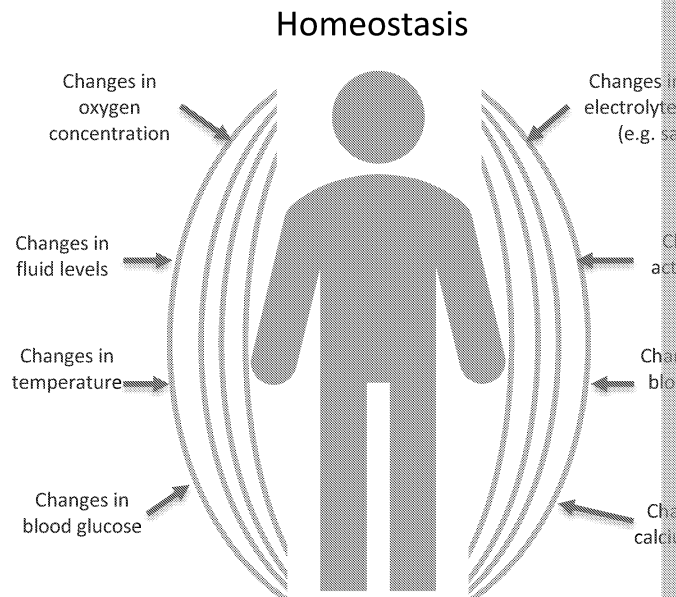
Applied activity: Identify the similarities and differences in structure and function between a sensory neuron and a motor neuron.

5.2: Homeostasis

Throughout the day our bodies are exposed to different environmental conditions such as changes in temperature. Despite these external changes, we can keep our body temperature in the range of 36.4 °C to 37.6 °C. As we eat and drink and undertake activities, our internal environment also changes.

We lose water through sweat, and drink fluids to replace it, leading to potentially large **fluctuations** in blood fluid levels. We go through periods of activity where we use energy from the glucose circulating in the blood; at other times we eat, leading to spikes in blood sugar levels.

Our bodies can manage these changes to reduce the impact of such large fluctuations in the chemistry of our blood. The mechanisms used to maintain our internal environment and counteract these changes are known as homeostasis.



What is homeostasis?

Homeostasis is the process by which the body maintains its internal environment despite external changes. This is important to ensure that the cells of the body are in the best environment for them. If the body's environment is not controlled, it can affect enzymes which are very sensitive to changes in either temperature or pH. There are many different processes which make up homeostasis, including maintenance of body temperature, blood pH, blood glucose levels and body fluid.

Homeostasis is the process by which the body maintains its internal environment despite external changes.

Homeostasis mechanisms

Homeostasis involves complex control mechanisms which we do not have any control over. Homeostasis often requires both the nervous and **endocrine** systems. If these mechanisms fail, it leads to various disorders, e.g. diabetes.



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Negative feedback mechanism

A negative feedback mechanism is the process by which the body works to counteract a change that has occurred in the internal environment, or internal **variables**, of the body. In other words, it brings the body back to a normal state, or a state of **equilibrium** after some kind of internal change. For example, if you go outside on a cold winter's day, your body will start to cool down, causing an internal variable like body temperature to drop. This would be extremely dangerous as a body temperature of 35 °C and below is classed as **hypothermia** and can lead to organ malfunction and death. Your body automatically stimulates a negative feedback mechanism to counteract this loss of heat to maintain your internal **core body temperature** at around 37 °C.

Another example is during and after exercise where you will have sweated to cool down, leading to reduction in fluid levels, which is another variable the body must regulate. Negative feedback mechanisms work to hold on to as much fluid as possible by reducing urine production.

Negative feedback mechanisms require three main components:

1. **Receptors** – these sense changes in the body's variables, e.g. thermoreceptors detect changes in internal body temperature.
2. **Coordinator** – also known as the control centre, usually located in a specific part of the brain. The coordinator receives information from different receptors and controls and coordinates the regulatory mechanism to counteract the changes in variables.
3. **Effectors** – these are parts of the body which act to bring about a change. They can be muscles or glands which release substances including sweat or hormones.

Example

You can see how a negative feedback mechanism works in the central nervous system. If you are too cold, the brain sends signals to the control centre (the brain) which then sends signals on to the effectors.

Optimum point – the value where the body works best. In homeostasis it is the equilibrium that homeostasis is working to return to.

When receptors detect a specific change in the internal environment, such as a reduction in body temperature, they send nerve impulses to the associated control centre in the brain. The control centre then sends a response and sends impulses down motor neurons to the effectors (muscles and glands) to counteract the change. Once the body has returned to its optimum point, the receptors will stop sending signals to the control centre which will stop sending signals to the effectors. This mechanism prevents the system from overcompensating.

Applied activity: Simulate your own negative feedback mechanism. The challenge is to maintain your core body temperature around 37 °C.

To prepare – you will need ice and access to hot (but not boiling) water and a thermometer. Fill a 500 ml measuring beaker with water and heat it until it is at around 37 °C.

You will be divided into groups of three and given the following roles:

1. **Receptor** – this person measures the temperature of the water and tells the coordinator if it is 5 °C above or 3 °C below the optimum point. They can also tell the control centre if the water is getting too hot or cold.
2. **Control centre (Coordinator)** – this person decides how to return the water to its optimum point. They give instructions to the effector. They can tell them whether to add ice or hot water, or to pour off some water. They can also instruct the effector to pour off some water in the beaker if it is getting too hot.
3. **Effector** – this person carries out the instructions of the control centre and can add ice or hot water to the water bath to maintain its temperature. They are not allowed to measure the temperature of the water.

The receptor and the effector should not communicate directly with each other in order to maintain the temperature of the water?

Research activity: Find out what the normal ranges are of the following variables: resting breathing rate while resting; resting heart rate; blood glucose level; pH of blood.

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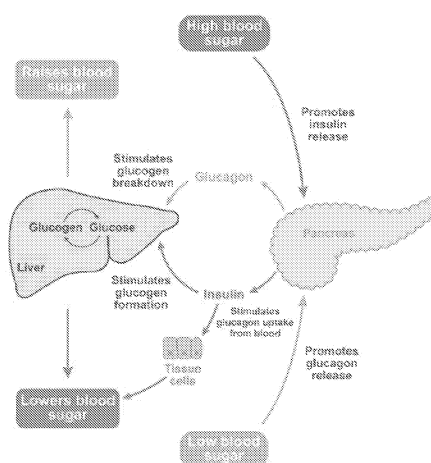
Control and regulation of blood glucose

Glucose enters the body as carbohydrates that we eat such as starch and sugary food. Glucose is transported in the blood from the intestines to all the cells. Low blood glucose (blood sugar) levels can be dangerous as cells are not able to make energy when needed. High blood glucose levels can damage blood vessels. It is very important that blood glucose levels are maintained within an optimal range.

The negative feedback control mechanism for blood glucose levels is as follows:

- Optimal range – according to Diabetes UK: 4–5.4 mmol/L when fasting, up to 7.8 mmol/L two hours after eating.
- Receptors – alpha and beta cells found in the islets of Langerhans in the **pancreas**.
- Coordinator – alpha and beta cells in the pancreas also act as coordinators.
- Effectors – alpha cells which release the hormone glucagon and beta cells which release the hormone insulin.

Blood glucose control is a balance between the actions of two hormones: glucagon and insulin. Glucagon acts to increase blood glucose when it drops below the optimal range. Insulin acts to lower blood glucose when it rises above the optimal range. These changes in blood glucose levels are detected by the alpha and beta cells in the pancreas which also release the hormones that act as effectors.



After a meal the blood glucose levels will begin to rise as glucose has entered the blood. Insulin will be released from the beta cells to counteract this change and bring blood glucose levels back down to the optimal range. After periods of activity or after periods of fasting, blood glucose levels will drop. Glucagon will be released from the alpha cells to counteract this change and raise blood glucose levels back up to the optimal range.

Exam tip

Remember the definitions of glucagon and glycogen very carefully as they are often confused.

Action of glucagon

- Glucagon is a hormone which is released from the alpha cells in the pancreas. It causes the liver and muscles to convert a carbohydrate, called glycogen, into glucose and release it into the blood.
- Stimulates the liver and muscles to take glucose from other molecules such as amino acids.

Action of insulin

- Insulin is a hormone which is released by the beta cells in the pancreas. It lowers blood glucose levels by:
- Causing the liver and muscles to convert excess glucose into glycogen and store it.
- Causing excess glucose to be converted into fat for storage.
- Enabling cells to absorb glucose from the blood. Glucose cannot diffuse through the cell membrane; it must enter via gates. The insulin causes the gates to open.

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Applied activity: For each of the following situations, state which of the two hormones most likely to be circulating in your blood and what is happening to the chemistry of your answers.

Situation	Insulin or glucagon released?	Can glucose get into the cells?	Is glycogen made or broken down?
Waking up after a long sleep			
30 minutes after eating a slice of cheese			
20 minutes after eating a bar of chocolate			
90 minutes after eating a balanced meal			
Mid-day Ramadan			

Control and regulation of water levels – osmoregulation

Osmoregulation is the control of body fluid levels. Water enters the body from food and drink. Some water is also produced as a waste product of cellular respiration and other reactions. Water leaves the body in the urine, through sweating, exhaling and evaporation from the skin. It forms an important part of blood and other body fluids and most of the cytoplasm of the cells. So, it is important that fluid levels are balanced.

Did you know?
Health professionals measure body fluid levels in litres per day. The average amount of fluid in the body includes about 40 litres.

Water levels are balanced by controlling the amount of water that is lost as urine from the kidneys or drinking to replace fluids.

Drinking a lot of water results in large quantities of dilute urine which will be pale yellow in colour. This is because excess water is allowed to pass into the urine from the blood. Sweating a lot or not drinking enough results in small quantities of concentrated urine which can be dark yellow, orange or even brown in colour. It is important to be able to regulate your body fluid levels for all the organs and tissues to function properly.

After the kidneys filter the blood, the urine is stored temporarily in the bladder until it is excreted from the body. When you are well-hydrated, the bladder stores larger volumes of dilute urine, and when you are dehydrated, the bladder stores more concentrated urine.

The negative feedback mechanism for osmoregulation is as follows:

- **Receptors** – osmoreceptors in the hypothalamus in the brain.
- **Coordinator** – hypothalamus of the brain.
- **Effectors** – antidiuretic hormone (ADH), also known as vasopressin, is released and acts on the kidneys.

Pituitary gland – the brain's master gland, which controls different parts of the body.

Nephron – the basic unit of the kidney. It filters blood and removes waste from the body.

Reabsorption – the process by which substances that have been removed from the blood are absorbed back into the blood.

Urea – a waste product of protein metabolism. It is removed from the blood by the kidneys.

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The function of the kidneys is to filter out waste chemicals from the blood and to substances found in the blood plasma are filtered out into the kidney tubules (nephrons). Nutrients, are **reabsorbed** back into the blood. Waste products like **urea**, excess water, pass through the nephron and will become urine. When ADH is not circulating in the blood, the kidneys do not reabsorb water so water leaves the body in the urine. However, when ADH has been released, the kidneys reabsorb water from the kidney tubules and back into the blood.

In summary, when body fluid levels are high, fluid is automatically lost in the urine. On the other hand, when an individual is dehydrated, ADH is released from the pituitary gland and the kidneys are stimulated to reabsorb the water from the kidney tubules. The result is lower volumes of, and more concentrated urine, keeping water in the body to avoid unnecessary loss of fluids.

Exam tip

Diuretics are substances that pass urine more easily. Remember the effect of the hormone (ADH) as it reduces the amount of water lost in the urine.

Case study

Oliver has been diagnosed with **diabetes insipidus** (a condition which leads to a lack of ADH). Symptoms include increased thirst and production of a lot of urine. People with **diabetes mellitus** (a condition which leads to a lack of insulin or inability to respond to insulin) also produce a lot of urine. This is why it is called diabetes. Diabetes insipidus has nothing to do with blood glucose or insulin but it is still part of the endocrine system.

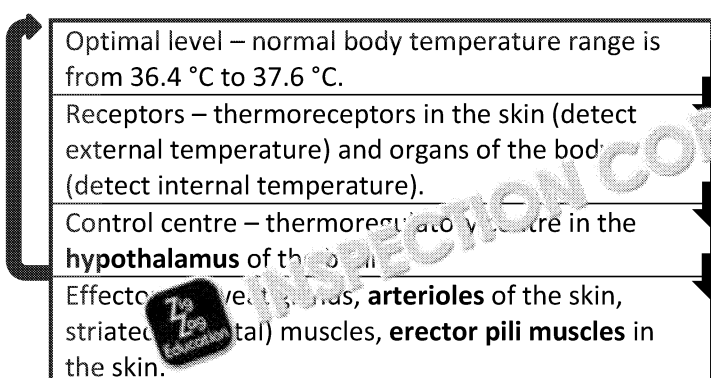
Research activity: Find out how the following affect the amount of urine you produce.

- Drinking a caffeinated drink, e.g. coffee
- Eating salty food
- Hot weather
- Blood loss after an accident
- Taking a diuretic medication, e.g. furosemide

Control and regulation of body temperature – thermoregulation

Thermoregulation is the control and regulation of body temperature despite changes in external temperature.

The negative feedback loop consists of the following:



Hypothalamus – which is responsible for homeostatic control with the endocrine system.

Arteriole – small, less elastic tissue arteries. Constrict or dilate to control blood flow to an area.

Erector pili – muscles at the base of hairs. When contracted, the hair is pulled up.

The actual response depends on whether the internal temperature has started to rise or fall.

Applied activity: Draw a diagram showing the changes that occur in your body when it is too cold to bring you back to the optimal level.

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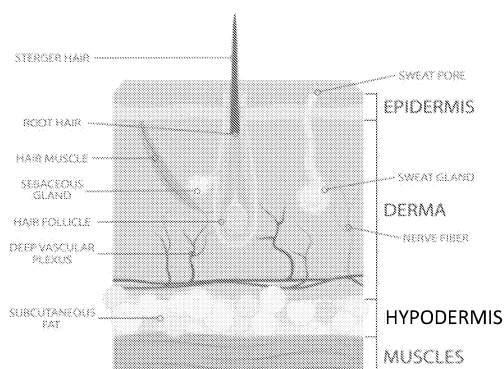


Body temperature falling below optimal level	Body temperature rising above optimal level
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shivering – small movements of the muscles generate heat by friction and due to metabolism as the increased need for energy to shiver generates heat as a side effect. • Vasoconstriction – the arterioles in the surface of the skin constrict causing the lumen of these blood vessels to narrow. This leads to less blood getting to the surface of the body so the heat the blood contains stays at the core of the body, keeping vital organs at the correct temperature. Capillaries also play a role in this process by limiting heat exchange when vasoconstriction occurs. Because capillaries are in the surface of the skin, restricting blood flow through them reduces the amount of heat that can escape the body, helping to conserve heat. • Contraction of erector pili muscles – causes the hairs in your skin to stand up and trap air, which acts as an insulator. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sweating – sweat is produced by sweat glands which moves to the surface where it can evaporate. The water evaporates, taking heat with it, cooling the skin from the inside. • Vasodilation – the arterioles in the skin dilate (get wider) allowing more blood to flow to the surface. More blood at the surface means more heat can be lost to the surrounding air. • Relaxation of the erector pili muscles – causes the hairs to lie flat on the skin, allowing more heat to be lost.

Exam tip

To remember the difference between the terms constrict and dilate, think of the boa constrictor around its prey. You can also think of a midwife reporting how far dilated a woman is when giving birth – how much the cervix has widened.

THE STRUCTURE OF THE SKIN



Research activity: Research the effects of body temperature on the body. What happens when body temperature falls too far below or rises too far above it. Which groups of people are most likely to be at risk of either of these conditions?

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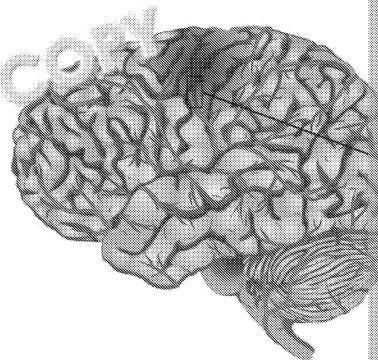
5.3: Conditions of the control and regulatory systems

Conditions that affect the control and regulatory systems, such as ischaemic stroke, can affect the body's ability to function normally and maintain homeostasis. Common symptoms include motor function and vision problems, to fatigue and loss of consciousness. This section looks at these conditions in more detail, including what can make them more likely and how to control them.

Ischaemic stroke

Overview and causes

An ischaemic stroke is caused by a blood clot blocking a blood vessel in the brain. The blood clot might have formed elsewhere in the body but has been carried to the brain in the blood. Ischaemic strokes are the most common type of stroke. The effects can be permanent or it can be temporary, lasting from five minutes to 24 hours before it breaks down or moves away. Temporary blood clots in the brain are known as transient ischaemic attacks (TIAs) and are the main cause of vascular dementia.



When a blood clot restricts blood flow to the brain, it decreases the delivery of oxygen to brain cells. Brain tissue deprived of oxygen becomes damaged, leading to death of brain cells. This disrupts the brain's ability to control various essential body functions, from movement to speech and cognition.

Main signs and symptoms:

- Face dropping
- Weakness in the arms
- Slurred speech
- Headache
- Blurred vision
- Loss of consciousness

Did you know?
NHSS.uk
isch

Exam tip

One way to remember the symptoms is the F.A.R.S.T. acronym.
Face – is the face drooping?
Arms – is one arm weak or numb?
Speech – is speech slurred?
Time – Time to call 999

Diagnosis and monitoring



An ischaemic stroke can be incredibly dangerous and life-threatening. Therefore, diagnosis and monitoring it regularly are key to better treatment outcomes and the possibility of recovery. Several methods are used for diagnosis and monitoring, including:

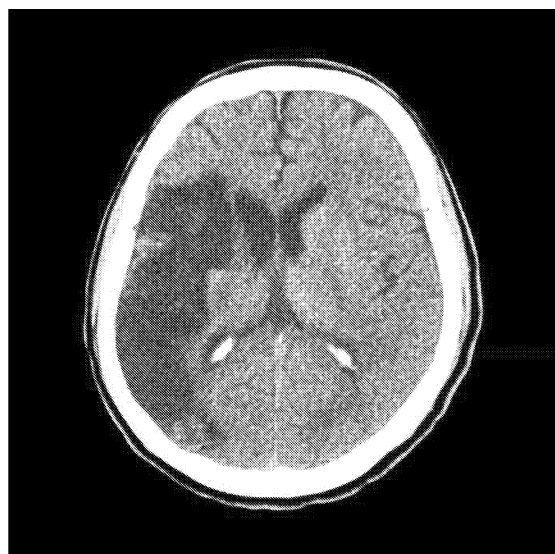
Method	How it is used	Notes
Physical examination	A healthcare professional carries out a physical examination, using several tests, such as listening to the heart, checking blood pressure and performing a neurological assessment to evaluate how a stroke may be impacting the nervous system. This can help determine the possible cause of the stroke.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If a stroke is suspected, a physical examination is carried out. • Tests such as blood pressure, heart rate and reflexes are checked. • A neurological assessment is also carried out.
Neurological assessment – a comprehensive evaluation of a person's nervous system function. It assesses factors such as mental status (someone's cognitive, emotional and behavioural state), motor and sensory function, and reflexes.		

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Method	How it's used	
Blood test	A blood test can be used to check red blood cell and platelet levels, along with blood sugar, to check whether they are within a healthy range. These tests can help confirm if someone has had an ischaemic stroke and assess which medications may be used for treatment.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • • •
MRI scan	<p>An MRI scan uses a strong magnetic field and radio waves to create detailed images of the brain. In some cases, a dye is injected into a blood vessel to help visualise blood flow, arteries and veins in the brain. This can help identify damage to brain tissue caused by an ischaemic stroke as well as brain haemorrhage.</p> <div>  <div> <p>Brain haemorrhage – type of stroke caused by bleeding in or around the brain. It happens when a blood vessel in the brain bursts, leading to bleeding that damages brain cells.</p>  </div> </div>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • •



Exam tip

You may be asked to identify scans showing signs of a stroke.

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Treatments

Treatment for ischaemic stroke is all about time. The sooner treatment is given after symptoms appear, the better the chances of recovery. Treatment not only saves lives but it also helps to prevent further damage to the brain, improve recovery and lower the risk of long-term disability.

		How it works	Benefits	
Surgical treatments	Thrombectomy	Surgical procedure which involves inserting a catheter (a thin, flexible tube) into an artery in the groin or the wrist to remove a blood clot, helping to restore normal blood flow to the brain.	✓ Removes large blood clots that can't be treated by thrombolysis alone	X
			✓ Minimally invasive	X
			Helps minimise damage to the brain and reduce the risk of permanent disability	X
				X

		How it works	Benefits	
Non-surgical treatments	Thrombolysis	Medication that works by dissolving blood clots which helps to restore normal blood flow to the brain.	✓ Significantly improves chances of recovery if administered early (3–4 hours after stroke symptoms) by minimising brain tissue damage	X
			✓ Quick to administer	X
			✓ Non-invasive	X
				X

Factors increasing likelihood of condition

Certain factors can increase the risk of an ischaemic stroke, many of which are linked to the formation of blood clots that can block blood flow to the brain.

- **Obesity** – being obese can increase the risk of ischaemic stroke because it increases the amount of excess fatty tissue, which can cause inflammation. Inflammation can restrict blood flow and increase the risk of a blockage in a blood vessel in or leading to the brain.
- **High fat and/or salt diet** – a diet high in saturated fats can increase the amount of 'bad' cholesterol in your blood (LDL), which can result in clogged arteries, leading to a blood clot. Additionally, a diet high in salt can increase the risk of an ischaemic stroke by increasing blood pressure. High blood pressure can increase the risk of blood clot formation leading to the brain.

Did you know? Having a diet high in LDL cholesterol can increase the risk of stroke. [zzed.uk/12929-Cholesterol](https://www.nhs.uk/12929-Cholesterol)

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² NHS <https://www.nhs.uk/CMS-Documents/Patient-leaflets/StrokeUnit/6484-1-Thrombolysis>

- **Smoking** – tobacco contains many harmful, carcinogenic (cancer-causing) chemicals. When these enter the bloodstream, they can alter and damage cells in the body. Not only does smoking raise blood pressure and raise LDL levels in the blood, but it also contributes to the narrowing of arteries and promotes the formation of blood clots. These factors together increase the risk of ischaemic stroke.
- **Diabetes** – individuals with diabetes are more at risk of ischaemic stroke because their bodies don't handle glucose properly. In diabetes, either the body doesn't produce enough insulin or it doesn't use it properly, which can cause too much glucose to build up in the blood. Over time, this can lead to fat build-up or blood clots in the blood vessels, which can block blood flow to the brain, causing an ischaemic stroke.
- **Stress** – high levels of stress can make the heart work harder, increase the amount of cholesterol in the blood and contribute to high blood pressure. These factors combined with the narrowing of arteries which block blood flow to the brain.
- **Hypertension (high blood pressure)** – having high blood pressure can damage the arteries, making them stiff and narrow. This can lead to atherosclerosis (build-up of fat) in the arteries, increasing the risk of clot formation.

Control and prevention

Control and prevention of ischaemic stroke involves adopting a combination of measures that work together to help reduce risk factors and prevent further complications.

Medication:

- **Statins** – these are medicines which help decrease LDL cholesterol in the blood. Doing so helps control and prevent the risks associated with high levels of this bad cholesterol, such as clogged arteries, which can lead to blood clots.
- **Anticoagulants** – medication that breaks down and prevents the formation of blood clots, helping to prevent a stroke from happening again.
- **Beta blockers** – this medication is most commonly used for heart conditions and helps to reduce blood pressure. Doing so helps to prevent damage to blood vessels caused by high blood pressure, which can reduce the risk of atherosclerosis and blood clots.

Lifestyle changes:

- **Lose weight** – losing weight helps to reduce fatty tissue, which can cause inflammation. This helps widen the blood vessels and improve blood flow.
- **Reduce fat and/or salt in diet** – adopting a healthy diet that is low in fat and cholesterol in the blood and reduce blood pressure. In turn, this helps to prevent the formation of blood clots, lowering the likelihood of ischaemic stroke.
- **Stop smoking** – quitting smoking can help to prevent any further damage to the arteries. Smoking causes the blood vessels to narrow and form blood clots. Additionally, giving up smoking helps to reduce blood pressure and reduce LDL cholesterol levels, further decreasing the associated risk of stroke.
- **Reduce stress** – reducing stress helps to reduce the strain on the heart, lower cholesterol levels in the blood, and lower blood pressure. Together, these factors help to prevent the formation of blood clots by reducing inflammation and damage to blood vessels.
- **Regular exercise** – physical activity not only helps to maintain a healthy weight, reducing excess fatty tissues, but also helps to reduce high blood pressure and high LDL cholesterol levels. By exercising regularly, this helps reduce the risk of blood clot formation by reducing inflammation and preventing the build-up of plaque in the arteries.

Did you know?
Just 30 minutes, five times a week can reduce the risk of a stroke.
🌐 zzed.uk/

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Impact on the individual

Experiencing an ischaemic stroke can significantly shape someone's life. From its potential to cause long-term disability, this condition can impact someone's physical and social dimensions.

Physical	Depending on the severity, ischaemic stroke can result in a range of physical impairments, such as weakness, difficulty speaking, and challenges with movement. These can impact someone's daily activities and basic needs, such as eating, drinking, and personal hygiene.
Intellectual	Ischaemic stroke can significantly impact cognitive function, such as memory, reasoning, and concentration, and cause confusion. Some individuals may experience difficulty understanding or expressing language, a condition known as aphasia. This could make it incredibly hard for someone to engage in work, education, or social activities.
Emotional	Experiencing an ischaemic stroke can be incredibly distressing. It can lead to feelings of depression, anxiety and frustration, especially if the stroke leads to significant physical or cognitive disabilities. Individuals may also experience grief over the loss of their previous abilities and for those recovering strokes.
Social	An individual who has experienced an ischaemic stroke may struggle to participate in social activities due to challenges with communication and physical impairments. Additionally, individuals with more severe disabilities may become dependent on others for daily functioning, which can lead to isolation and put strain on their caregivers.

Research activity: Research how ischaemic stroke can impact the body and discuss how these factors could impact someone in relation to PIES.

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Type 2 diabetes

Overview and causes

Type 2 diabetes is caused by either the body not making enough insulin or the insulin not working properly, or a combination of the two. This occurs when the insulin receptors in the body's cells stop responding effectively to insulin, which is known as **insulin resistance**. Remember that insulin lowers blood sugar. One of the ways it does this is by acting like a key to unlock the cells, allowing glucose to enter them. Having insulin resistance is a bit like changing the locks on the cells so the key (insulin) no longer works to allow glucose to enter the cells, which prevents glucose from being taken up properly, even when there is enough insulin in the blood. Over time, the pancreas becomes damaged as a result of this and stops producing insulin.

Insulin resistance is when the body does not respond to insulin as it should, even if there is enough insulin produced.



Main signs and symptoms

- Fatigue
- Unexplained weight loss
- Thirst
- Increased urination



ALWAYS TIRED



INCREASED THIRST



BLURRY VISION

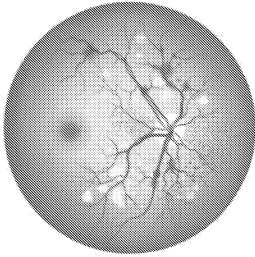
Diagnosis and monitoring

There are many ways to diagnose and monitor type 2 diabetes, including:

Method	How it's used
Blood glucose test	This is the most common test for diagnosing type 2 diabetes. It involves measuring the amount of glucose in the blood. If blood glucose levels are higher than normal, this can be an indicator of type 2 diabetes.
<p>Did you know? There are a few types of blood glucose tests, including:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fasting blood glucose test – a blood sample is taken after someone has fasted for around 8 hours. • Glucose intolerance test – a blood sample is taken before and after drinking a liquid (that contains glucose) to measure blood glucose levels and assess how the body processes glucose over time. • Random blood sugar test – a blood sample is taken at any time, without the need to fast or to drink anything. 	
Urine test	It's important to note that a urine test cannot diagnose diabetes. However, it can be used as a way to monitor the condition by detecting a type of protein known as microalbumin. A positive result of this protein means the kidneys are leaking protein into the urine, which is a sign of early kidney damage.


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Method	How it's used
Eye test	<p>This involves an eye examination to check for any damage caused by high blood sugar levels. This test is crucial because people with diabetes are at risk of developing diabetic retinopathy. During the test an eye specialist dilates the pupils (using special eye drops) to examine the retina for any signs of blood vessel damage such as bleeding and abnormal blood vessels.</p> <p>Diabetic retinopathy – condition where high blood sugar damages the blood vessels in the retina, causing blindness.</p> <p>Did you know? This image shows the retina of an individual with diabetes. Can you spot any signs of damage or abnormalities?</p> 
Neuropathy test	<p>This is used to assess nerve damage, which is commonly caused by type 2 diabetes. The test typically involves checking for symptoms such as loss of sensation, tingling or pain in the feet and legs.</p> <p>Research activity: Research the different neuropathy tests used to diagnose type 2 diabetes. Make notes on what each test measures to help with your revision!</p>

Treatments

There are several options for treating type 2 diabetes, including surgical, non-surgical and lifestyle changes.

	How it works	Benefits
Gastric banding 	<p>This is a surgical procedure where a band is placed around the upper part of the stomach to create a small pouch. It helps individuals to lose weight, which in turn improves insulin sensitivity.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Helps regulate blood sugar levels and reduce the need for diabetes medication ✓ Some individuals can experience remission ✓ Reduces risk of diabetes complications such as nerve damage, kidney issues and heart disease
<p>Insulin sensitivity – when the body's cells are more efficient at processing glucose from the bloodstream, lowering blood sugar levels.</p> <p>Remission – when the signs and symptoms of a disease are no longer seen. Remission can be temporary or permanent. Being in remission does not mean the condition is cured.</p>		

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		How it works	Benefits
Non-surgical treatments	Metformin	This is a medication that helps lower blood sugar by improving insulin sensitivity, reducing glucose production in the liver and helping the body use food for energy.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Non-invasive ✓ Helps body respond better to insulin and lowers blood sugar levels ✓ Does not cause weight gain (unlike other medications for diabetes)
Lifestyle changes	Losing weight	Losing weight helps the beta cells in the pancreas to start to work again to produce more insulin. It also helps the cells of the body become less resistant to insulin.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Non-invasive ✓ Can lead to remission ✓ Supports better blood sugar control, reducing the need for medication ✓ Improves overall health and quality of life

Factors increasing likelihood of condition

There are risk factors that make type 2 diabetes more likely, including age, ethnicity and inactivity. However, the factor that makes it most likely that a person will develop type 2 diabetes is being overweight.

- ➔ **Obesity** – being overweight leads to an excess of fat stored around the liver and pancreas, which can damage the pancreas and prevent it from producing enough insulin. Being overweight can also make the body not respond to insulin like it should. This is known as **insulin resistance**. Additionally, fat cells are more resistant to insulin than muscle cells, which makes it harder for the body to regulate blood sugar.
- ➔ **Age** – type 2 diabetes can occur at any age, but being over the age of 45 increases the risk of developing this condition. This is because as we get older, sensitivity to insulin and pancreas function is reduced. Additionally, as people age, an increase in fat mass due to a decline in muscle mass can contribute to insulin resistance. Together, these factors make it more difficult for the body to regulate blood sugar, increasing the likelihood of developing type 2 diabetes.
- ➔ **Inactivity** – not only does a lack of physical exercise increase the risk of obesity, but it also impairs glucose uptake by the muscles. Higher blood sugar levels. When muscles aren't active, they are less able to use glucose, causing glucose to build up in the bloodstream. In turn, these factors make it harder for the body to regulate blood sugar levels.
- ➔ **Ethnicity** – people from certain ethnic backgrounds are more at risk of developing type 2 diabetes. For example, individuals from a South Asian background are more likely to develop type 2 diabetes at a younger age, which is underpinned by a build-up of visceral fat (fat in the abdomen). In white populations, type 2 diabetes is more likely to develop after 40 years of age. Ethnicity can contribute to age-related differences in the development of type 2 diabetes.

Did you know?
Type 2 diabetes cases are increasing, with about 4 out of 5 people with type 2 diabetes being diagnosed after the age of 45.
[nhs.uk/conditions/type-2-diabetes/](https://www.nhs.uk/conditions/type-2-diabetes/)

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Case study

Nina, 35, has started showing symptoms of type 2 diabetes. She is from a South Asian background and leads an inactive lifestyle. She has gone to her GP to discuss her concerns about her health.



Applied activity
Identify the risk factors for Nina's condition and explain how they can be managed and regulated.

The key to controlling and preventing type 2 diabetes lies in adopting lifestyle changes. By doing so, this can help individuals manage their blood sugar levels, reduce the risk of complications and increase their chances of **remission**. Examples include:

- ✓ **Losing weight** – losing weight helps reduce the amount of excess fat stored in the liver and pancreas. By doing so, it not only improves the body's response to insulin by helping the beta cells in the pancreas to function more effectively, but it also helps to lower glucose levels in the bloodstream.
- ✓ **Dietary changes** – adopting healthy eating choices, rich in fruit and vegetables is another way to control and prevent type 2 diabetes. These dietary changes improve insulin sensitivity and contribute to weight loss.
- ✓ **Regular exercise** – engaging in regular physical activity helps reduce blood sugar levels. As we use our muscles, they primarily use glucose (sugar in the blood) as a fuel source, which helps lower blood sugar levels. Additionally, regular exercise helps improve insulin sensitivity.

Impact on the individual

Living with type 2 diabetes can impact someone's life in many ways, including:

Physical	The physical symptoms of type 2 diabetes, such as fatigue, weight gain, frequent urination, could lead to difficulties performing daily tasks. If this condition is not managed, individuals may face further health complications like blindness and nerve damage, which could further limit mobility and functioning in everyday life.
Intellectual	Type 2 diabetes can damage nerves in the brain which can lead to cognitive issues such as memory, mood and learning. Additionally, individuals with this condition may experience confusion and sluggishness. These factors could make it difficult to perform well in education, work and family life.
Emotional	Living with type 2 diabetes can be emotionally challenging. For example, dealing with this chronic condition, dealing with potential complications and fear of complications may lead to anxiety, depression and feelings of helplessness. Additionally, making lifestyle changes such as eating well, engaging in exercise and managing stress could cause frustration.
Social	Individuals with this condition may struggle to engage in social activities, especially those involving food, due to dietary restrictions. Additionally, physical symptoms like fatigue could make it difficult for individuals to attend social events.

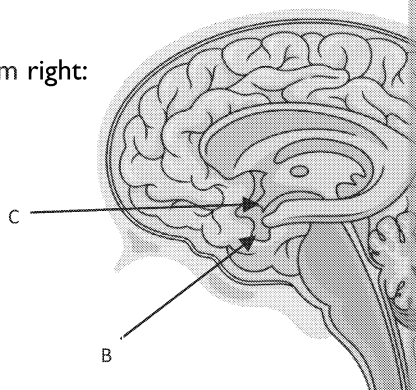
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Chapter 5: Questions (5.1–5.3)

Checking my understanding:

1. The central nervous system consists of the brain and what other structure?
A) Hypothalamus
B) Spinal cord
C) Synaptic knob
D) Ganglia
2. State the function of the autonomic nervous system.
3. Which of the following brain structures is responsible for coordinating movement?
A) Cerebral cortex
B) Pituitary gland
C) Cerebellum
D) Hypothalamus
4. State the **three** components required for negative feedback mechanisms.
5. Where does a blood clot form in an ischaemic stroke?
6. State **one** way that type 2 diabetes can be diagnosed and monitored.
7. Complete the sentence below to describe what homeostasis is.
Homeostasis is the process where the body A) _____ its B) _____ environment.
C) _____ changes.
8. Identify the brain structures in the diagram right:



9. Name **four** structures found in a motor neuron.

Developing my understanding/skills:

8. Thermoregulation is the control and regulation of body temperature despite external temperature.
Explain the role of the capillaries when body temperature rises above optimal.
9. Tom is 59 years old and has type 2 diabetes. He has been struggling to manage as a result of experiencing blurred vision, pain in his legs and feet, and fatigue. His doctor has already suggested losing weight as a way to control and manage his condition, but Tom has struggled to stick to his meal plan.
The doctor suggests two treatment options:
 - Gastric band
 - MetforminIn your answer:
 - Explain what each treatment is and what it involves.Discuss the benefits and limitations of each treatment.

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Chapter 6: Reproductive sys

The reproductive system is essential for human life, allowing the creation of offspring. To function and producing hormones essential for sexual development, the menstrual system is made up of specialised organs that work together to fulfil these functions. You should understand the structure and function of the female and male reproductive conditions that can affect them.

6.1: Female and male reproductive

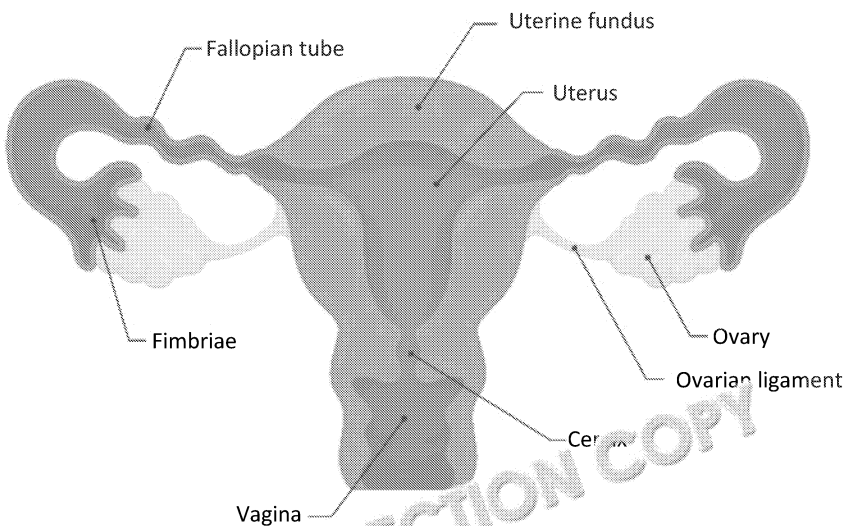
There are two reproductive systems – the male reproductive system and the female reproductive system. Both have very different functions. The function of the female reproductive system is to then nurture and protect it while it develops in the uterus until it is born. The process of taking the baby out of the body and then nursing the baby with milk after birth are also functions of the female reproductive system. The function of the male reproductive system is to produce sperm to fertilise an egg. The two systems have different structures to support their different functions.

Location, structure and function of the female reproductive system

The female reproductive system

The female reproductive system is designed to create an environment where a foetus can develop. It is made up of several structures, all of which have a specific function. These include processes such as the menstrual cycle, fertilisation, pregnancy and childbirth.

Let's look at these structures in more detail, including their location and function.



Structure	Function
Uterus	The uterus (womb) protects and nurtures the developing foetus until birth. It provides physical protection by having muscular walls. The placenta is attached to the muscular walls of the uterus and provides a way for nutrients to pass from the mother to the baby and waste products to pass from the baby to the mother. The muscular walls of the uterus are needed to push the baby out through the vagina during childbirth.
Ovaries	The ovaries contain structures called follicles which are where immature eggs develop. They release an egg during ovulation. As well as producing eggs, the ovaries are an important part of the endocrine system. Hormones such as oestrogen and progesterone are produced in the ovaries. These help regulate the menstrual cycle, secondary sexual characteristics and are important in maintaining pregnancy.

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Structure	Function
Vagina	The vagina is where the female reproductive system connects to the sexual intercourse it allows an entrance point for the penis so that it is as close to the uterus as possible. During birth, it expands and lengthens to form the birth canal . It also contains strong, powerful muscles to help the baby pass through.
Fallopian tubes	These are two bilateral tubes which connect the ovaries to the uterus, transporting the egg (ovum) from the ovary to the uterus. This is also where fertilisation occurs if a sperm meets the egg. The fallopian tube has tiny hair-like cilia and special muscles which help move the egg along the tube towards the uterus.
Cervix	This is the lower, narrow part of the uterus which connects to the vagina. It acts as a barrier to the uterus from bacteria and infections by acting like a barrier. It also produces mucus that changes during the menstrual cycle to either help or prevent sperm from entering the uterus, allows the passage of menstrual blood out of the body and enables the baby to pass through.

Birth canal – the passage through the pelvic bones that the baby passes through during birth. It is formed by the uterus, cervix and vagina which form a continuous tube through the pelvis.

Foetus – the baby developing in the uterus. It is known as the foetus from nine weeks of pregnancy.

Fertilisation – the process by which a sperm cell joins with an egg cell to form a zygote.

Implantation – stage where a fertilised egg attaches itself to the lining of the uterus. This is a crucial step for pregnancy, as it allows the embryo to receive nutrients and develop.

Menstrual cycle

The menstrual cycle is a monthly process that prepares a woman's body for pregnancy. It is a cycle of changes in the body that can support a fertilised egg. A typical menstrual cycle is 28 days long. This process is regulated by hormones such as oestrogen, follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH) and progesterone, which work together to control each phase of the cycle. The key phases, all of which occur at different times in the cycle to fulfil a certain function, are:

Menstruation

Also known as a period, this occurs in the first 1–5 days of a menstrual cycle if no fertilisation took place in the previous cycle. In this phase, low levels of oestrogen and progesterone trigger the uterus to shed its lining (endometrium), causing menstrual bleeding.

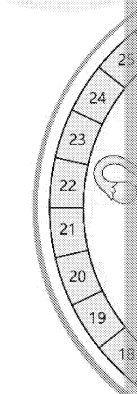
Follicular phase

This phase begins on day 1 of menstruation and continues until ovulation and typically lasts around 10–14 days. In this phase, the pituitary gland releases follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH), which stimulates the ovaries to develop **follicles**, each containing a mature egg. As the follicles grow, they produce oestrogen, which helps rebuild and thicken the uterine lining in preparation for possible fertilisation. By the end of this phase, one dominant follicle matures and prepares for ovulation.

Follicles – small sacs in the ovaries filled with fluid that contain an immature egg, known as an oocyte.

Stage

Luteal Phase
(Days 14–28)



Ovulation
(Days 12–14)

Egg
Yolk
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Ovulation

This occurs around day 14 of the menstrual cycle. This is where a mature egg is released from the fallopian tube, triggered by the release of luteinising hormone (LH). This is where the cycle can be fertilised if the sperm is present. Oestrogen levels peak just before ovulation and then decrease after the surge in LH.

Luteal phase

This falls around 14–28 days into the menstrual cycle, just after ovulation. During this phase, oestrogen drops, while progesterone rises (and oestrogen increases slightly). Once the egg has been released, the follicle closes and forms a structure called the corpus luteum, which produces progesterone. Progesterone and oestrogen help to thicken the uterus lining to prepare for a possible pregnancy.

If fertilisation doesn't take place, the corpus luteum breaks down, stopping the production of oestrogen. This causes the wall of the uterus lining to shed, causing menstrual bleeding. The cycle starts again!

Research activity: Carry out research into the menstrual cycle and draw a poster showing the different hormones. Include the function of the different hormones.



Menopause

Menopause marks the end of monthly menstruation, officially confirmed after 12 months without a period. It occurs due to a reduction in oestrogen and progesterone, causing ovulation to stop. As a result, fertility ceases. Menopause typically occurs between the ages of 45 and 55, signalling that a woman can no longer get pregnant.

Research activity: Research the physiological and psychological changes that occur during the menopause. Discuss with your partner how these symptoms might impact a woman's quality of life.



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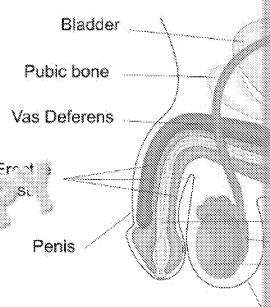
Location, structure and function of the male reproductive system

The male reproductive system

The male reproductive system is structured to produce sperm and deliver it to the female reproductive system for fertilisation. It has several key structures, which all work together to ensure this system works efficiently.

It's important for you to be aware of the location of these structures (see diagram) and the function of each (see table).

Male reproductive system



Exam tip

It's likely you will only need to label the structures covered in the table below for your exam.

Structure	Function
Penis	The function of the penis in the male reproductive system is to deliver sperm into the female reproductive system. To do this it must enter the vagina to reach the cervix, as close to the uterus as possible. To do this it contracts and becomes firm enough to enter the vagina.
Urethra	The penis contains the urethra which is the tube which carries sperm out of the penis. The urethra also carries urine from the bladder.
Scrotum	This is a pouch of skin that contains and protects the testes. It helps with the thermoregulation of the testes, moving them closer or further from the body to maintain an optimal temperature for sperm production.
Testes	The testes have two functions. One is to produce sperm which can be used to make a baby (fertilisation). The other function is to produce the hormone testosterone. Testosterone stimulates the production of sperm and stimulates the development of secondary sexual characteristics.
Epididymis	This is a coiled tube located at the back of the testes where sperm mature. After sperm are produced in the testes, they travel to this tube to mature and then swim and fertilise an egg.
Vas deferens	This is a tube that carries mature sperm from the epididymis to the urethra for ejaculation. It acts as a pathway for sperm to travel from the testes to the urethra.
Prostate	This is a small gland located just below the bladder which produces prostatic fluid. This fluid helps to nourish sperm and lubricate the urethra during ejaculation. The muscles which help to push semen through the urethra during ejaculation.

Research activity: Research conditions that affect the male reproductive system and make a poster of what you have learned.

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6.2: Conditions of the reproductive

The reproductive system can be affected by various conditions that impact its organs. These conditions can include endometriosis and testicular cancer, which can cause fertility issues, discomfort, and other implications. Certain factors can increase the risk of developing these conditions, including age, lifestyle, and family history. This section will delve into these conditions in more detail, including their symptoms, diagnosis, and treatment options.

Endometriosis


Overview and causes

This is where endometrial tissue (lining of the uterus) grows outside the uterus. It commonly affects the ovaries, fallopian tubes, and pelvic regions. This tissue behaves like normal endometrial tissue, but because it is located outside of the uterus, it can cause severe pelvic pain, inflammation, and fertility problems.

Main signs and symptoms

- Pelvic pain
- Pain during or after sexual intercourse
- Heavy periods
- Severe period pains
- Difficulties conceiving

Did you know?: Endometriosis affects around 1 in 10 women, meaning most of us have this condition.

 [zzed.uk/12929-Endometriosis](https://www.zigzageducation.co.uk/12929-Endometriosis)

Diagnosis and monitoring

There are several methods used to diagnose and monitor endometriosis. However, laparoscopy is the **only** method that can directly diagnose the condition, while other methods are used for monitoring.


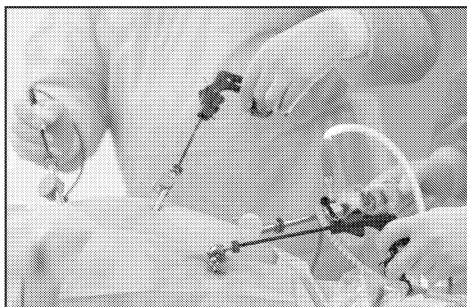
Method	How it's used	
Pelvic examination	This is a physical exam which involves checking the lower abdomen and pelvic area. During the exam, a healthcare professional may perform an internal vaginal examination, using their fingers to feel for any abnormalities, such as irregular growths. They may also press on the abdomen to assess the internal organs.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If you experience severe pelvic pain, this could be a sign of endometriosis. • To help with diagnosis, a healthcare professional may perform a pelvic examination. • To monitor the condition, a healthcare professional may perform a pelvic examination.
MRI	An MRI scan uses a strong magnetic field and radio waves to create detailed images of the pelvic organs. This can help to identify endometrial tissue that has grown outside the uterus. This method is particularly helpful in identifying deep infiltrating endometriosis .	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) scan can be used to identify endometrial tissue that has grown outside the uterus. • A magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) scan can be used to identify endometrial tissue that has grown outside the uterus. • A magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) scan can be used to identify endometrial tissue that has grown outside the uterus.

Deep infiltrating endometriosis – a severe form of endometriosis where endometrial tissue grows deep into surrounding pelvic organs such as the bladder and bowel.

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Method	How it's used	
Ultrasound	<p>This involves using high-frequency waves to create images of the pelvic organs. There are two main types:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A transabdominal ultrasound, which examines the pelvis through the abdomen • A transvaginal ultrasound, which provides a clearer, more detailed view of the pelvic organs through the vagina <p>This method helps identify signs of endometriosis such as ovarian endometrioma, which are cysts commonly associated with this condition.</p> <div> <p>Did you know? Ovarian endometrioma are also known as 'chocolate cysts' due to their dark brown colour.</p>  </div>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • • •
Laparoscopy	<p>This is a procedure during which a camera is inserted into a small incision made just below the belly button. This allows a healthcare professional to directly view the pelvic organs and identify any signs of endometriosis, such as abnormal tissue growth and cysts. This procedure also allows a biopsy (small sample) to be taken to confirm the presence of this condition and assess the extent of the disease.</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • • •

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Treatments

There is currently no cure for endometriosis, but treatments help to manage this condition. There are surgical and non-surgical treatment options, all of which help to alleviate pain and other symptoms of endometriosis.

		How it works	Benefits
Surgical treatments	Laparoscopic removal of endometrial tissue	<p>This surgical procedure is carried out during a laparoscopy and involves a healthcare professional surgically removing endometrial tissue. There are two main ways this can be done:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Electrological heat treatment – a high-frequency electrical current or laser is used to burn away endometrial tissue ➤ Excision – surgically cutting out endometrial tissue, particularly for deeper or more invasive deposits of tissue <p>In rare cases, this procedure may require open surgery for more severe cases.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Can significantly improve symptoms and relieve pain ✓ Minimally invasive surgery – reduces risks such as bleeding and infection ✓ Quicker recovery time
	Hysterectomy	<p>This is a major surgical procedure involving the removal of the uterus. This can help remove endometrial tissue. This procedure is usually used as a last resort if other treatments haven't been successful.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Can significantly reduce pain caused by endometriosis ✓ Alleviates other symptoms such as heavy periods and severe period pain

Research activity: Research the **three** different types of hysterectomy.

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		How it works	Benefits
Non-surgical treatments	Pain relief	Painkillers can be prescribed to individuals to help alleviate symptoms such as pelvic pain and period pain by interrupting pain signals before they reach the brain. Additionally, individuals may be given non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) which help to reduce pain and swelling by interfering with specific enzymes.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Easy to use ✓ Can be used alongside surgical treatment ✓ Non-invasive ✓ Helps to alleviate pain
	Hormonal medicines and contraceptive	Hormonal medicines and contraceptives can help manage endometriosis by regulating hormone levels, particularly oestrogen, which slows the growth of endometrial tissue. These treatments achieve this by suppressing the normal menstrual cycle.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Helps relieve endometriosis pain and heavy periods ✓ Helps prevent condition from worsening by slowing down or stopping the growth of endometrial tissue ✓ Multiple types to choose from such as tablets, injections and implants

Factors increasing likelihood of condition

The exact cause of endometriosis is still under debate; however, certain factors can increase the likelihood of developing this condition, including:

- ➔ **Family history** – women who have a close relative, such as a mother or sister, are more likely to develop this condition. While there is no single ‘endometriosis gene’, specific genes affecting inflammation and hormone regulation may increase the risk of endometriosis. However, family history is just one factor contributing to the condition, and the environment still plays a big influence.
- ➔ **Age of period onset** – starting a period at a young age (under 11 years old) can increase the likelihood of developing endometriosis due to longer exposure to oestrogen. Oestrogen stimulates the growth of endometrial tissue, so prolonged exposure can increase the risk of this tissue growing outside the uterus.
- ➔ **Short menstrual cycle** – a short menstrual cycle is classed anywhere below 27 days, which means having more frequent periods. This increases the risk of **retrograde menstruation**, which is a known risk factor for developing endometriosis. This is because menstrual blood contains endometrial cells that can stick to the pelvic walls or other pelvic organs.
 - ✓ **Heavy menstrual periods** – heavy periods that last longer than seven days can increase the risk of endometriosis because they increase the amount of menstrual blood and tissue. This can also increase the risk of **retrograde menstruation**.

Applied activity: Design an informative and engaging leaflet which outlines the factors that increase the likelihood of developing endometriosis. Remember to link these to the reproductive system.

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Control and prevention

As mentioned, there is currently no cure for endometriosis. Unfortunately, there is no way to prevent the condition from developing. However, there are several strategies that may help reduce the likelihood of developing the condition. Additionally, several strategies can also support individuals who already have endometriosis by helping to manage their symptoms and improve their quality of life.

- ✓ **Pain relief** – pain relief treatments such as painkillers and NSAIDs can help individuals control their symptoms such as pelvic pain and severe period cramps. These treatments do this by blocking pain signals before they can reach the brain and by helping to reduce pain and swelling by interfering with specific enzymes used to make prostaglandins.
- ✓ **Hormonal medicines and contraceptives** – hormonal treatments such as the pill, hormone injections, and hormone implants can help individuals to manage their endometriosis symptoms over the long term. They help by helping to regulate oestrogen, which slows the growth of endometrial tissue, helping to alleviate pain and heavy periods, as well as reduce an individual's likelihood of developing the condition.
- ✓ **Lifestyle changes** – adopting healthy lifestyle choices can help individuals to prevent endometriosis from worsening, such as:
 - **Reduce stress** – stress plays a big role in inflammation and hormonal imbalance, and increases our sensitivity to pain. Together, these factors can contribute to more severe and painful endometriosis symptoms. By managing and reducing stress, this can help to reduce pelvic pain and severe menstrual cramps, improve hormone regulation, lower inflammation and make pain more manageable.
 - **Dietary changes** – eating foods that are high in anti-inflammatory properties, such as omega-3-rich fish, fruits and vegetables can help lower inflammation and reduce symptoms such as pain. Additionally, introducing a high fibre and low fat diet can help to regulate oestrogen levels, helping to reduce the growth of endometrial tissue.
 - **Exercise regularly** – regular physical activity not only helps reduce inflammation and regulate oestrogen levels. Additionally, exercise can help improve mood and reduce stress. These factors help to ease and manage the symptoms of endometriosis, helping to prevent the condition from developing the condition.

Research
shows that
these
treatments
can help
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Impact on the individual

Living with endometriosis can significantly impact a woman's life. From its chronic symptoms, it can cause physical, intellectual, emotional and social disruptions.

Physical	The physical symptoms of endometriosis, such as pelvic pain, severe menstrual cramps and pain during or after intercourse, can cause significant discomfort and make it difficult to engage in everyday tasks, including daily chores and physical exercise. These symptoms can interfere with essential activities such as sleeping and working, which can impact intimacy.
Intellectual	Experiencing these physical symptoms can disrupt cognitive function, making it difficult to concentrate, make decisions and remember things. Additionally, experiencing this condition can cause something known as brain fog , which can cause disruptions in educational and professional performance, as well as daily life. <div>Brain fog is a term used to describe mental confusion and lack of clarity, often associated with symptoms such as memory, focus and thinking become impaired.</div>
Emotional	Endometriosis can have a significant toll on emotional well-being. The chronic pain and symptoms increase the risk of depression and anxiety, but the chronic nature of the condition can lead to feelings of helplessness and frustration. Additionally, the possibility of not being able to have a baby can cause significant emotional distress.
Social	The physical symptoms of endometriosis could prevent individuals from attending social events and family. Additionally, pain during or after sex, and difficulties conceiving can strain intimate relationships. Combined, these factors could cause social isolation.

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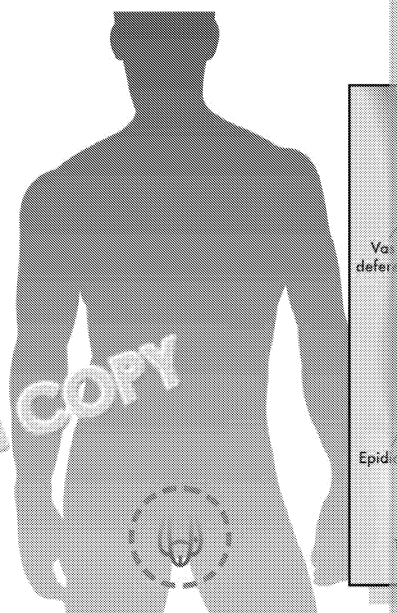
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Testicular cancer

Overview and causes

Testicular cancer is a type of cancer that typically affects the germ cells, which produce sperm in the testicles. It is caused by DNA mutations which affect cell growth and division. These mutations can either turn on genes that promote cell growth (oncogenes) or turn off genes that normally prevent uncontrolled cell growth (tumour suppressor genes). As a result, these DNA changes result in the development of a tumour. For a tumour to be confirmed as testicular cancer, it must be confined to the testicle and not spread to the lymph nodes or tissues.



Main signs and symptoms

- Lump in the testicle
- Feeling of heaviness in the scrotum
- Pain in the testicles
- Increased firmness of the testicles

Diagnosis and monitoring

There are a few ways testicular cancer can be diagnosed and monitored, all of which are used when a tumour is present.

Method	How it's used	Why it's used
Physical examination	A healthcare professional feels for any abnormalities in the testicle, such as swelling, lumps or tenderness. This method also involves checking the lymph nodes and the abdomen to confirm whether there are signs the cancer has spread elsewhere.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• If someone shows signs of testicular cancer• To diagnose testicular cancer• To monitor testicular cancer and the progression of the disease• To direct future treatment
Ultrasound	This involves using high-frequency waves to create images of the testicles. This helps identify whether a tumour is present by detecting any shadows in the ultrasound image.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• When symptoms of testicular cancer have been observed• To differentiate between a testicular tumour and an epididymal cyst• When there is suspicion of cancer spread beyond the testis
Blood test	A blood sample is taken to check for specific proteins commonly produced by cancer cells. This is known as a tumour marker test.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• When symptoms of testicular cancer are confirmed by physical examination or ultrasound• To monitor how the cancer responds to treatment

Did you know? : Testicular cancer has one of the highest survival rates (95%). Research suggests that this is down to increased awareness, screening programmes and effective treatments.

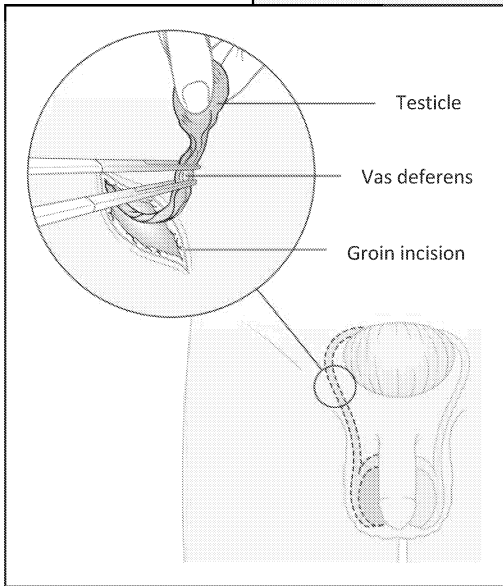
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Treatments

Early detection is key in treating testicular cancer. The sooner it is diagnosed, the better the prognosis, which helps prevent the cancer from spreading outside of the testicle and improve survival rates.

		How it works	Benefits
Surgical treatments	Orchidectomy	Also known as orchiectomy, this is a surgical procedure which removes one or both of the testicles. This is performed to remove tissues within the testicle that contain cancer, and also allows a healthcare professional who specialises in diagnosing testicular cancer, known as a pathologist, to confirm the presence of cancer and assess its severity.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Allows for analysis of the cancer tissue ✓ Effective treatment by removing tumour ✓ Controls cancer growth by lowering testosterone levels ✓ Helps prevent testicular cancer from returning ✓ Can provide a cure if localised and caught early³
			

		How it works	Benefits
Non-surgical treatments	Chemotherapy	This is a form of treatment which uses cytotoxic (cancer-killing) drugs to destroy cancer cells. These drugs travel through the bloodstream via an intravenous drip to target cancer in different parts of the body. Chemotherapy is typically used when the cancer has spread to other areas or if there is a risk of the cancer returning.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Treats cancer that has spread outside of the testicle ✓ Can be used after an orchidectomy to help prevent cancer from returning ✓ Helps slow down the growth and prevents the spread of cancer to other body parts ✓ Can cure testicular cancer

³ Penn Medicine Testicular Cancer Surgery: Orchiectomy & RPLND | Penn Medicine (accessed on 10/01/2023)

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Factors increasing likelihood of condition

There are certain factors which can increase the likelihood of developing testicular cancer, including.

- **Undescended testicles** – this typically occurs during foetal development when a testicle does not drop down from the abdomen into the usual position in the scrotum. Though the exact reason isn't fully understood, this is found to increase the likelihood of testicular cancer. Research suggests this is down to the abnormal position of the testicle, which can make it more prone to complications such as cancer.
- **Family history** – men with a close family member, such as a father or brother, who has / has previously had testicular cancer are more likely to develop the condition themselves. Although a specific gene for testicular cancer hasn't been identified, research suggests a **hereditary** link. Multiple genes may influence the development of the testes, fertility, and sperm production. Some of these genes are believed to increase the risk of testicular cancer.
- **Age** – testicular cancer is also known as the 'young man's disease',⁴ because men aged between 15 and 49 are most at risk of developing the condition. Testes produce more sperm and testosterone at this age, and higher levels of these hormones are believed to promote the growth of prostate cancer cells.
- **Previous testicular cancer** – men who have had testicular cancer in one testicle have a higher risk of developing it again in the other testicle. This is because the factors that led to the initial cancer may still be present. Additionally, previous testicular cancer can increase the risk of developing other types of cancer, known as secondary cancer. This is because treatments such as radiation and chemotherapy can damage healthy cells in the body, which increases the risk of DNA mutations which lead to cancer.
- **Radiotherapy** – radiotherapy is used to kill cancer cells and reduce tumour size. However, as mentioned previously, exposure to radiation can increase the risk of developing testicular cancer. Radiation can damage the DNA in healthy cells, leading to DNA mutations. If radiotherapy is used to treat testicular cancer, it can raise the risk of developing this cancer.

Exam tip

You may have noticed there is no 'Control and prevention' section for this condition. Current testicular cancer cannot be prevented or controlled. This is because the factors that increase the risk, such as family history, age, and undescended testicles, cannot be changed.

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⁴ Mayo Clinic <https://www.mayoclinichealthsystem.org/hometown-health/speaking-of-health/young-men-testicular-cancer> (accessed on 18/02/2025)

Impact on the individual

Being diagnosed with testicular cancer can be an incredibly overwhelming and scary experience. It can have a significant impact on an individual's life, especially in relation to PIES.

Physical	Treatment for testicular cancer can be aggressive and cause a range of side effects. For example, symptoms such as extreme fatigue, nausea and stomach pain can make it incredibly difficult for individuals to carry out their day activities. Additionally, essential needs such as eating and sleeping can be affected.
Intellectual	Chemotherapy can disrupt cognitive functions such as thinking, memory and concentration. Individuals may find it difficult to engage in everyday tasks such as managing their care and staying focused at work. Additionally, the emotional impact of the diagnosis can further impair these cognitive functions.
Emotional	Being diagnosed with testicular cancer can bring intense emotional distress. Individuals may experience a wide range of feelings, including anxiety, fear, sadness and uncertainty about treatment outcomes and the potential impact on their future (e.g. fertility). This could cause feelings of helplessness and significant stress.
Social	A diagnosis of testicular cancer can have widespread impacts on an individual's social life. Friends and family may struggle to cope with the diagnosis, causing strain on relationships. Individuals may withdraw from social activities due to physical symptoms or emotional distress.

Research activity: Research the different ways that individuals with testicular cancer can be supported in managing the physical, intellectual, emotional and social impact of the condition. Consider how these support strategies can help them to cope.



Did you know? This image displays the ribbon for Testicular Cancer Awareness Month, which takes place in April. This month aims to raise awareness about the impact of testicular cancer on those affected, as well as their friends and family.

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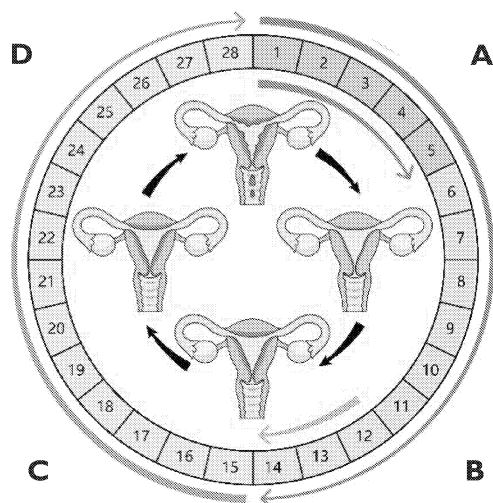
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Chapter 6: Questions (6.1–6.2)

Checking my understanding:

1. State **one** function of the cervix.
2. Which of the following is not a phase in the menstrual cycle?
 - A) Follicular
 - B) Ovulation
 - C) Menopause
 - D) Luteal
3. Where in the reproductive system do sperm mature?
 - A) Testes
 - B) Scrotum
 - C) Epididymis
 - D) Prostate
4. State **one** way of diagnosing and monitoring endometriosis.
5. What treatment involves using cytotoxic drugs to kill testicular cancer cells?
6. Identify the stages of the menstrual cycle in the diagram below:



7. Complete the sentence below to describe the function of the scrotum.

The scrotum is a pouch of skin that contains and **A)** the testes. It is responsible for **B)** of the testes, moving them closer or further away from the body to maintain **C)** temperature for **D)** production.

Developing my understanding/skills:

8. Sara has had a laparoscopy. The doctor explained that they found endometriosis on her uterus, and have diagnosed her with endometriosis. Sara's sister has started her periods in primary school and has very heavy periods.
 - a) Explain what factors could be increasing Sara's risk of endometriosis by her reproductive system.
 - b) Explain what testicular cancer is.

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Indicative Content

Chapter 1

Checking my understanding:


No.	Answer
1.	1 mark for each: i) White blood cells – fighting infections and destroying cancer cells (1) ii) Red blood cells – transporting oxygen around the body (1) iii) Plasma – transporting substances around the body (1) iv) Platelets – blood clotting (1) <i>Accept other suitable answers.</i>
2.	1 mark for correct answer: C) Left ventricle (1)
3.	1 mark for each: A) (1) B)  C) Node / atrioventricular node (1) D) Purkinje/Purkyne fibres (1)
4.	1 mark for each: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Porous walls / narrow lumen / slow blood flow (1) • Allows for substances to diffuse into and out of the blood easily (1) <i>Accept other suitable answers.</i>
5.	a) 1 mark for explaining: Lack of blood flow to the heart muscles (1) b) 1 mark for each, any two from: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Angioplasty (1) • Coronary bypass (1) • Nitrolingual pump / angina pump (1) • Anticoagulants (1) <i>Accept other suitable answers.</i>
6.	1 mark for correct answer: D) Low blood pressure (1)

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Developing my understanding/skills:

No.	Answer
7.	<p>Up to 1 mark for:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Chest pain / chest pain that radiates to arm, neck and jaw (1) Tight chest (1) Breathlessness (1) Dizziness (1) Nausea (1) <p>1 mark for each:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reduce fat and salt intake – reduces LDL build-up and risk of atherosclerosis (1) Stop smoking – heals damage to arterial walls (1) Reduce stress – reduces high blood pressure and stress hormones, relaxing reducing symptoms (1) <p>Accept other suitable answers.</p>
8.	<p>a) 1 mark for overview:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Blood clot in a deep vein which restricts blood flow (1) <p>b)  1 mark for each:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Thrombolytics – drugs that dissolve blood clots to restore blood flow (1) Thrombectomy – surgical procedure which removes blood clot from vein (1) <p>c) Up to 2 marks for each treatment, 1 mark for benefits, 1 mark for limitations</p> <p>Thrombolytics</p> <p>Benefits</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Fast breakdown of blood clots (1) More effective than anticoagulants at completely breaking down blood clots (1) Helps prevent long-term complications such as post-thrombotic syndrome (1) <p>Limitations</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Invasive (1) Only for severe cases (1) Unpleasant side effects such as bleeding, bruising and swelling (1) Long treatment time (1) Requires careful monitoring in a hospital (1) <p>Thrombectomy</p> <p>Benefits</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Removes large blood clots (1) Immediate results (1) Minimally invasive (1) <p>Limitations</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increases risk of damage to blood vessels (1) Requires the use of other medications alongside, such as anticoagulants (1) <p>Accept other suitable answers.</p>

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Preview of Answers Ends Here

This is a limited inspection copy. Sample of answers ends here to stop students looking up answers to their assessments. See contents page for details of the rest of the resource.