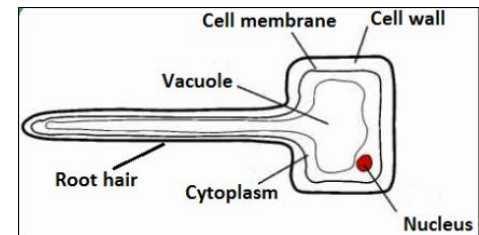
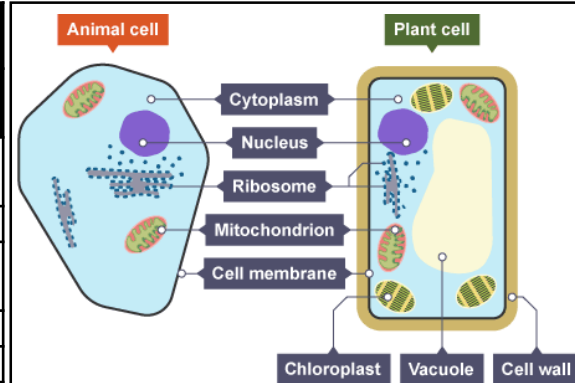


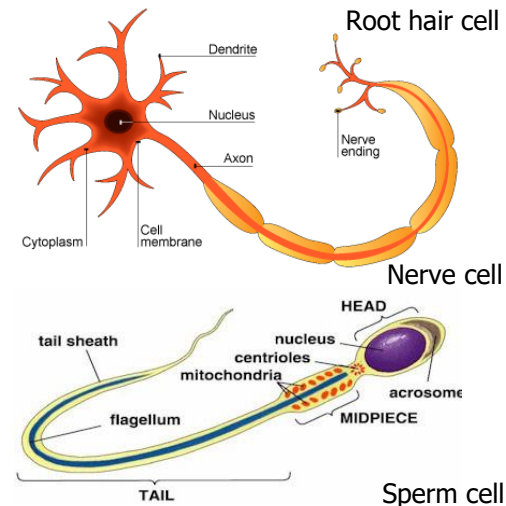
Section 1: Cell Structure

Cell Structure	Function	Eukaryotic		Prokaryotic
		Animal Cells	Plant Cells	Bacterial Cells
Nucleus	Contains genetic information that controls the functions of the cell.	Y	Y	
Cell membrane	Controls what enters and leaves the cell.	Y	Y	Y
Cytoplasm	Where many cell activities and chemical reactions within the cell occur.	Y	Y	Y
Mitochondria	Provides energy from aerobic respiration .	Y	Y	
Ribosome	Synthesises (makes) proteins .	Y	Y	Y
Chloroplast	Where photosynthesis occurs.		Y	
Permanent vacuole	Used to store water and other chemicals as cell sap .		Y	
Cell wall	Strengthens and supports the cell. (Made of cellulose in plants.)		Y	Y
DNA loop	A loop of DNA , not enclosed within a nucleus.			Y
Plasmid	A small circle of DNA , may contain genes associated with antibiotic resistance.			Y



Section 2: Specialised Cells

Specialised Cell	How structure relates to function
Sperm cell	Acrosome contains enzyme to break into egg; tail to swim; many mitochondria to provide energy to swim.
Nerve cell	Long to transmit electrical impulses over a distance.
Muscle cell	Contain protein fibres that can contract when energy is available, making the cells shorter.
Root hair cell	Long extension to increase surface area for water and mineral uptake; thin cell wall .
Xylem cell	Waterproofed cell wall; cells are hollow to allow water to move through.
Phloem cell	Some cells have lots of mitochondria for active transport ; some cells have very little cytoplasm for sugars to move through easily.



KNOWLEDGE



Biology Topic B1 Cell Structure and Transport

ORGANISER

Section 3: Microscopy

Magnification	The degree by which an object is enlarged . Magnification = $\frac{\text{size of image}}{\text{size of real object}}$
Resolution	The ability of a microscope to distinguish detail .
Light microscope	Basic microscope with a maximum magnification of 1500x. Low resolution.
Electron microscope	Microscope with a much higher magnification (up to 500 000x) and resolving power than a light microscope. This means that it can be used to study cells in much finer detail.

Section 4: Orders of Magnitude

Unit Prefix	Size in metres	Standard Form
Centimetre (cm)	0.01m	10^{-2}m
Millimetre (mm)	0.001m	10^{-3}m
Micrometre (μm)	0.000001m	10^{-6}m
Nanometre (nm)	0.000000001m	10^{-9}m

Section 7: Transport Across Membranes

Cell Structure	Definition	Uses
Diffusion	Spreading out of the particles (gas/ solution) resulting in a net movement from an area of higher concentration to an area of lower concentration .	Oxygen and carbon dioxide in gas exchange (leaves and alveoli). Urea from cells into the blood plasma for excretion in the kidney.
Osmosis	The diffusion of water from a dilute solution to a concentrated solution through a partially permeable membrane.	Movement of water into and out of cells.
Active Transport	The movement of substances from a more dilute solution to a more concentrated solution (against a concentration gradient). Requires energy from respiration.	Absorption of mineral ions (low concentration) from soil into plant roots . Absorption of sugar molecules from lower concentrations in the gut into the blood which has a higher sugar concentration.

Section 8: Factors Affecting Diffusion

Factor	Explanation
Difference in concentrations (concentration gradient)	The greater the difference in concentrations, the faster the rate of diffusion.
Temperature	Particles move more quickly at higher temperatures, so rate of diffusion increases.
Surface area of membrane	The greater the surface area the quicker the rate of diffusion.

Section 9: Adaptations of Exchange Surfaces

Large surface area
Thin membrane to provide a short diffusion path
Ventilation (in animals for gas exchange – maintains a concentration gradient)
Efficient blood supply (in animals – maintains a concentration gradient)

Section 3: Microscopy

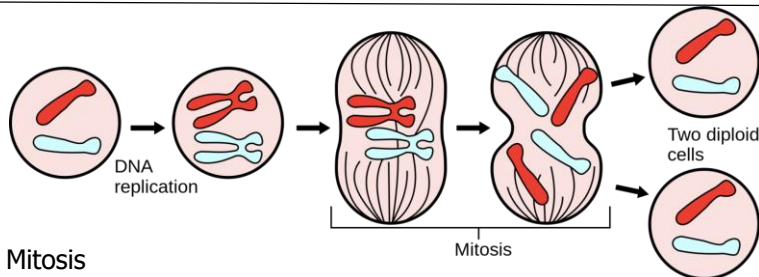
Magnification	The degree by which an object is enlarged . Magnification = $\frac{\text{size of image}}{\text{size of real object}}$
Resolution	The ability of a microscope to distinguish detail .
Light microscope	Basic microscope with a maximum magnification of 1500x. Low resolution.
Electron microscope	Microscope with a much higher magnification (up to 500 000x) and resolving power than a light microscope. This means that it can be used to study cells in much finer detail.

Section 4: Orders of Magnitude

Unit Prefix	Size in metres	Standard Form
Centimetre (cm)	0.01m	10^{-2}m
Millimetre (mm)	0.001m	10^{-3}m
Micrometre (μm)	0.000001m	10^{-6}m
Nanometre (nm)	0.000000001m	10^{-9}m

Section 5: Mitosis and the Cell Cycle

Number of sub-cellular structures (e.g. ribosomes and mitochondria) increase .
Number of chromosomes double .
One set of chromosomes is pulled to each end of the cell.
The nucleus divides .
Cytoplasm and cell membranes divide to form two identical cells

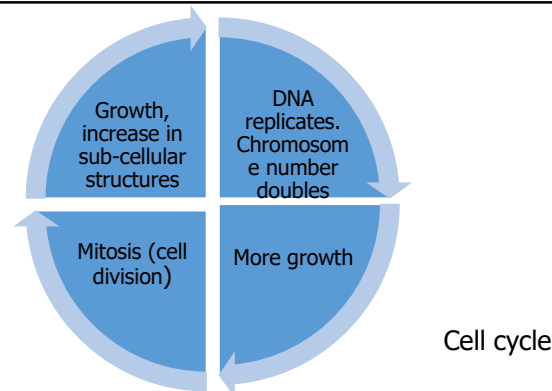


Section 6: Stem Cells

Stem Cell	Properties	Uses
Embryonic stem cell	Can divide into most types of cell.	Therapeutic cloning – embryonic stem cells produced with same genes as patient. No rejection.
Adult stem cell	Can divide into a limited number of cells e.g. bone marrow stem cells can form various blood cells.	
Meristem	Found in plants. Can differentiate (divide) into any type of plant cell.	Clone rare species to prevent extinction . Crops with special features can be clones

Pros and Cons of Using Stem Cells

Pros	Treatment of diseases such as diabetes, dementia and paralysis.
Cons	Ethical and religious objections. Can transfer viruses held within cells.



KNOWLEDGE



Biology Topic B3 Organisation and the digestive system

ORGANISER

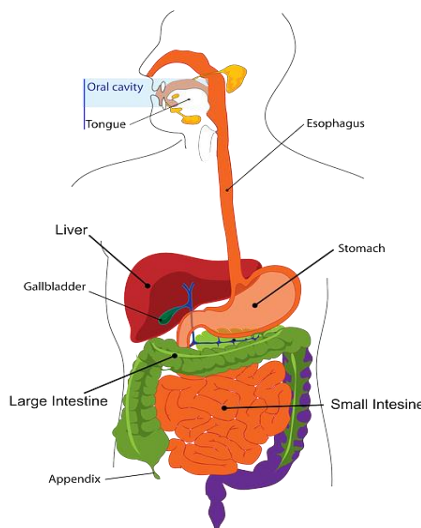
Section 1: Organisation

Tissue	A group of cells with a similar structure and function e.g. muscle tissue
Organ	A group of tissues performing a specific function e.g. heart, leaf
Organ System	A group of organs that perform a specific function e.g. digestive system.

Section 2: Human Digestive System

4 Order of movement of food through the digestive system:

Mouth	Many
Oesophagus	Ordinary
Stomach	Students
Small intestine	Struggle
Large intestine	Learning and
Rectum	Remembering
Anus	Answers



Section 3: Enzymes Key Terms

Enzyme	A biological catalyst that can speed up the rate of reaction without being used itself. Made of a large protein molecule .
Substrate	The chemical that fits into the active site of an enzyme.
Lock and Key Model	Only one type of substrate can fit into the active site of an enzyme, like a key fits into a lock.
Denatured	When the active site of an enzyme changes shape and the substrate can no longer fit in . Can be caused by pH or temperature .

Section 5b: Other Chemicals

Hydrochloric Acid	Acid with pH of 2 produced by the stomach. Unravels proteins .
Bile	Emulsifies fats (turns them into droplets to give a greater surface area). It is alkaline so neutralises acid from the stomach . Produced in liver, stored in gall bladder and is released into the small intestine .

Section 4: Testing for Biological Molecules

Chemical Test

Positive Result

Starch	Add orange/brown iodine solution .	Colour turns to blue/black .
Sugar	Add blue Benedict's solution . Place in a boiling water bath for 5 minutes .	Colour turns green/ yellow/ orange/ brick red .
Protein	Add blue Biuret solution .	Colour turns to lilac/ purple .
Lipid	Add ethanol and decant into water .	Cloudy white emulsion .

Section 5a: Human Digestive Enzymes

Enzyme

Sites of production

Sites of action

Amylase	Breaks starch into sugars .	Salivary glands Pancreas Small intestine	Mouth Small intestine
Protease	Breaks proteins into amino acids .	Stomach Pancreas Small intestine	Stomach Small intestine
Lipase	Breaks lipids (fats) into fatty acids and glycerol .	Pancreas Small intestine	Small intestine

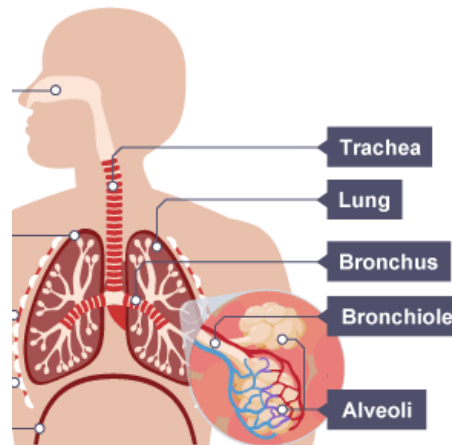
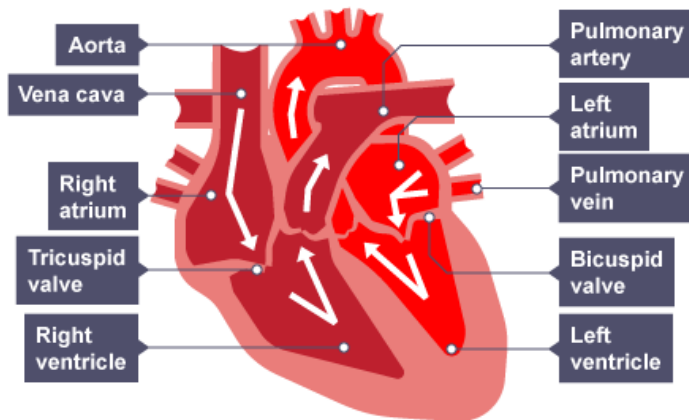
KNOWLEDGE



Biology Topic B4 Organising in Plants and Animals

ORGANISER

Section 6: Heart and Lungs



Section 6a: Structures in the Heart

Pacemaker	Group of cells in the right atrium that controls resting heart rate .
Right ventricle	Pumps deoxygenated blood to the lungs for gas exchange .
Left ventricle	Pumps oxygenated blood to the body . Thick, muscular wall .
Valve	Stops blood flowing the wrong way / leaking.

Section 6b: Structures in the Lungs

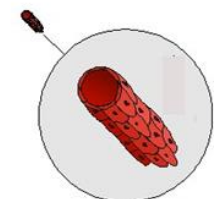
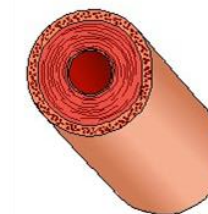
Alveoli	Small sacs where gas exchange occurs. Surrounded by capillaries . Oxygen moves from the alveoli into the capillaries , carbon dioxide moves from the capillaries into the alveoli
Trachea and Bronchi	Tubes through which gases move. Lined with cartilage so they don't collapse.

Section 8: Components of the Blood

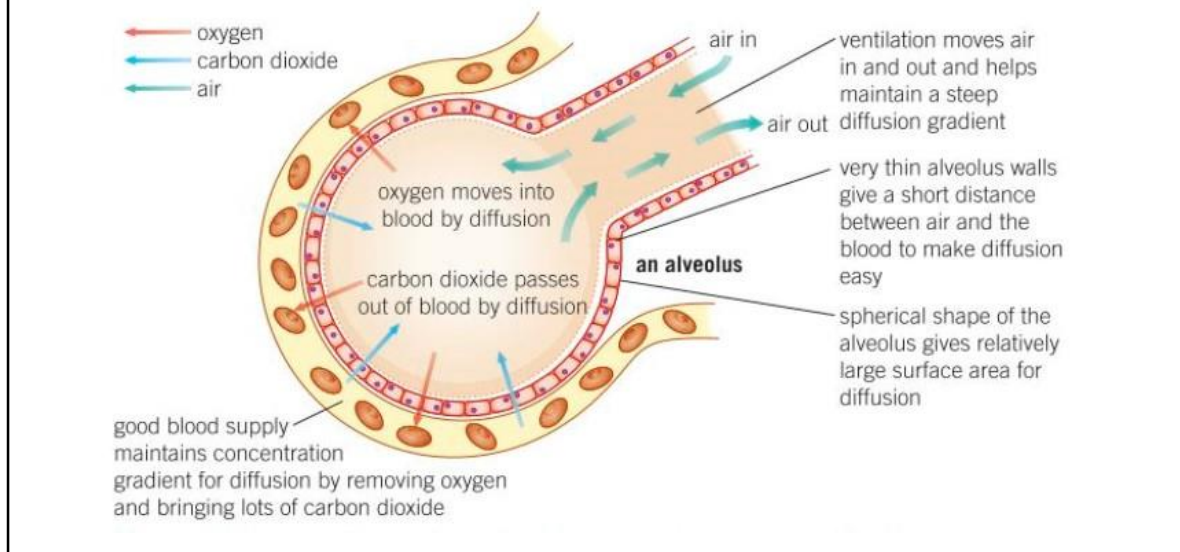
Plasma	Liquid part of the blood. Transports blood cells as well as carbon dioxide, proteins, glucose, hormones and urea .
Red Blood Cells	Carries oxygen . Packed with haemoglobin , a protein that binds to oxygen. No nucleus to create extra space for haemoglobin. Biconcave shape to give a large surface area .
White Blood Cells	Destroy pathogens . Some can produce antibodies .
Platelets	Cell fragments that help to clot wounds .

Section 7: Blood Vessels

Adaptations	Purpose	Artery	Vein	Capillary
Thick wall to withstand high pressure	Takes blood away from the heart.	Takes blood back to the heart.	Thin wall. Valves to prevent backflow of blood.	Wall is one cell thick to allow quick diffusion of substances.
		Exchanges of substances between blood and cells.		



Section 9: How gases get exchanged in the alveoli.



Section 11: How a stent is positioned in an artery



Section 10: Heart Disease

Coronary Heart Disease	Build up of fatty material in coronary arteries . Can lead to a blood clot and a heart attack .		
Treatment	What it is	Advantage	Disadvantage
Stent	Wire mesh that opens up a blocked artery .	Keeps artery open. Low-risk surgery.	Fatty material can rebuild.
Statin	Drug that reduces cholesterol .	Reduces fat being deposited in arteries.	Side effects e.g. liver damage.
Heart transplant	Replacement heart from a donor.	Long-term.	Major surgery. Could be rejected.
Artificial heart	Man-made heart used while waiting for a transplant .	Not rejected. Keeps patient alive.	Short life-time. Battery has to be transported. Limited activity.
Mechanical heart valve	Mechanical replacement of faulty heart valve.	Can last a life-time.	Can damage red blood cells.
Biological heart valve	Biological replacement of faulty heart valve.	Don't damage red blood cells.	Valve hardens and may need replacing.

KNOWLEDGE



Biology Topic B4 Organising in Plants and Animals

ORGANISER

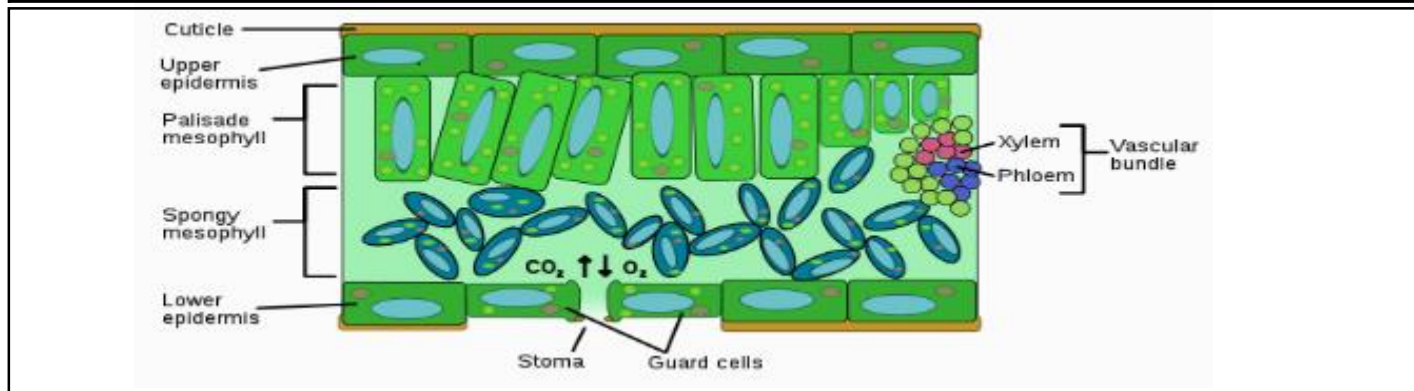
Section 10a: Movement within Plants

Transpiration	The loss of water vapour from the leaves by evaporation from cells and then out through the stomata .
Transpiration Stream	The movement of water from the roots , up the stem to the leaves .
Translocation	The movement of dissolved sugars around the plant.

Section 10b: Factors Affecting Transpiration

Temperature	Increasing temperature increases the transpiration rate as water evaporates quickly.
Humidity	Increasing humidity decreases the rate of transpiration as water evaporates slowly.
Wind speed	Increasing wind speed increases the transpiration rate as water evaporates quickly.
Light	Increasing light increases the rate of transpiration as stomata open .

Section 11: Leaf Structure and Plant Tissues



Epidermis	Cover the surfaces of the leaf; lets light penetrate .59
Xylem	Carries water and minerals from the roots around the plant.
Phloem	Carries dissolved sugars made through photosynthesis around the plant. 6
Palisade mesophyll	Where most photosynthesis takes place. Cells contain many chloroplasts . Absorbs light .
Spongy mesophyll	Some photosynthesis . Has air spaces for diffusion of CO ₂ and O ₂ .
Guard cells	Cells that open and close stomata .
Stoma	Opening that allows CO₂ and O₂ to diffuse in and out of the leaf.

Section 12: Cell Adaptations for Movement Within Plants

Root hair cell Extension gives a large surface area to absorb water and minerals.	
Xylem Vessels are strengthened by lignin to withstand pressure. Cell walls are waterproof.	
Phloem End of cells contain pores to allow dissolved sugars to move between cells.	
Guard Cells and Stoma Guard cells can open the stoma to allow gas exchange or close to prevent water loss.	

KNOWLEDGE



Biology Topic B5 + B6 Communicable Diseases

ORGANISER

Section 1: Pathogens and Diseases

Disease	Pathogen	How it is spread	Effect	Prevention/Control
Measles	Virus	Droplets from sneezes and coughs	Can be fatal	Vaccination of children
HIV	Virus	Sexual contact, needle exchange	Damages some white blood cells	Antiretroviral drugs when infected
Tobacco Mosaic Virus	Virus	Direct contact	Mottling of leaves, reduces photosynthesis	
Salmonella	Bacteria	Infected food	Fever, abdominal cramps, diarrhoea, vomiting	Vaccination of poultry (chickens).
Gonorrhoea	Bacteria	Sexual contact	Discharge from penis/ vagina, pain when urinating	Controlled by antibiotics. Spread prevented by condoms.
Rose Black Spot	Fungus	Spores carried by water or wind	Leaves turn yellow, fall early. Photosynthesis reduced.	Treated by fungicides or destroying affected leaves.
Malaria	Protist	By a vector – mosquito	Fever, can be fatal.	Preventing mosquitos from breeding, using mosquito nets.

Section 2: Non-Specific Defences

Trachea and Bronchi

Produces **mucus** to **trap pathogens**. Contains **cilia** to **move mucus** for swallowing

Nose

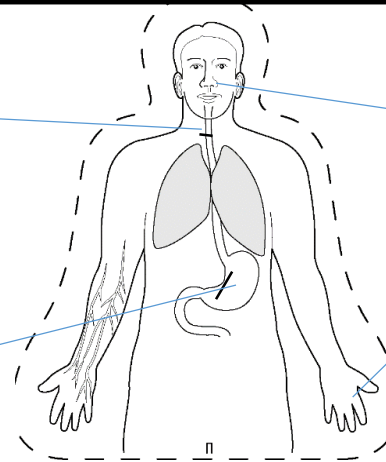
Contains **hairs** and **mucus** to **trap pathogens**

Stomach

Contains **hydrochloric acid** to destroy pathogens.

Skin

A **physical barrier** to pathogens.



Section 3: Key terms

Pathogen	A microorganism that causes disease .
Bacteria	A type of pathogen that produces toxins that damage tissues .
Viruses	A type of pathogen that lives and replicates within cells and causes cell damage . It is difficult to kill viruses without damaging cells .
Antibodies	Some white blood cells (lymphocytes) produce antibodies. These bind to pathogens and destroy them or stick them together .
Antitoxins	Some white blood cells (lymphocytes) produce antitoxins. Antitoxins neutralise toxins .
Antibiotics	Antibiotics kill bacteria . Specific antibiotics should be used for specific bacteria . Some bacteria are resistant to antibiotics. Do not kill viruses .
Painkillers	Painkillers relieve symptoms but don't kill pathogens .
Phagocytosis	Some white blood cells (phagocytes) engulf pathogens .

KNOWLEDGE



Biology Topic B5 + B6 Communicable Diseases

ORGANISER

Section 4: Preventing Infections

Hygiene	Hand washing, disinfectants on work surfaces, keeping raw meat away from food
Isolation of infected individuals	Infected individuals kept separate from healthy individuals
Destroying and controlling vectors	By killing or controlling vectors e.g. mosquitos, aphids, rodents etc the spread of disease is reduced
Vaccination	Body is injected with a small amount of inactive pathogen. If you are infected your body has developed immunity to the pathogen.


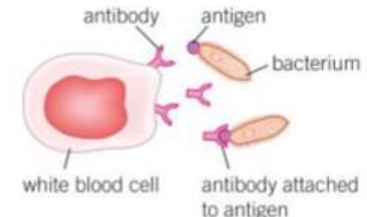
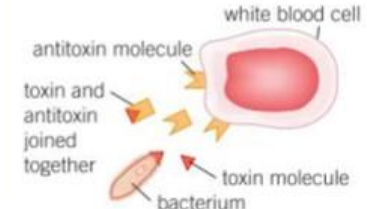
Section 6: Clinical Trials

Trial Stage	Purpose
Preclinical – cells, animals	Test for toxicity and efficacy before testing humans
Healthy volunteers	Very low doses to test for toxicity .
Patients	Larger groups. Test for toxicity , efficacy and dose . Placebos may be used in a double-blind trial .

Clinical Trial Key Terms

Placebo	A drug with no active ingredients , designed to mimic a real drug . Used to test if the effects of a drug on a patient are just psychological .
Double-blind trial	The volunteers do not know which group they are in, and neither do the researchers, until the end of the trial
Toxicity	How harmful the drug is. May have dangerous side effects .
Efficacy	How effective the drug is.
Dose	The amount of the drug given to the patient.

Section 5: Ways in which white blood cells destroy pathogens

Role of white blood cell	How it protects you against disease
Ingesting microorganisms 	Some white blood cells ingest (take in) pathogens, digesting and destroying them so they cannot make you ill.
Producing antibodies 	Some white blood cells produce special chemicals called antibodies. These target particular bacteria or viruses and destroy them. You need a unique antibody for each type of pathogen. When your white blood cells have produced antibodies once against a particular pathogen, they can be made very quickly if that pathogen gets into the body again. This stops you getting the disease twice.
Producing antitoxins 	Some white blood cells produce antitoxins. These counteract (cancel out) the toxins released by pathogens.

Section 7:

Drugs from plants	Traditionally drugs were extracted from plants
Penicillin	Discovered from penicillium mould

Section 1: Monoclonal antibodies

Monoclonal Antibodies

Monoclonal antibodies are identical copies of **one** type of **antibody** produced in a laboratory.

How to produce monoclonal antibodies:

1. A mouse is **injected** with a pathogen
2. White blood cells called **lymphocytes** produce **antibodies**
3. Lymphocytes are removed from the mouse and **fused** with rapidly dividing mouse **tumour cells**
4. The new cells are called **hybridomas**.
5. The hybridomas divide rapidly and release lots of **antibodies** which are then collected

Uses of Monoclonal Antibodies

Used in treatment of diseases and monoclonal antibodies have been developed against the antigens on cancer cells.

Monoclonal antibodies are bound to radioactive substances (or toxic drugs and chemicals) that stop cells growing and dividing.

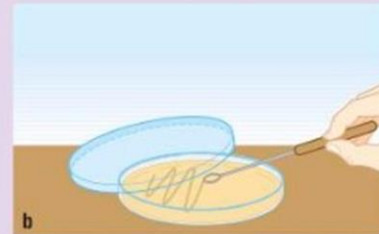
Monoclonal antibodies have side effects and are not as widely used in cancer treatment.

Monoclonal antibodies are used for diagnosis in pregnancy tests, in labs to measure levels of hormones and other chemicals in the blood to detect pathogens and to identify molecules in cells or tissues.

Section 2: Culturing microorganisms in the laboratory



Sterilise the inoculating loop used to transfer microorganisms to the agar by heating it until it is red hot in the flame of a Bunsen and then letting it cool. Do not put the loop down or blow on it as it cools.



Dip the sterilised loop in a suspension of the bacteria you want to grow and use it to make zigzag streaks across the surface of the agar. Replace the lid on the dish as quickly as possible to avoid contamination.



Fix the lid of the Petri dish with adhesive tape to prevent microorganisms from the air contaminating the culture – or microbes from the culture escaping. Do not seal all the way around the edge – as oxygen needs to get into the dish to prevent harmful anaerobic bacteria from growing.



The Petri dish should be labelled and stored upside down to stop condensation falling onto the agar surface.

Section 3: Preventing Bacterial Growth

Bacteria multiply by simple cell division if they have enough nutrients and a suitable temperature

You can investigate the effects of disinfectants and antibiotics on bacterial growth using agar plates and calculating the cross-sectional area of colonies grown or of clear areas of agar

Section 4: More about Plant Diseases

Plants can be infected by a range of viral, bacterial and fungal pathogens as well as insect pests.

We cant detect a plant is diseased by looking for unusual growths, spots or discoloured leaves and malformed leaves and stems.

If a plant disease is suspected then it can be identified by:

Gardening manuals

Gardening websites

Test kits containing monoclonal antibodies

Taking infected plants to a laboratory to identify the pathogen

Monoclonal antibodies are used for diagnosis in pregnancy tests, in labs to measure levels of hormones and other chemicals in the blood to detect pathogens and to identify molecules in cells or tissues.

Section 6: Deficiency of Mineral Ions

Nitrate ions	Needed by plants for protein synthesis and growth. Lack of nitrate ions results in stunted growth of plants.
Magnesium ions	Needed by plants to produce chlorophyll. Lack of magnesium ions results in chlorosis (yellowing of leaves due to lack of chlorophyll)

Section 7: Plant defence responses

Type of plant defence used (mechanical, physical or chemical)	What is the plant being defended against?	Describe the defence being used
Mechanical	Herbivores eating it	Thorns or hairs
Chemical	Pathogens/bacteria Herbivores/animals	The chemical released is antibacterial or poisonous
Physical	Herbivores and pathogen entry	Dead bark coating which falls off
Physical	Insects such as aphids	Waxy cuticle/cellulose cell walls are hard to penetrate



The presence of pests



Stunted growth



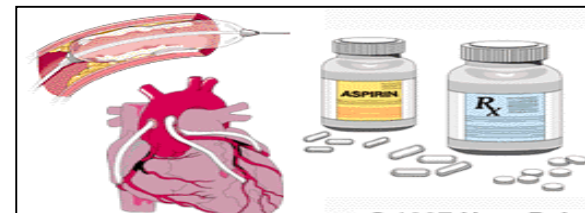
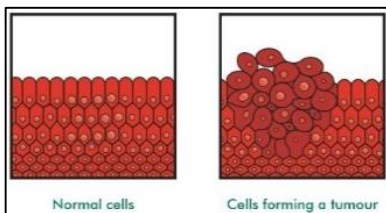
Chlorosis



Thorns

Section 1: Key Definitions

Non-communicable disease	Long term or slow progressing disease not caused by infectious pathogens.
Risk factor	Characteristic or exposure that increases the likelihood of developing a disease.
Correlation	When one thing changes when the other one does. e.g more tomatoes eaten, less heart disease.
Casual Link/Cause:	When one factor changes, the other one changes as well and there is evidence to show that the change of one factor actually causes the other to change
Cancer	Non-communicable disease caused by uncontrolled cell division.
Causes of cancer	Ionizing radiation e.g Gamma Rays, Viral infection, Chemicals in food or cigarette, Inherited mutations in the gene.
Casual Link/Cause:	When one factor changes, the other one changes as well and there is evidence to show that the change of one factor actually causes the other to change
Causes of cancer	Ionizing radiation e.g Gamma Rays, Viral infection, Chemicals in food or cigarette, Inherited mutations in the gene.
Benign tumours	Form in one place and do not spread to other tissues
Malignant tumours	May spread to different tissues and form secondary tumours
Lifestyle risk factors for cancer	Smoking, obesity, common viruses and UV light. Genetic factors are also risks for some cancers.
Carcinogens	Agents that cause cancer or increase the risk of causing cancer
Ionizing radiation	Radiation that penetrates the cells and damages chromosomes, causing mutations in the DNA.
Treating cancer	Radiotherapy – cancer cells are destroyed by targeted doses of radiation Chemotherapy – chemicals are used to stop cancer cells dividing or causing the cancer cells to 'self destruct'.
Smoking	Can cause heart disease and lung cancer Fetus exposed to smoke has restricted oxygen, which can lead to premature birth, low birthweight, and stillbirth Tobacco smoke contains carbon monoxide (a poisonous gas) and nicotine (addictive chemical)
Diet	Affects risk of developing cardiovascular diseases through cholesterol levels and through obesity. Obesity is a risk factor for type 2 diabetes Lack of exercise is a risk factor for type 2 diabetes
Alcohol	Can damage the liver and cause cirrhosis and liver cancer Can cause brain damage and death Alcohol taken by pregnant women can affect the development of the unborn baby



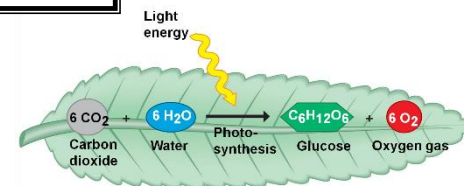
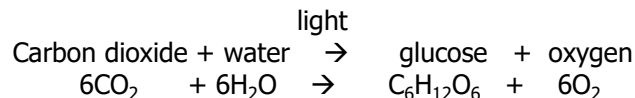
KNOWLEDGE



Biology Topic B8 Photosynthesis

ORGANISER

Section 1: Photosynthesis Equation



Section 2: Key terms

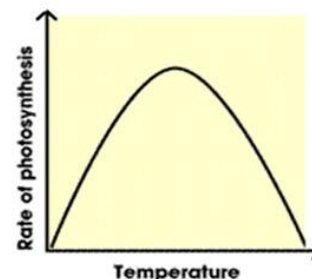
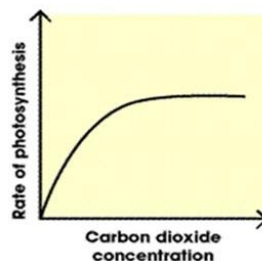
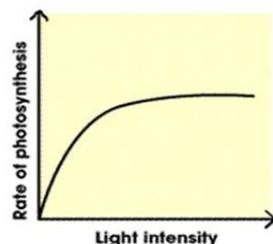
Chloroplast	The plant organelle where photosynthesis takes place.
Chlorophyll	The green pigment that absorbs energy from light .
Endothermic	Photosynthesis takes energy in (in the form of light). It is an endothermic reaction.
Diffusion	The spreading out of particles by random motion from where they are in high concentration to a low concentration. Occurs in gases and liquids.

Section 3: Uses of Glucose

Used in respiration to release energy .
Converted into starch for storage .
Converted into fats and oils for storage .
Produce cellulose to strengthen the cell wall .
Produce amino acids to make proteins (also needs nitrate ions from the soil)

Section 4: Limiting Factors

Limiting Factor	The factor that stops the rate of photosynthesis from increasing; could be light intensity, CO ₂ concentration, temperature or amount of chlorophyll.
-----------------	--



Light Intensity

Initially light is the limiting factor. When the graph plateaus something else (e.g. CO₂ concentration, temperature) is limiting the rate.

CO₂ concentration

Initially CO₂ concentration is the limiting factor. When the graph plateaus something else (e.g. light intensity, temperature) is limiting the rate.

Temperature

As temperature increases, the rate of photosynthesis increases. Above the optimum there is a decrease in photosynthesis. Enzymes needed for photosynthesis become denatured.

KNOWLEDGE



Biology Topic B9 Respiration

ORGANISER

Section 5: Respiration

Energy	Energy in organisms is needed for chemical reactions to build larger molecules, movement and keeping warm.
Aerobic Respiration	Aerobic respiration provides energy . It requires oxygen . It is an exothermic reaction (produces heat). In mitochondria . Glucose + oxygen → carbon dioxide + water (+energy) $C_6H_{12}O_6 + 6O_2 \rightarrow 6CO_2 + 6H_2O$ (+energy)
Anaerobic Respiration (muscles)	No oxygen needed. Provides less energy than aerobic respiration as glucose not fully oxidised . Occurs during intensive exercise . In cytoplasm . Glucose → lactic acid
Lactic Acid	Produced in anaerobic respiration in muscles . Build up of lactic acid causes fatigue . Lactic acid must be taken to the liver by the blood so that it can be oxidised back to glucose .
Oxygen Debt	The amount of extra oxygen the body needs after exercise to react with the lactic acid and remove it.
Anaerobic Respiration (plant and yeast cells)	No oxygen needed. In yeast cells it is called fermentation – economically important for manufacture of bread and alcoholic drinks . In cytoplasm . Glucose → ethanol + carbon dioxide

Section 5: Response to Exercise

Increase in breathing rate	Increases rate at which oxygen is taken into the lungs.
Increase in heart rate	Oxygenated blood is pumped around the body at a faster rate. Carbon dioxide is removed at a faster rate.
Increase in breath volume	A greater volume of oxygen is taken in with each breath.

Section 6a: Metabolism

Metabolism	The sum of all the reactions in a cell or body . Some of these reactions require the energy released from respiration .
------------	---

Section 6b: Metabolic Reactions

Conversion of glucose to starch, cellulose or glycogen.
Formation of lipids from glycerol and fatty acids
Use of glucose and nitrates to make amino acids (plants only)
Respiration
Breakdown of proteins to urea

Section 6a: Metabolism in the liver (Higher)

Liver	Detoxifies poisonous substances such as ethanol; passes broken down products in the blood so they can be excreted in the urine via the kidneys; converts lactic acid back into glucose.
-------	---

Liver

