

Integration of body systems

Revision notes · IB Biology C3.1: system integration, nerves and hormones, the brain and spinal cord, reflex arcs and feedback control.

For IB Diploma Biology SL undefined. **HL only** is additional higher level content, for HL students only.

Integration of body systems Spec C3.1

System integration and the hierarchy of subsystems Spec C3.1.1, C3.1.2, C3.1.3

System integration is a necessary process in living systems. Coordination is needed for the component parts of a system to collectively perform an overall function. Without it, organs would work independently and the organism could not respond to its environment as a whole.

A hierarchy of subsystems

A multicellular organism is built as a **hierarchy of subsystems**: cells form tissues, tissues form organs, and organs form body systems. Each level is integrated with the others. Integration gives **emergent properties**: abilities of the whole organism that no single part has on its own.

A **cheetah** becomes an effective predator by integration of its body systems. Its eyes detect prey, the brain processes the information and plans the chase, motor neurons stimulate skeletal muscles to contract in sequence, the skeleton provides levers, and the heart, lungs and blood supply oxygen and glucose to the muscles. No single organ can hunt; the whole integrated organism can.

How organs are integrated in animals

Nervous and endocrine signalling compared		
Feature	Nervous system	Endocrine system
Signal	Electrical impulses along neurons, chemical (neurotransmitter) across synapses	Hormones secreted by glands into the blood
Route	Along neurons to specific cells	Carried by the blood to all parts of the body; only target cells with receptors respond
Speed	Very fast (milliseconds)	Slower (seconds to hours)
Duration of effect	Usually short	Usually longer lasting
Example	Withdrawal of the hand from a painful stimulus	Epinephrine preparing the body for vigorous activity

The **blood system** integrates organs by **transporting materials and energy** between them. For example, glucose absorbed in the small intestine is carried to the liver and to muscles; oxygen from the lungs is carried to every respiring tissue; urea from the liver is carried to the kidneys; heat from active muscles is distributed around the body. The blood also carries hormones from endocrine glands to their target organs.

Exam tip: When asked to distinguish nervous and hormonal signalling, give paired points (nerve impulses vs hormones in blood; fast vs slow; short-lived vs long-lasting; specific route vs reaches all cells).

The brain, spinal cord, neurons and nerves Spec C3.1.4, C3.1.5, C3.1.6, C3.1.7, C3.1.8

The brain as the central integration organ

The brain receives impulses from many receptors at once, for example the eyes, ears and skin. It **processes information combined from several inputs**, compares it with stored information, and decides on a response. The brain is also the organ of **learning and memory**: experiences cause lasting changes in the connections between neurons, so information can be stored and recalled to modify later behaviour.

The spinal cord and unconscious processes

The **spinal cord** is an integrating centre for **unconscious processes**, such as reflexes. **Conscious processes** are those we are aware of and can control voluntarily, such as deciding to pick up a cup; they are coordinated by the cerebral hemispheres. **Unconscious processes** happen without awareness or deliberate decision, such as withdrawing a hand from a sharp object; they can be coordinated by the spinal cord without involving the brain.

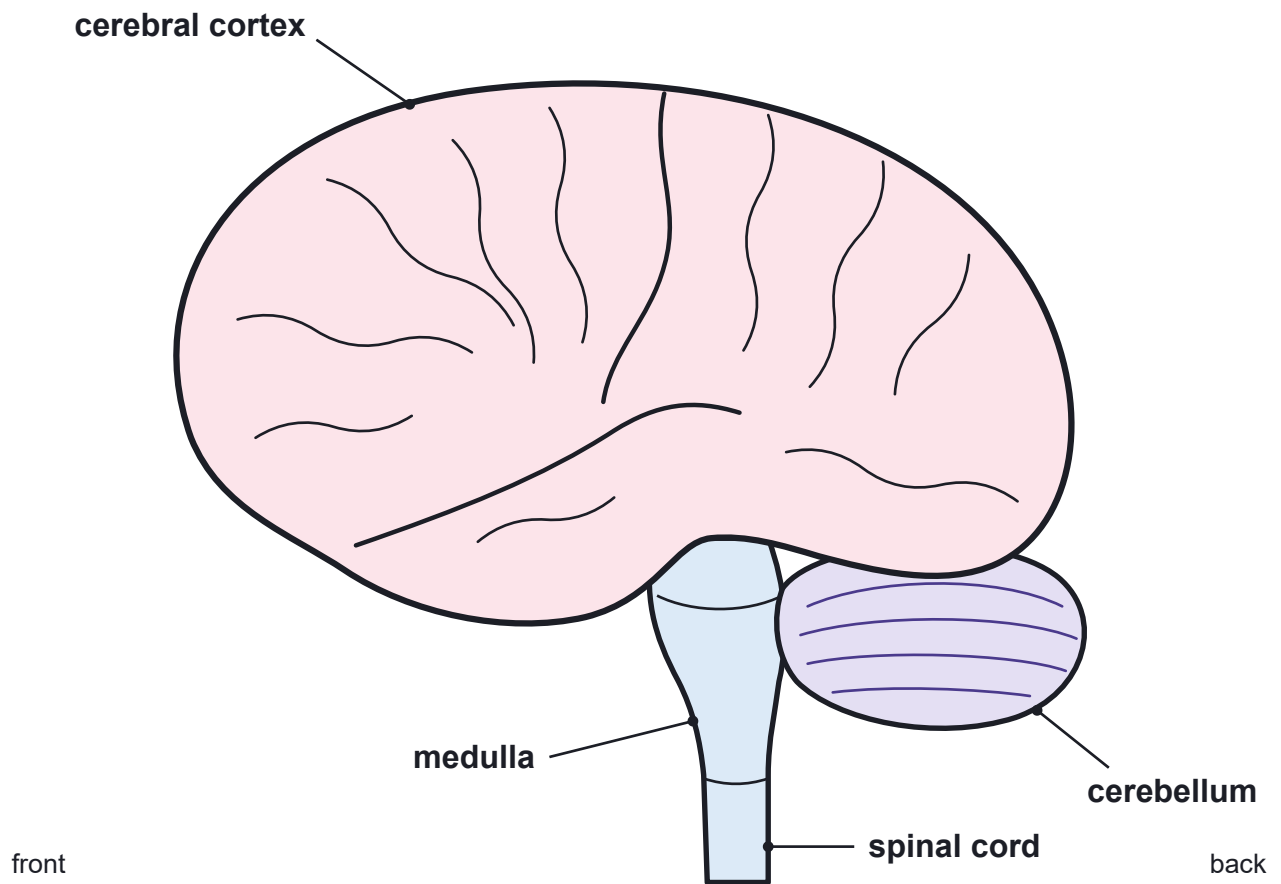
In a transverse section of the spinal cord, the central **grey matter** contains cell bodies of neurons, interneurons and synapses; the outer **white matter** contains myelinated nerve fibres that carry impulses up and down the cord.

Sensory and motor neurons

- **Sensory neurons** convey messages from receptor cells to the central nervous system (CNS): input to the spinal cord and to the cerebral hemispheres.
- **Motor neurons** carry output from the cerebral hemispheres (and the spinal cord) to muscles, which are stimulated to contract.

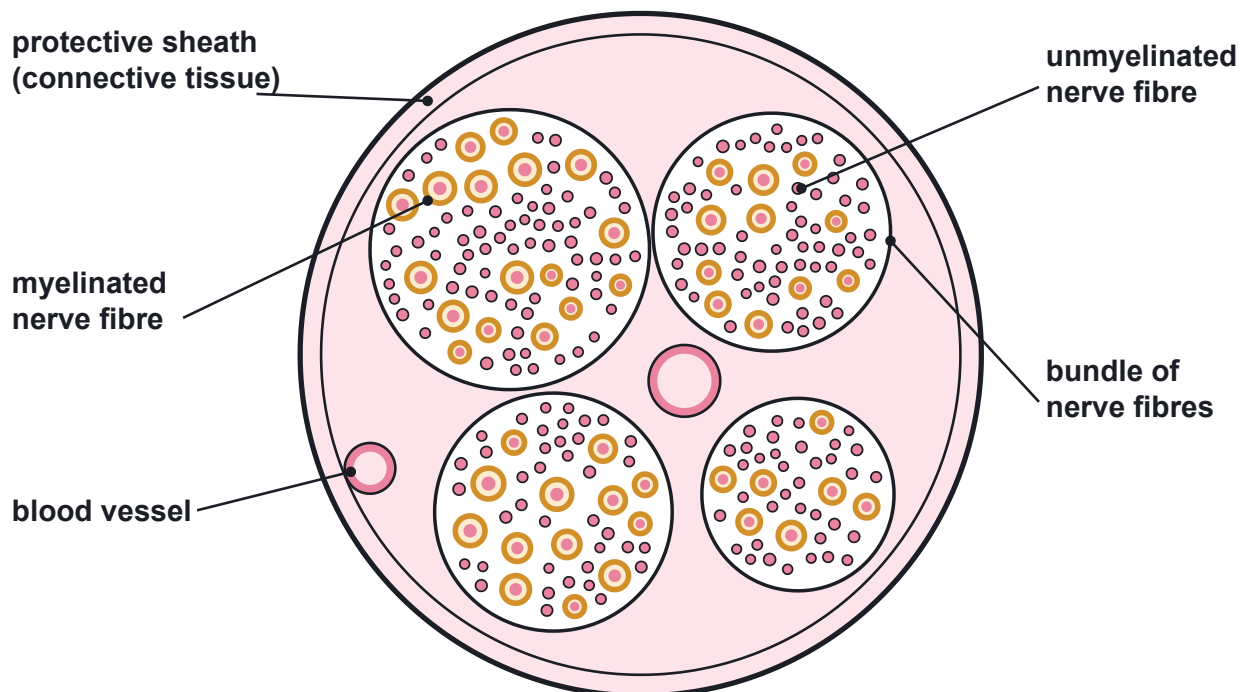
Nerves

A **nerve** is a bundle of nerve fibres (axons) of both sensory and motor neurons, surrounded by a **protective sheath** of connective tissue. A transverse section of a nerve shows many fibres; some are **myelinated** (surrounded by a myelin sheath, which speeds conduction) and some are **unmyelinated**. Blood vessels supply the fibres.



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The **cerebral cortex** (outer layer of the cerebral hemispheres) integrates conscious processes, the **cerebellum** coordinates movement and the **medulla** controls heart rate and ventilation.



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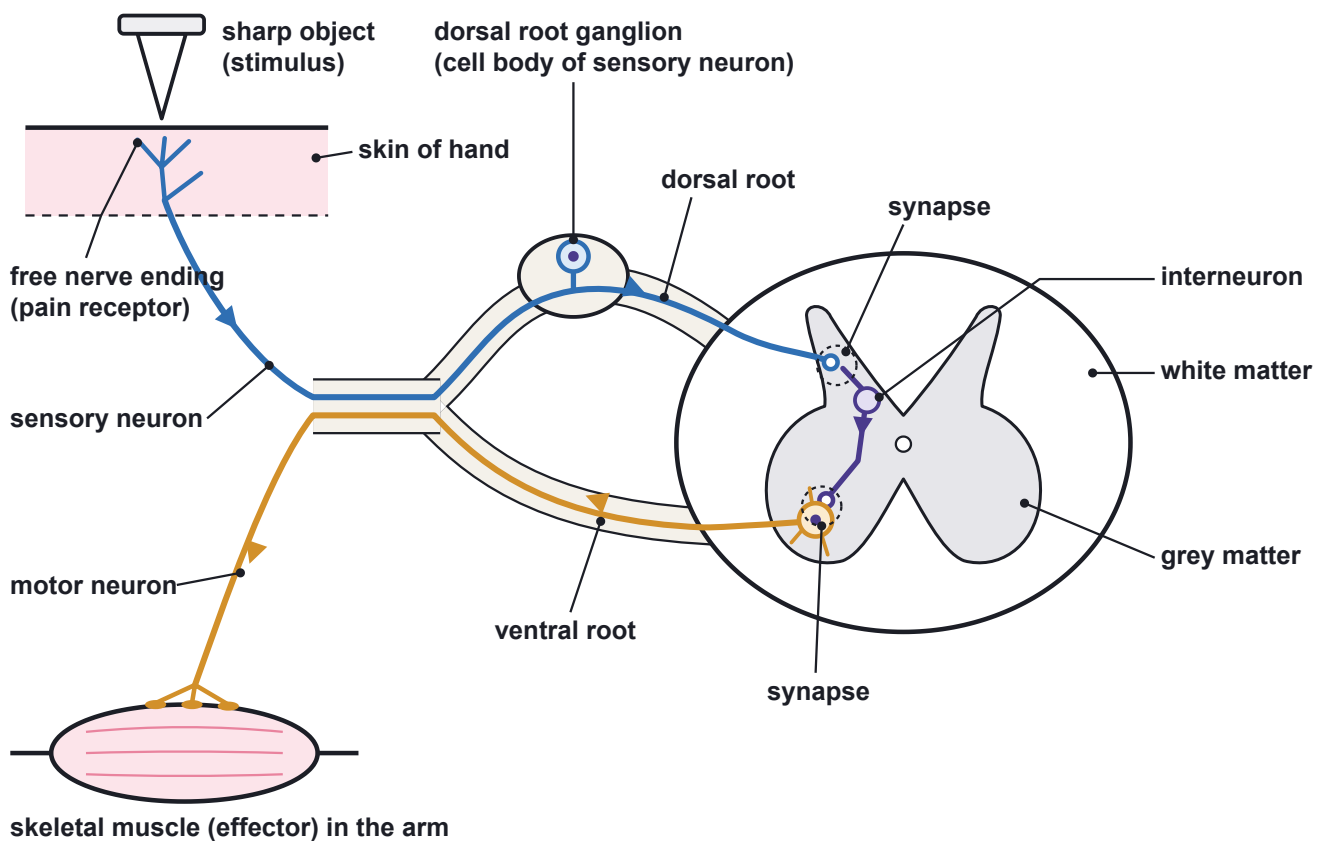
Transverse section of a nerve: a nerve contains **fibres of both sensory and motor neurons**, some myelinated and some unmyelinated, inside a protective sheath.

Pain reflex arcs and the cerebellum Spec C3.1.9, C3.1.10

A **reflex** is a rapid, involuntary response to a stimulus. The pain reflex arc is an example of an involuntary response with **skeletal muscle as the effector**. Because the spinal cord, not the brain, processes the signal, the response is fast and does not need a conscious decision.

1. A sharp object pricks the hand. A **free sensory nerve ending** of a sensory neuron acts as the pain receptor and generates nerve impulses.
2. The sensory neuron carries impulses to the spinal cord, entering through the dorsal root.
3. In the grey matter of the spinal cord, the sensory neuron synapses with a single **interneuron**.
4. The interneuron synapses with a motor neuron, which carries impulses out of the spinal cord through the ventral root.
5. The motor neuron stimulates a skeletal muscle (for example the biceps) to contract, pulling the hand away.

Other interneurons also pass impulses up the spinal cord to the brain, so the pain is felt consciously, but only after the withdrawal has already begun.



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The pain reflex arc: sensory neuron → interneuron in the grey matter → motor neuron → skeletal muscle. Arrows show the direction of the impulse.

The cerebellum

The **cerebellum**, at the back of the brain below the cerebral hemispheres, coordinates skeletal muscle contraction and balance. It receives information about body position from muscles, joints, the inner ear and the eyes, and adjusts the timing and strength of muscle contractions so that movements are smooth and accurate and posture is maintained. It is important in learned motor skills such as walking, riding a bicycle or writing.

Common mistake: The cerebellum does not start voluntary movements; the cerebral hemispheres do. The cerebellum coordinates them and keeps the body balanced.

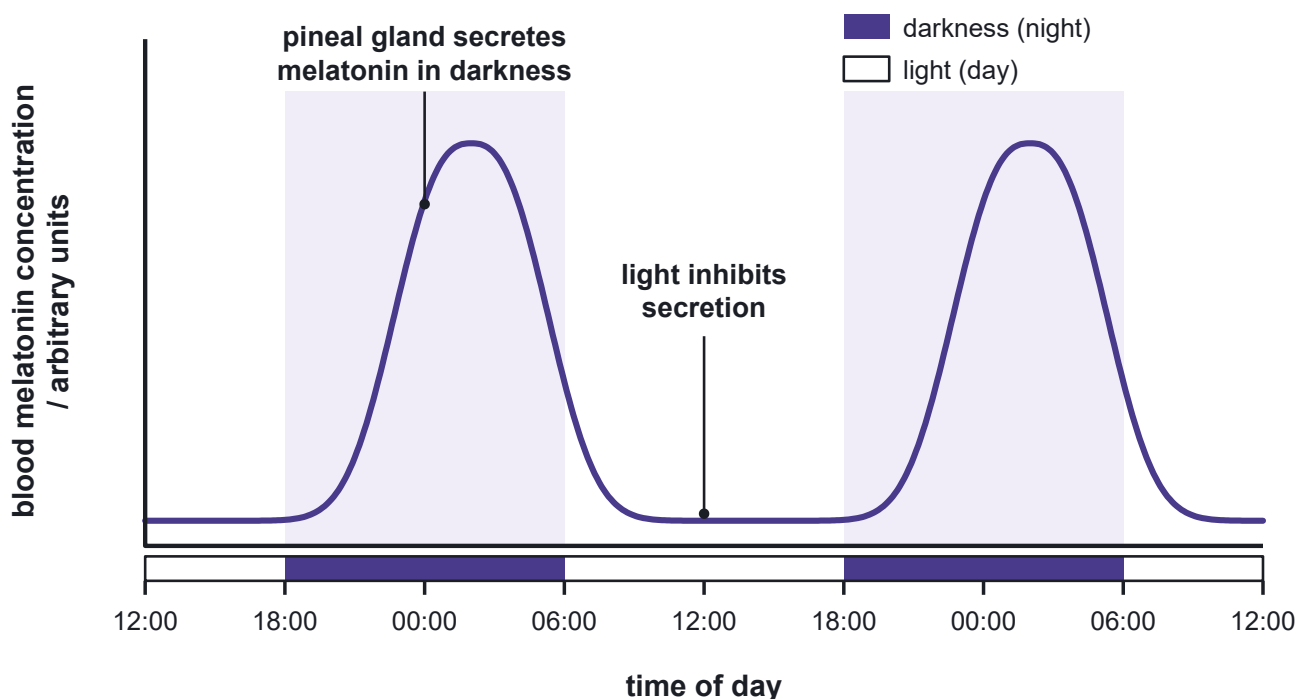
Melatonin, epinephrine and control by the hypothalamus and pituitary

Spec C3.1.11, C3.1.12, C3.1.13

Melatonin and circadian rhythms

Circadian rhythms are cycles in body activity that repeat about every 24 hours. **Melatonin** is secreted by the **pineal gland** in the brain with a diurnal pattern: secretion increases in the evening as it gets dark, stays high during the night and falls to a low level in the morning. Light detected by the retina is signalled to the hypothalamus, which inhibits melatonin secretion during the day.

High melatonin levels promote sleepiness and a fall in body temperature; low levels in the morning allow waking. In this way melatonin modulates sleep patterns and helps to establish a cycle of sleeping and waking. Shifting the light-dark cycle, as in jet lag or night-shift work, disrupts this pattern.



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Melatonin secretion over two days (illustrative): the pineal gland secretes melatonin **in darkness**; light inhibits secretion.

Epinephrine (adrenaline)

Epinephrine is secreted by the **adrenal glands** to prepare the body for vigorous activity, for example in response to danger or before a race. It has widespread effects, which together supply skeletal muscles with the oxygen and glucose they need for intense contraction:

- heart rate and stroke volume increase, so more blood is pumped per minute
- arterioles to skeletal muscles dilate; arterioles to the gut and skin constrict, diverting blood to the muscles
- airways (bronchioles) widen and ventilation rate increases, so more oxygen is absorbed
- glycogen in the liver is broken down to glucose, raising blood glucose concentration
- pupils dilate and mental alertness increases

The hypothalamus and pituitary gland

The endocrine system is controlled by the **hypothalamus and pituitary gland**. The **hypothalamus**, at the base of the brain, links the nervous and endocrine systems: it receives information from the nervous system and from the blood, and responds by sending signals (releasing hormones and nerve impulses) to the pituitary gland. The **pituitary gland**, below the hypothalamus, then secretes hormones that travel in the blood and regulate other endocrine glands and organs, for example thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH), FSH and LH, growth hormone and ADH.

Exam tip: You only need a general understanding of hypothalamus–pituitary control. Differences between the anterior and posterior pituitary are not required.

Feedback control of heart rate and ventilation rate Spec C3.1.14, C3.1.15

Receptors and their location

Sensory input for heart rate and ventilation control		
Receptor	What it monitors	Location
Baroreceptors	Blood pressure (stretch of the artery wall)	Walls of the aorta (aortic arch) and the carotid arteries (carotid sinus)
Peripheral chemoreceptors	Blood pH and concentrations of oxygen and carbon dioxide	Aortic bodies and carotid bodies
Central chemoreceptors	pH (and so carbon dioxide concentration)	Brainstem (medulla)

Control of heart rate

The **medulla** (in the brainstem) coordinates the response. It sends nerve impulses to the heart through two nerves: impulses along a **sympathetic nerve** increase heart rate and the force of contraction (stroke volume); impulses along the **vagus nerve** (parasympathetic) decrease heart rate. Both act on the pacemaker (sinoatrial node); sympathetic impulses also act on the ventricle walls to increase the force of contraction.

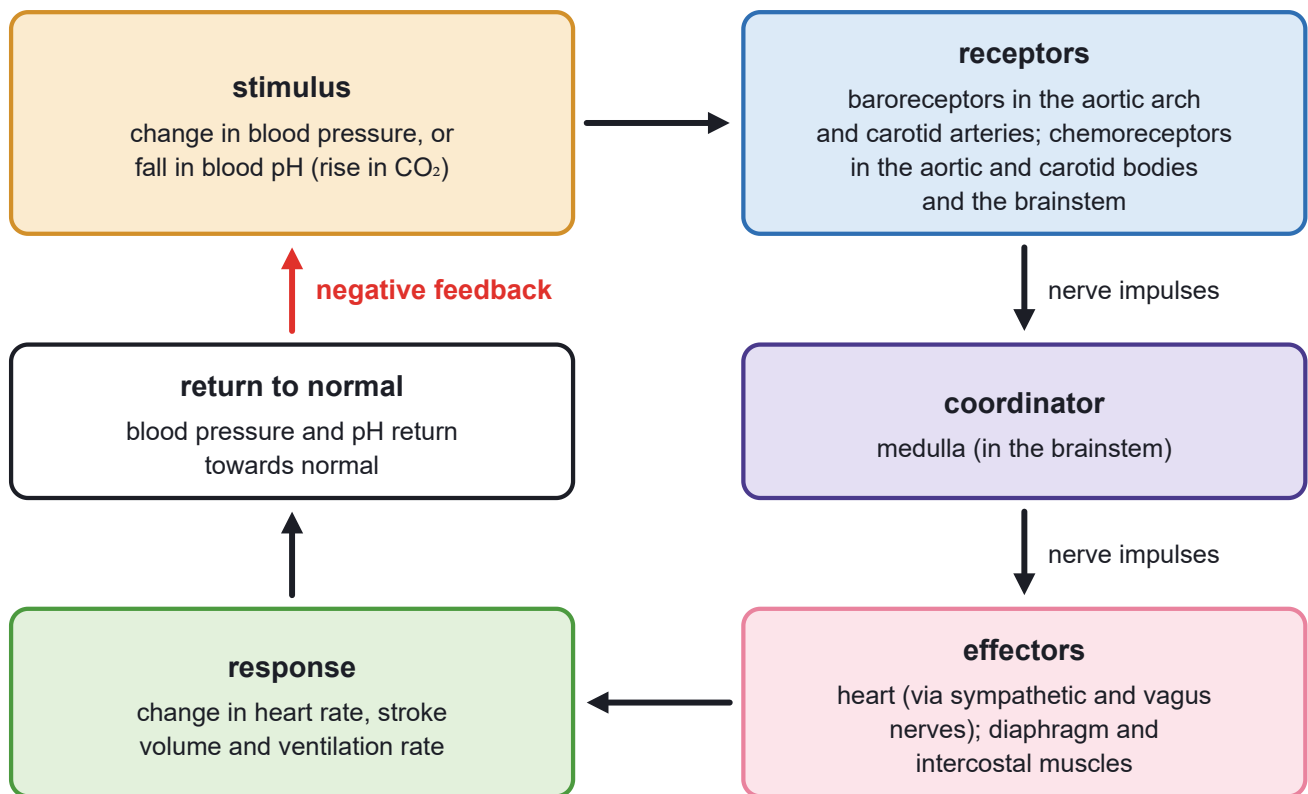
1. During exercise, muscles respire faster, so blood carbon dioxide rises and pH falls; blood oxygen may fall.
2. Chemoreceptors detect the change and send impulses to the medulla.
3. The medulla sends more impulses along the sympathetic nerve to the heart: heart rate and stroke volume increase.
4. More blood flows to the lungs and muscles, removing carbon dioxide and supplying oxygen, so pH returns towards normal.
5. If blood pressure rises too high, baroreceptors are stretched more and send more impulses to the medulla, which sends impulses along the vagus nerve to slow the heart: **negative feedback**.

Control of ventilation rate

Blood pH changes mainly because of carbon dioxide. Carbon dioxide reacts with water to form carbonic acid, which dissociates into hydrogen ions and hydrogencarbonate ions: $\text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{CO}_3 \rightarrow \text{H}^+ + \text{HCO}_3^-$. So when respiration increases, more CO_2 enters the blood and **blood pH falls**. Lactic acid from anaerobic respiration in muscles can lower pH further.

Chemoreceptors in the brainstem detect the fall in pH and the medulla sends more nerve impulses to the **diaphragm** and **intercostal muscles**. These contract more often and more strongly, so the

ventilation rate and depth increase. More CO₂ is exhaled, blood pH rises back towards normal, and the stimulus is reduced: negative feedback.



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Control of heart rate and ventilation rate by **negative feedback**: the response removes the stimulus.

Common mistake: Ventilation rate is mainly driven by a rise in CO₂ (fall in pH), not by a fall in O₂. Write 'chemoreceptors detect a fall in blood pH' rather than 'the body detects a lack of oxygen'.

Maths skill: Exercise data often ask for a percentage change: $(\text{new value} - \text{original value}) \div \text{original value} \times 100$. A heart rate rising from 70 to 140 beats per minute is a 100% increase.

Control of peristalsis by the CNS and enteric nervous system Spec C3.1.16

Peristalsis is the coordinated contraction and relaxation of circular and longitudinal smooth muscle in the wall of the gut. Contraction of circular muscle behind the food squeezes it forward; the wave of contraction travels along the gut.

Control of the digestive system is shared between two parts of the nervous system:

Voluntary and involuntary control of movement through the gut		
Stage	Type of control	Controlled by
Initiation of swallowing	Voluntary	Central nervous system (CNS)
Peristalsis from oesophagus to rectum	Involuntary	Enteric nervous system (ENS)
Egestion of faeces	Voluntary	Central nervous system (CNS)

The **enteric nervous system** is a network of neurons in the wall of the gut, from the oesophagus to the anus. It detects stretching of the gut wall by food and coordinates waves of peristalsis without input from the brain. The action of the ENS ensures that the passage of material through the gut is **coordinated**, so food spends long enough in each region for digestion and absorption.

Exam tip: Linking question: the ENS forms a net-like (reticulate) network in the gut wall, while neurons branch in a dendritic pattern. Be ready to give these as examples of patterns of organization.

Quick check

1. What is meant by an emergent property, and what example does the IB guide use?
2. Which part of the nervous system is an integrating centre for unconscious processes?
3. Where are baroreceptors located?
4. Which gland secretes melatonin, and when is secretion highest?

Quick check answers

Integration of body systems

- 1 . A property of the whole organism that arises from integration of its parts; a cheetah becomes an effective predator through integration of its body systems.
- 2 . The spinal cord.
- 3 . In the walls of the aorta (aortic arch) and the carotid arteries.
- 4 . The pineal gland; secretion is highest at night, in darkness.