Chapter 6 Life Processes

Life processes are the essential activities that living organisms carry out to maintain their life. These processes are crucial for the survival of all living organisms. In this chapter we will be studying about **Nutrition**, **Respiration**, **Transportation** and **Excretion**.

Nutrition

The process of taking in food and converting it into energy for the body is called nutrition. It includes ingestion, digestion, absorption, assimilation, and egestion.

Types of nutrition: Autotrophic and Heterotrophic.

<u>Autotrophic nutrition</u>: In this mode of nutrition an organism prepares its own food by the process of photosynthesis. For example: green plants and blue-green algae. Such organisms are called autotrophs.

<u>Photosynthesis</u>: The process by which green plants prepare their own food is called photosynthesis. During photosynthesis, carbon dioxide (CO₂) from the air and water (H₂O) from the soil are combined to produce glucose (C₆H₁₂O₆) and oxygen gas(O₂). Following events occur during photosynthesis:

- > Absorption of light energy by chlorophyll.
- Conversion of light energy to chemical energy.
- > Splitting of water molecules into hydrogen and oxygen.
- Reduction of carbon dioxide to carbohydrates.

$$6\text{CO}_2 + 12\text{H}_2\text{O} \xrightarrow{\text{Chlorophyll}} \text{Sunlight} \xrightarrow{\text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6} + 6\text{O}_2 + 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$$
(Glucose)

Stomata: Stomata are small openings on the surface of plant leaves that allow for gaseous exchange and transpiration. The opening and closing of stomata is controlled by specialized cells called guard cells. The guard cells swell when water flows into them from the surrounding cells causing the stomatal pore to open. Similarly, the pore closes if the guard cells shrink.

<u>Heterotrophic nutrition</u>: Heterotrophic nutrition is a type of nutrition where an organism obtains its food from other organisms. For example: deer, fungi, etc. Such organisms are called heterotrophs.

Types of heterotrophic nutrition: saprophytic, holozoic, and parasitic.

- <u>Saprophytic Nutrition</u>: Saprophytic nutrition is a type of nutrition in which an organism obtains its food by feeding on dead and decaying organic matter. The organism secretes digestive juices on the food material and then the digested food is ingested by the organism. Few examples are fungi like bread moulds, yeast and mushrooms.
- <u>Holozoic Nutrition</u>: In holozoic nutrition, the digestion happens inside the body of the organism after the food is ingested.
- <u>Parasitic Nutrition</u>: Parasitic nutrition is a type of nutrition in which an organism (parasite) feeds on another living organism (called the host). For example, cuscuta (amar-bel), ticks, lice, leeches and tape-worms.

Nutrition in Amoeba:

Amoeba is a unicellular organism that exhibits holozoic nutrition. Amoeba's nutrition is a combination of ingestion, digestion, absorption, assimilation and egestion of food.



Fig: Nutrition in Amoeba

- When the amoeba encounters a food particle, it extends its pseudopodia around the food and engulfs it.
- The food is then enclosed in a food vacuole within the cytoplasm of the amoeba.
 Digestive enzymes are secreted in the food vacuole and digestion takes place.
- Digested food is absorbed by the cytoplasm and used for energy production, growth, and repair.
- After the digestion is complete, the undigested waste materials are eliminated from the cell through a process called exocytosis.

Nutrition in Human Beings

Human beings exhibit holozoic nutrition, which involves the ingestion of food followed by the digestion, absorption, and assimilation of nutrients. The human digestive

system includes alimentary canal and several other organs, such as the salivary glands, liver, gallbladder, and pancreas, which produce and secrete digestive juices and enzymes that help in the digestive process.

- Alimentary canal comprises of oesophagus, mouth, stomach. small intestine and large intestine.
- The mouth has teeth, tongue and salivary glands. The tongue helps in tasting the food, mixing the food with saliva and swallowing the food.
- o Teeth help in breaking down the food so that, swallowing becomes easier.



 Salivary glands secrete saliva. Saliva contains salivary amylase enzyme. Salivary amylase digests starch and converts it into simple sugar. Also, saliva makes the food slippery which makes it easy to swallow the food.

- Oesophagus (food pipe) takes food from mouth to stomach by peristaltic movement. Peristaltic movement is rhythmic contraction of muscles of the lining of the alimentary canal to push the food forward.
- Stomach is a large bag-like organ. The muscular walls of the stomach help in mixing the food thoroughly with digestive juices. Gastric glands present in the wall of the stomach release hydrochloric acid, pepsin (a protein digesting enzyme), and mucus.
- Hydrochloric acid makes the medium inside the stomach acidic which is necessary for *pepsin* enzyme to work. It also kills the germs present in food.
- The enzyme *pepsin* helps in digestion of proteins.
- The mucus, secreted by the walls of the stomach saves the inner lining of the stomach from getting damaged from hydrochloric acid.

- The <u>small intestine</u> is a long, narrow tube-like organ located in the lower part of the digestive tract. It is the longest part of the digestive system. Also, it is the site of the complete digestion of carbohydrates, proteins and fats. It receives <u>bile juice</u> and <u>pancreatic juice</u> for this purpose.
- Bile juice is produced by <u>liver</u> and stored in <u>gall bladder</u>. i) Bile neutralises the acidity of food coming from stomach. ii) A major function of bile is to break fat into fine globules for the action of *lipase* enzyme. Breaking of fat into fine globules is called <u>emulsification of fats</u>.
- <u>Pancreas</u> secretes pancreatic juice which contains *trypsin* for digesting proteins, *lipase* for breaking down emulsified fats and *pancreatic amylase* for digestion of carbohydrates.
- The walls of small intestine secrete <u>intestinal juice</u> which finally convert the proteins to amino acids, complex carbohydrates into glucose and fats into fatty acids and glycerol.
- The inner lining of the small intestine has numerous finger-like projections called <u>villi</u> which increase the surface area for absorption. The villi are richly supplied with blood vessels and they help in absorption of digested food.
- The undigested food goes into the <u>large intestine</u>. Absorption of water takes place in large intestine. After that, the undigested food goes to the rectum, from where it is removed from the body through the anus (egestion).

Respiration

Respiration is the process of releasing energy from food.

Types of respiration: aerobic respiration and anaerobic respiration

Aerobic respiration

- happens in the presence of oxygen
- o occurs in *mitochondria*
- carbon dioxide and water are formed
- more amount of energy is released

Anaerobic respiration

- o happens in the absence of oxygen or lack of oxygen
- o occurs in *cytoplasm*
- o end products are alcohol or lactic acid
- o less amount of energy is released



Fig: Break-down of glucose by various pathways

During <u>heavy exercise</u>, there is high demand for energy but the supply of oxygen to produce energy is limited. Therefore, <u>anaerobic</u> respiration takes places in the muscles cells to fulfil the demand for energy. and leads to the formation of <u>lactic acid</u> in muscles. The accumulation of lactic acid in muscles leads to **muscle cramps**.

Gaseous exchange during respiration

- For <u>aerobic respiration</u>, organisms need a continuous supply of oxygen, and carbon dioxide produced during the process needs to be removed from the body.
- <u>Diffusion</u> is the method which is used by unicellular and some simple organisms for intake of oxygen and removal of carbon dioxide. <u>Plants</u> also use diffusion for exchange of gases.
- <u>Gills</u> are the respiratory organs for <u>fishes</u>. Fishes take in oxygen which is dissolved in water through gills. The <u>breathing rate</u> of aquatic organisms is faster as availability of oxygen is less in the aquatic environment.
- Insects breathe through a system of tiny tubes called <u>tracheae</u>, which are connected to the outside through small openings on their body called <u>spiracles</u>.
- Terrestrial organisms have developed <u>lungs</u> for exchange of gases.
- Availability of oxygen is not a problem in the terrestrial environment so breathing rate is <u>slower</u> as compared to what it is in fishes.

Human Respiratory System

The human respiratory system is composed of a pair of lungs, nostrils, pharynx, larynx, trachea, bronchi, bronchioles and alveoli.

- The inner lining of the <u>nostrils</u> is lined by hair and remains wet due to <u>mucus</u> secretion. This helps to filter the air we breathe in, blocking dirt and dust from getting into our lungs.
- <u>Pharynx</u> is a tube-like structure which continues after the nasal passage.
- Larynx is the voice box.
- <u>Trachea</u> is composed of rings of cartilage. These rings prevent the collapse of trachea in the absence of air.
- Trachea divides into a pair of <u>bronchi</u>, with one bronchus going to each lung. A bronchus divides into branches and sub-branches inside the lung called as <u>bronchioles</u>
- <u>Alveoli</u> are balloon-like air sacs at the end of bronchioles. They provide a surface where the exchange of gases can take place. The walls of the alveoli contain an extensive network of blood-vessels where the oxygen mixes with the blood and carbon dioxide exits from the blood.



Fig: Human respiratory system

Transportation in Human Beings

Transportation in human beings refers to the process of moving substances such as oxygen, nutrients, hormones, and waste products throughout the body. <u>Circulatory system</u> is responsible for the transportation of the various substances. It is composed of the <u>heart</u>, <u>arteries</u>, <u>veins</u>, <u>blood capillaries</u> and <u>blood</u>.

- The <u>heart</u> is a muscular organ which is as big as our fist. It pumps blood throughout the body.
- Heart consists of <u>four</u> different <u>chambers</u> (two ventricles and two auricles) to prevent the <u>oxygen-rich blood</u> from mixing with the blood containing <u>carbon</u> <u>dioxide</u>.
- The <u>pulmonary veins</u> carry oxygen-rich blood from <u>lungs</u> to the <u>left atrium</u>. After that, the <u>left ventricle</u> contracts and pumps the oxygen rich blood to the rest of the body parts through <u>aorta</u>.
- The <u>vena cava</u> carries deoxygenated blood (carbon dioxide rich blood) from different body parts to the <u>right atrium</u>. The <u>right ventricle</u> contracts and pumps the deoxygenated blood back to the <u>lungs</u> via <u>pulmonary arteries</u>.
- Arteries are <u>thick-walled</u> blood vessels which carry <u>oxygenated</u> blood from the heart to different organs except <u>pulmonary arteries</u>. Pulmonary arteries carry <u>deoxygenated</u> blood from the heart to lungs.
- The arteries have thick and elastic walls as blood emerges under <u>high pressure</u> from the heart.
- Veins are <u>thin-walled</u> blood vessels which carry <u>deoxygenated</u> blood from different organs to the heart, except <u>pulmonary veins</u> because they carry <u>oxygenated</u> blood from lungs to the heart. <u>Valves</u> are present in the veins to prevent back flow of blood.
- The arteries divide into smaller and smaller blood vessels so that the blood reaches to all individual cells. <u>Capillaries</u> are smallest blood vessels that have single-celled walls.
- <u>Platelets</u> help in <u>blood coagulation</u> which prevents excess loss of blood in case of an injury.
- <u>Red Blood Corpuscles</u> (RBCs) are of red colour because of the presence of <u>haemoglobin</u>. Haemoglobin also helps in the <u>transport</u> of oxygen.
- Lymph is formed from a yellowish fluid which leaks from <u>blood capillaries</u> and goes to the <u>intercellular</u> space in the tissues. This fluid is collected through <u>lymph vessels</u> and finally returned to the <u>blood capillaries</u> (veins).
- o Lymph also helps in killing germs and plays important role in the immune system.

Double circulation

- The blood passes through the heart twice in one complete cycle. This is called <u>double circulation</u>.
- Double circulation ensures complete separation of oxygenated and deoxygenated blood. This allows a <u>highly efficient</u> supply of oxygen to the body of warm-blooded animals, like birds and mammals, as they have high energy needs.
- o Animals like <u>amphibians</u> or many <u>reptiles have three-chambered</u> hearts.
- <u>Fishes</u> have two-chambered heart. The blood is pumped to the gills, is oxygenated there, and passes directly to the rest of the body.



Transportation in Plants

- Xylem is responsible for transportation of <u>water and minerals</u> in plants.
- It carries water and minerals from the roots to the other parts of plant.
- The walls of cells of root hairs are very thin. Water from soil enters the root hairs because of <u>osmosis</u>. Root pressure and <u>transpiration</u> is responsible for movement of water up to the base of the stem.
- Loss of excess water through stomata in plants is called transpiration.
 Transpiration creates vacuum which creates a <u>suction pull</u>. Due to suction pull water is able to rise to great heights even in the tallest plants.

- **Phloem** is responsible for transportation of food in plants.
- It carries the food prepared during photosynthesis from leaves to the other parts of the plant. This process is known as translocation.

Excretion in Human beings

The process of removal of the harmful metabolic wastes from the body is called **excretion**. The excretory system of human beings includes a <u>pair of kidneys</u>, <u>a pair of ureters</u>, a <u>urinary bladder</u> and a <u>urethra</u>.

- Urine is produced in the kidneys.
- o It passes through the ureters into the urinary bladder.
- o It is stored in urinary bladder until it is released through the urethra.
- Nephron is the basic functional (filtration) unit of the kidney.

Structure of nephron

Nephron is a long tube-like structure composed of a cluster of very thin-walled blood capillaries called <u>glomerulus</u>. Glomerulus is enclosed in a cup-shaped structure known as <u>bowman's capsule</u>. Bowman's capsule is connected to a <u>tubular part</u> of nephron that collects the filtered urine. Tubes from all the nephrons converge into <u>collecting duct</u>, which finally goes to the <u>ureter</u>.

Functions of nephron

- Filtration: Nitrogenous wastes, glucose, water, amino acids and salts are filtered from the blood into <u>bowman's capsule</u> of the nephron.
- Reabsorption: Useful substances from the filtrate are reabsorbed back by the <u>blood capillaries</u> surrounding the <u>tubules</u> of nephron.
- Secretion: Extra water, salts are secreted into the tubule which opens up into the <u>collecting duct</u> and then into the ureter.



Fig: Structure of a nephron

Excretion in Plants

- Plants excrete waste through various organs, such as roots, leaves, stems, and reproductive organs. The main excretory products in plants include oxygen, water and carbon dioxide
- $\circ~$ They can get rid of excess water by transpiration.
- Wastes stored in leaves, bark etc. fall off from the plant.
- Plants excrete some waste into the soil around them.

