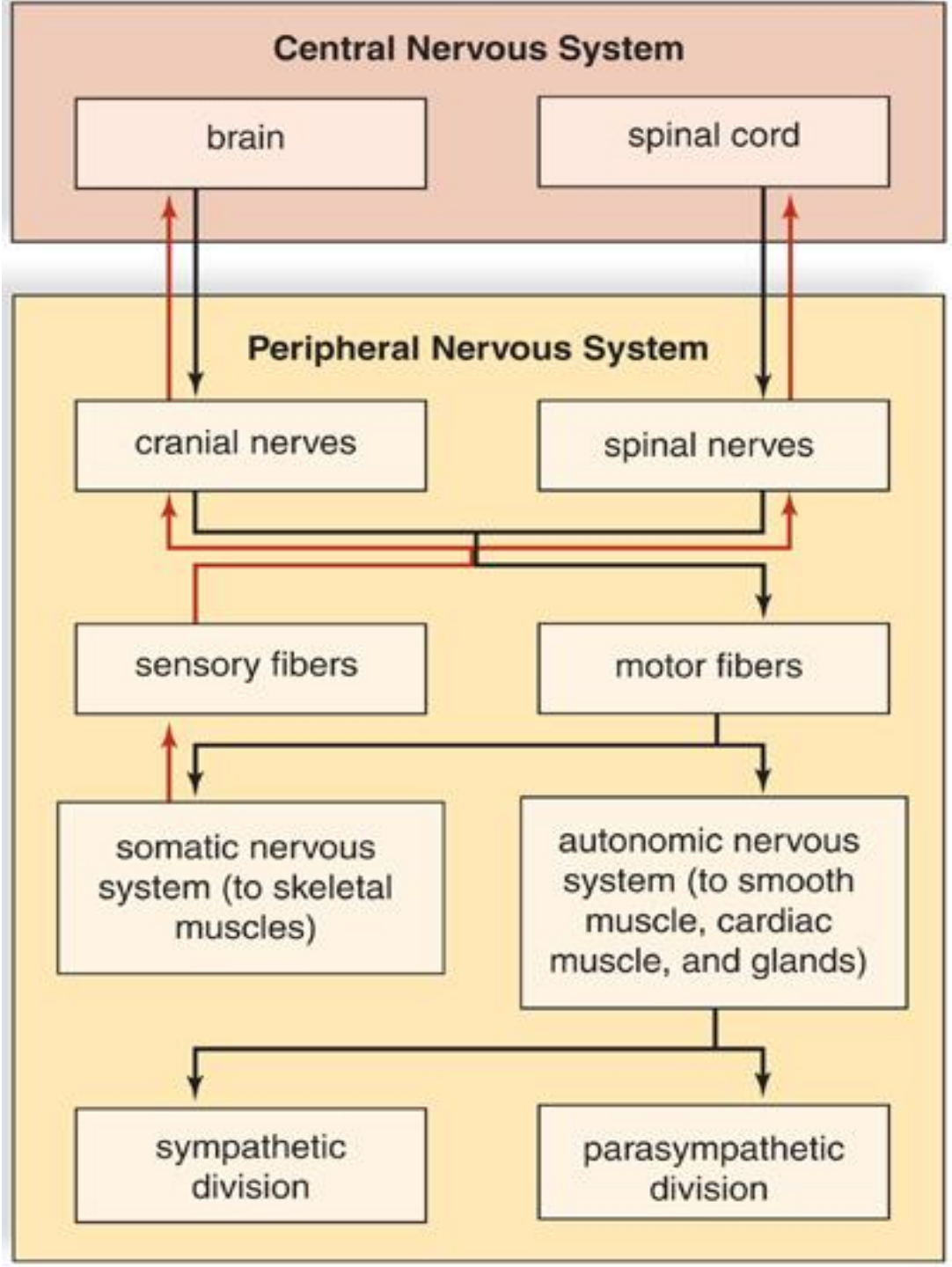
UNIT 4 REVIEW
CHAPTERS 12-14

CHAPTER 12: NERVOUS SYSTEM

The Nervous System

- The nervous system consists of the 2 parts
  - The Central Nervous System (CNS) consists of the brain and spinal cord
  - The Peripheral Nervous System (PNS) consists of the nerves extending from the brain and spinal cord → cranial nerves and spinal nerves respectively

- The CNS and PNS are formed from tiny nerve cells called neurons


Central Nervous System
brain
spinal cord
Peripheral Nervous System
cranial nerves
spinal nerves
sensory fibers
motor fibers
somatic nervous system (to skeletal muscles)
autonomic nervous system (to smooth muscle, cardiac muscle, and glands)
sympathetic division
parasympathetic division

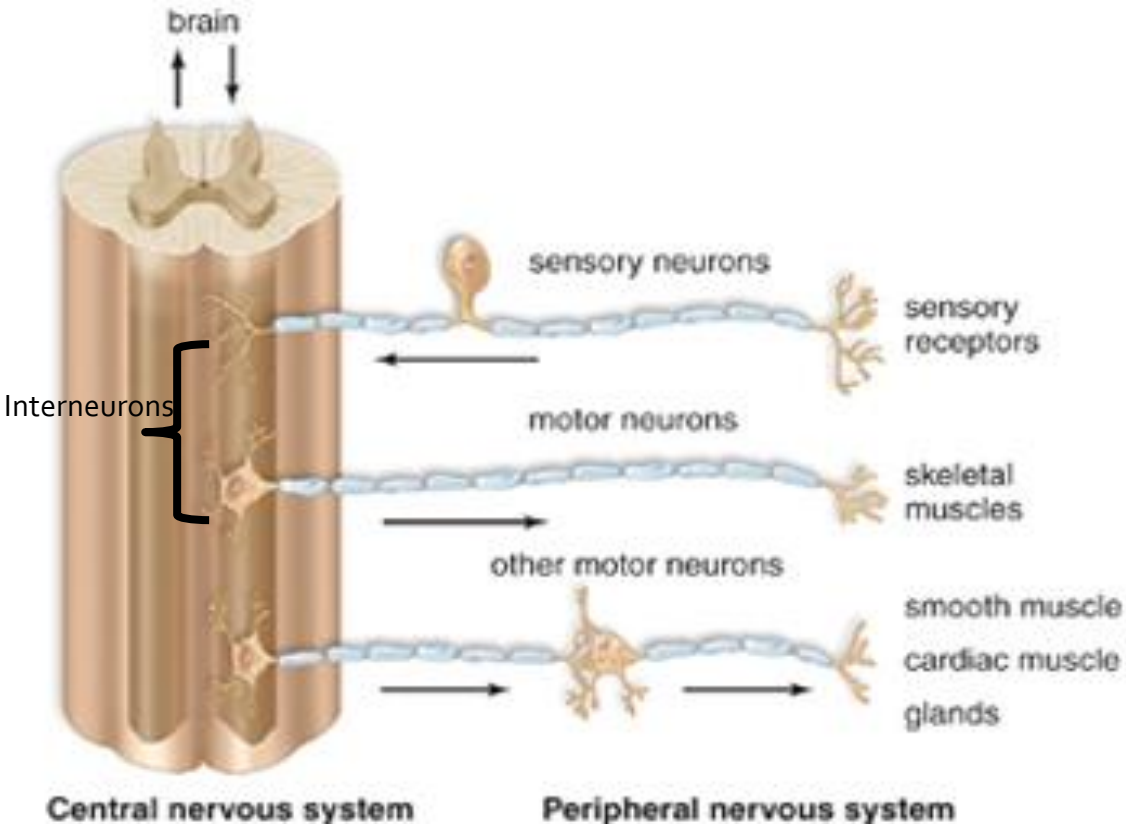
Neurons = 3 Types make up the Nervous System

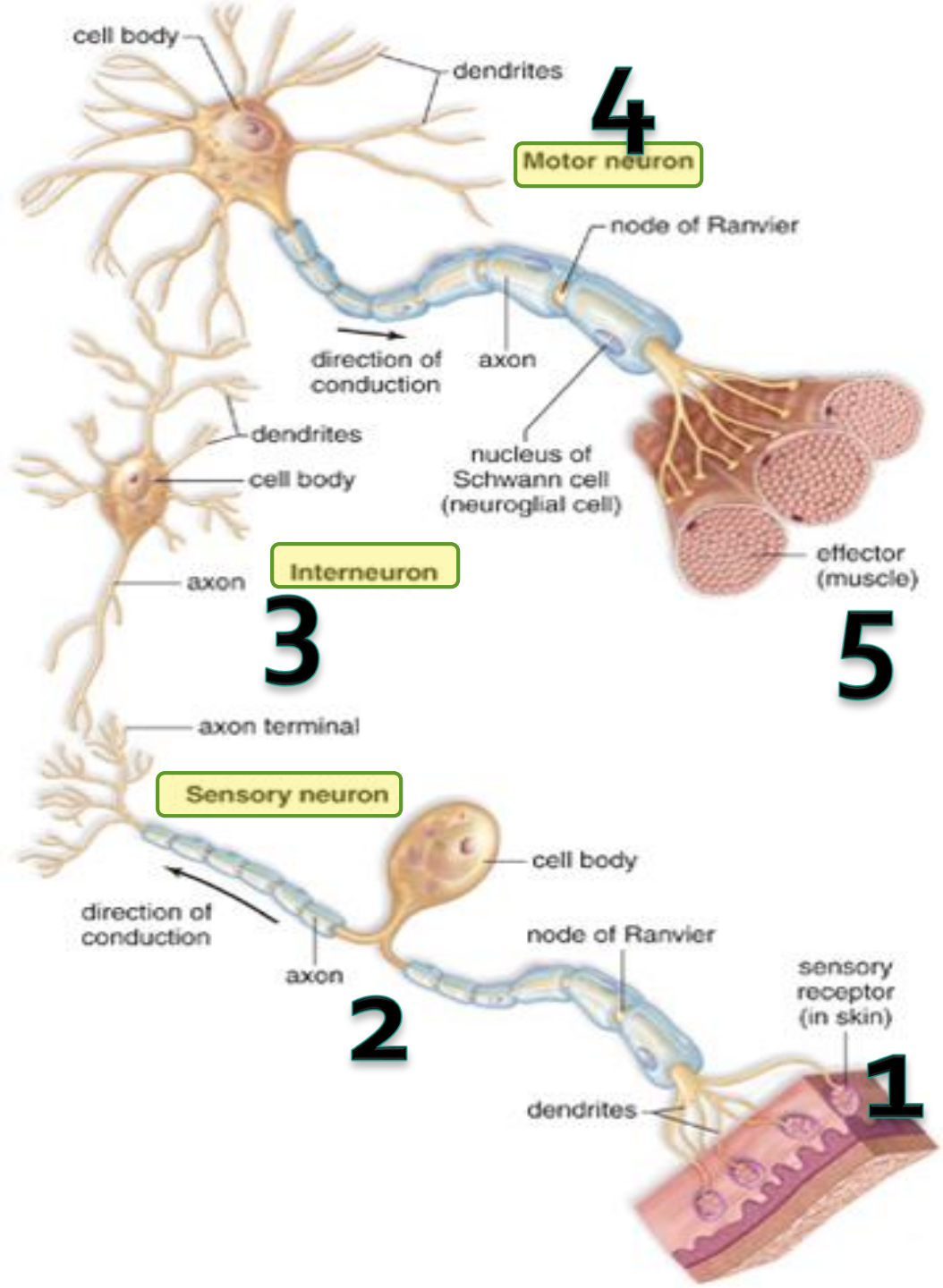
Part of PNS:

1. Sensory neurons carry messages/action potentials towards the CNS
2. Motor neurons carry messages/action potentials away from the CNS

Part of CNS:

3. Interneurons carry message/action potentials inside the CNS and between the sensory and motor neurons

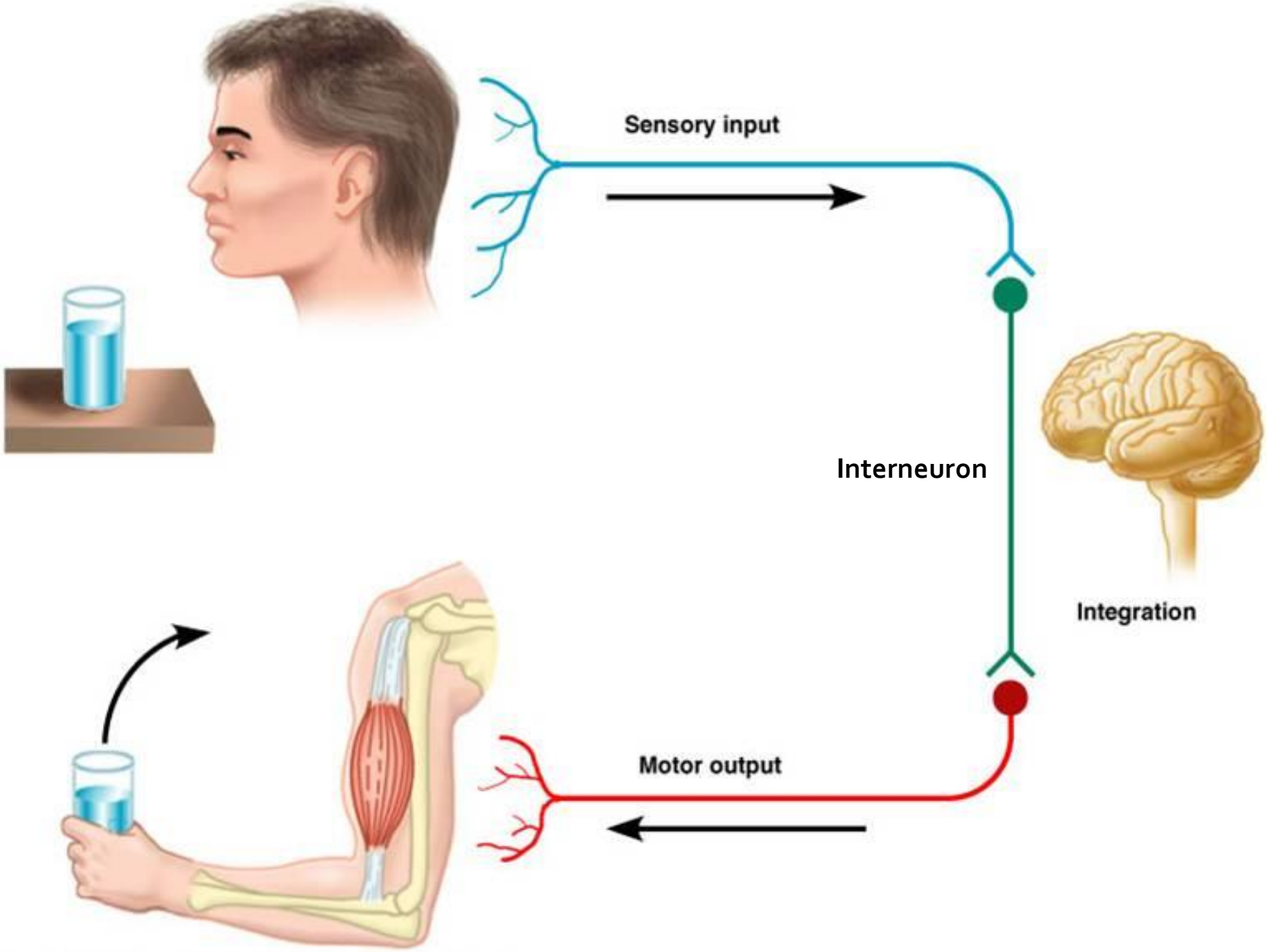


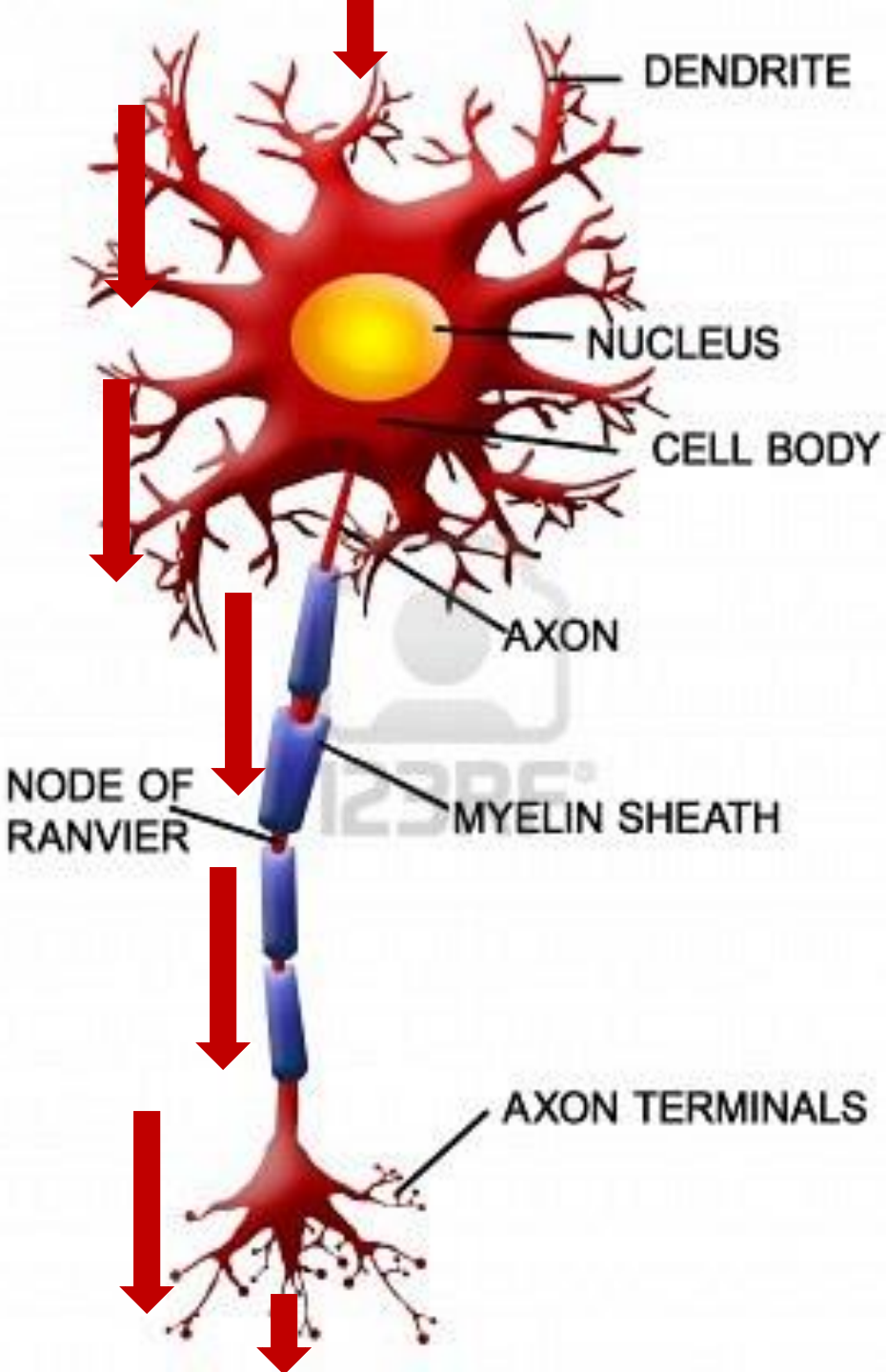


The ***sensory receptor*** detects changes in the environment and initiates the signal at the sensory neuron dendrite

The ***effector*** is at the end of the motor neuron and is stimulated by the neurotransmitters released by the motor neuron axon endings (bulbs)

The effector can be a voluntary (like skeletal muscle) or involuntary (like a gland, cardiac muscle or smooth muscle)


Sensory input
Interneuron
Integration
Motor output

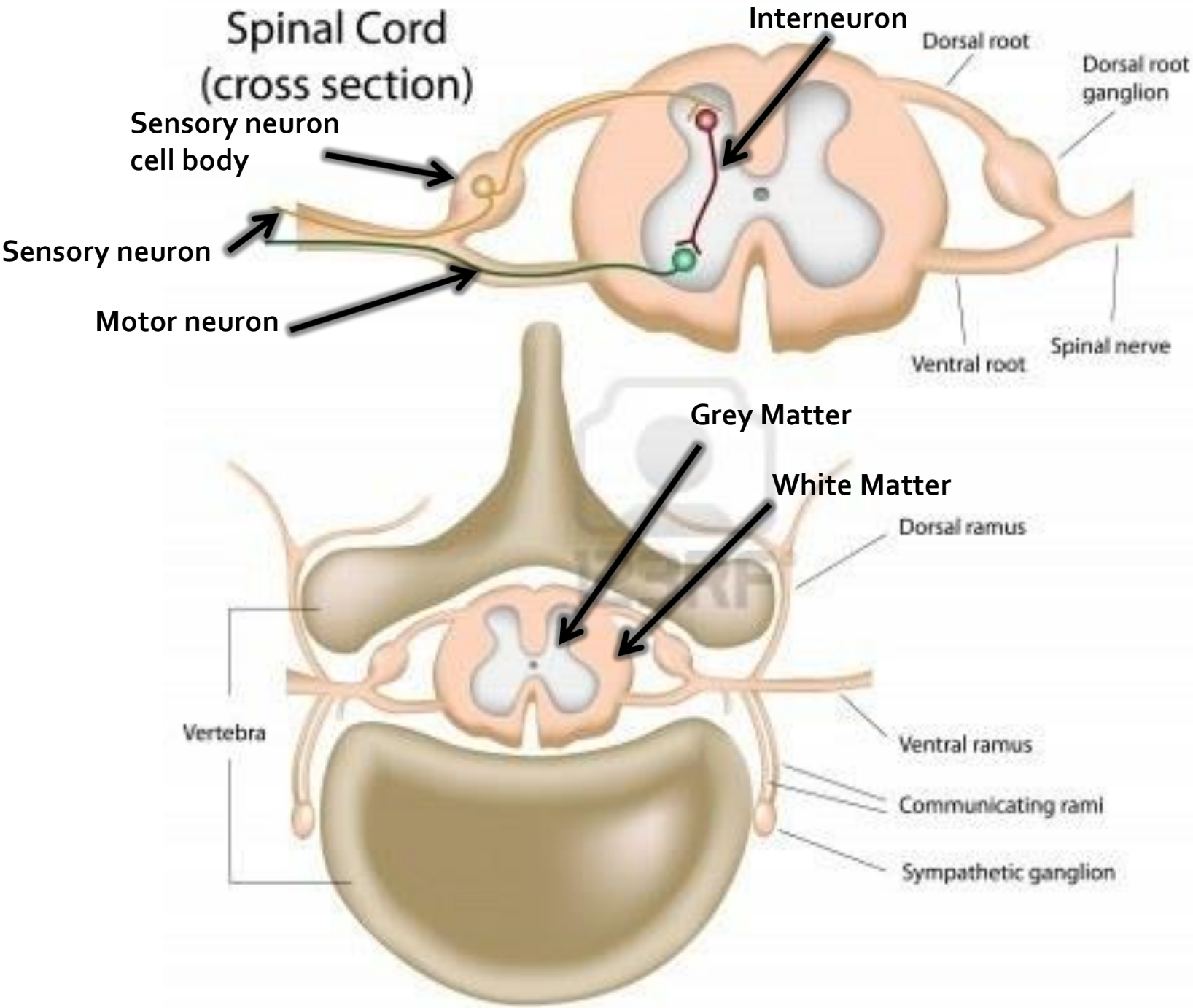


Each neuron consists of three parts

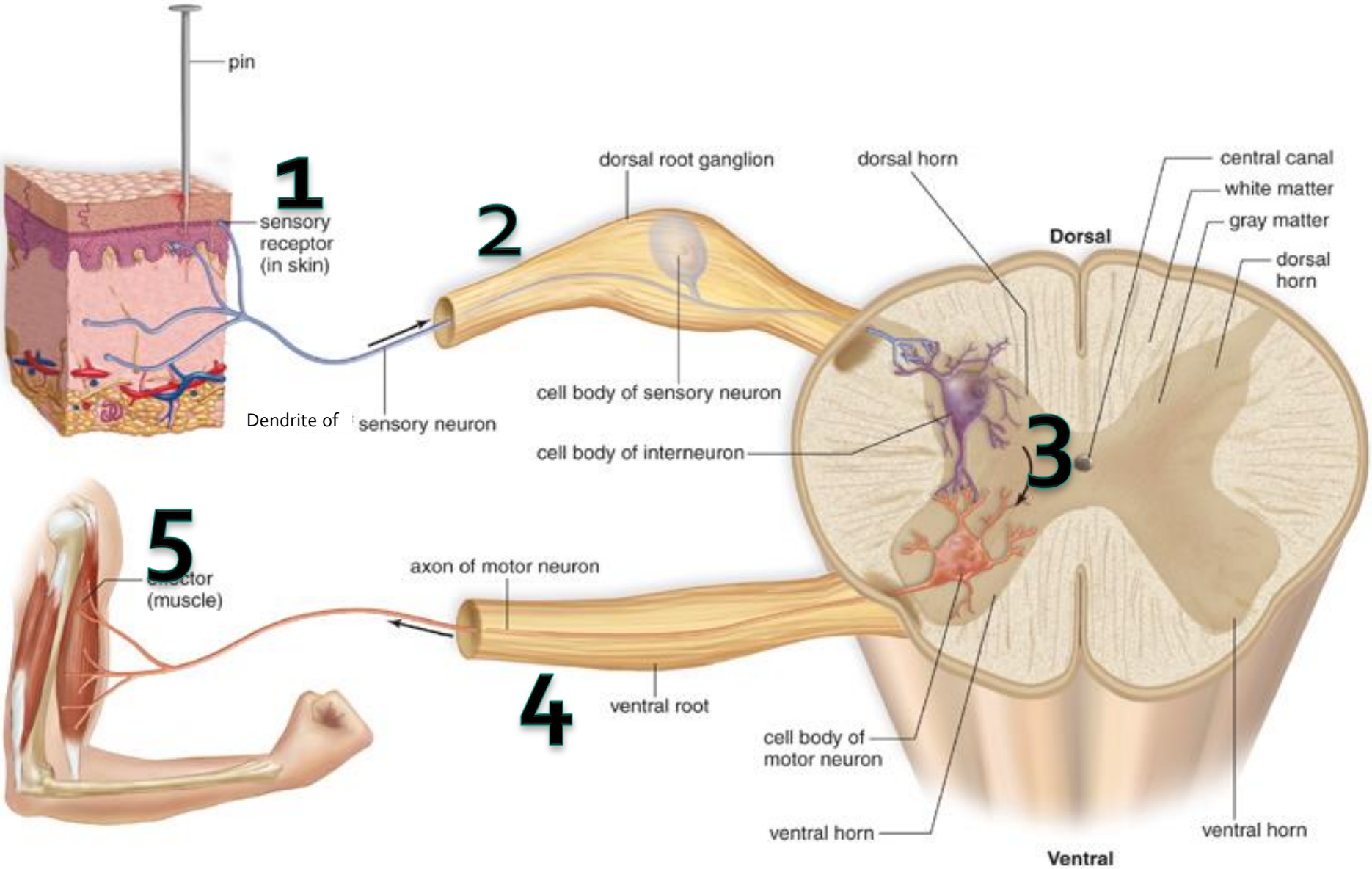
1. **Dendrite** = carries impulses towards the cell body
2. **Cell body** = location of the nucleus
3. **Axon** = carries impulses away from the cell body

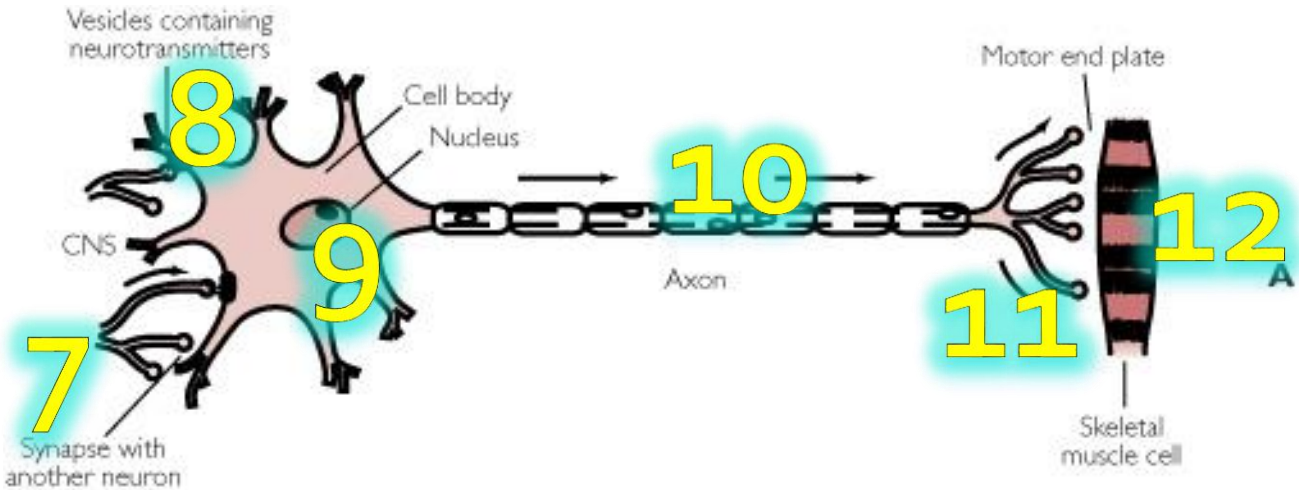
Myelin is the covering on neurons that helps to speed up the progress of an action potential/impulse. The myelin is made from Schwaan cells which wrap around the neuron.

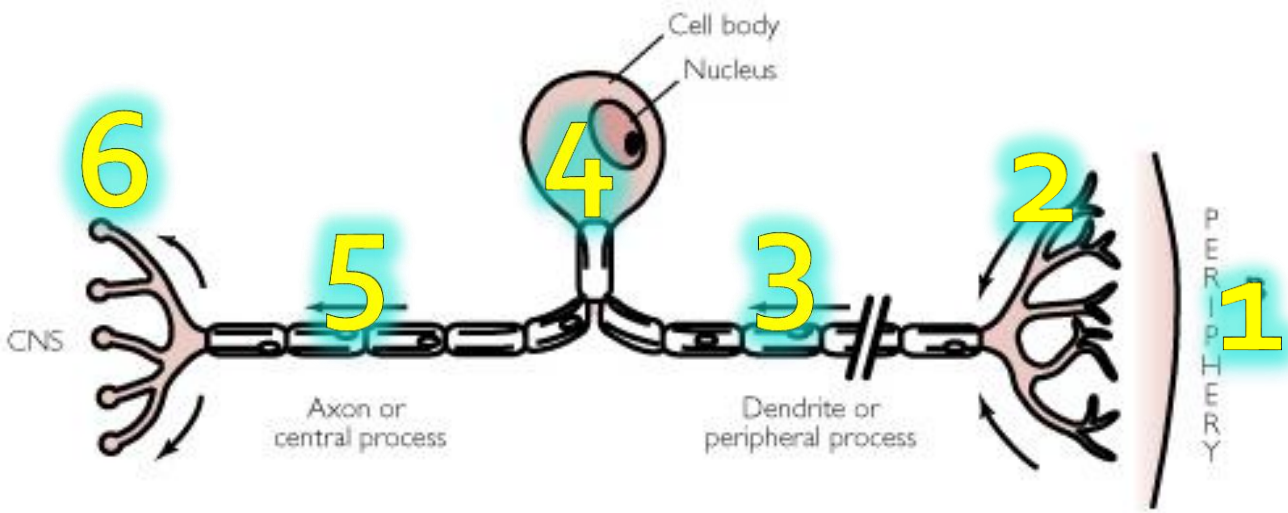
White matter consists of myelinated neurons and Grey matter consists of unmyelinated neurons. As a result the PNS is myelinated and inside the CNS both are present.


Spinal Cord
(cross section)
Interneuron
Dorsal root
Dorsal root ganglion
Sensory neuron cell body
Sensory neuron
Motor neuron
Ventral root
Spinal nerve
Grey Matter
White Matter
Dorsal ramus
Vertebra
Ventral ramus
Communicating rami
Sympathetic ganglion

The Reflex Arc

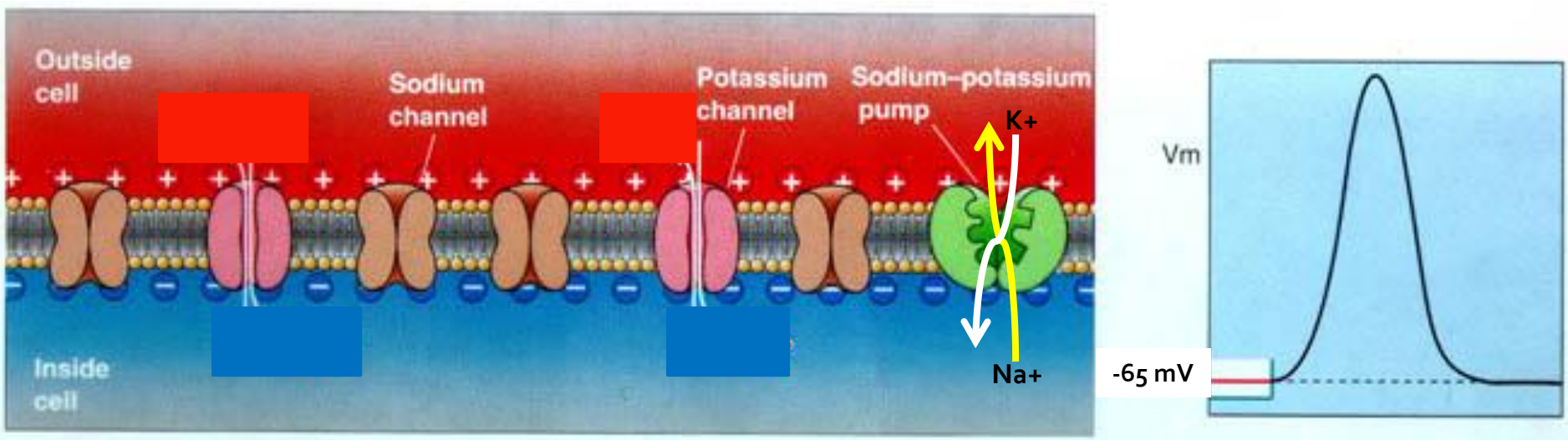



Vesicles containing neurotransmitters
8
Cell body
Nucleus
9
10
Motor end plate
12
A
CNS
Axon
11
7
Synapse with another neuron
Skeletal muscle cell


Cell body
Nucleus
6
4
2
5
3
1
CNS
Axon or central process
Dendrite or peripheral process
PERIPHERY

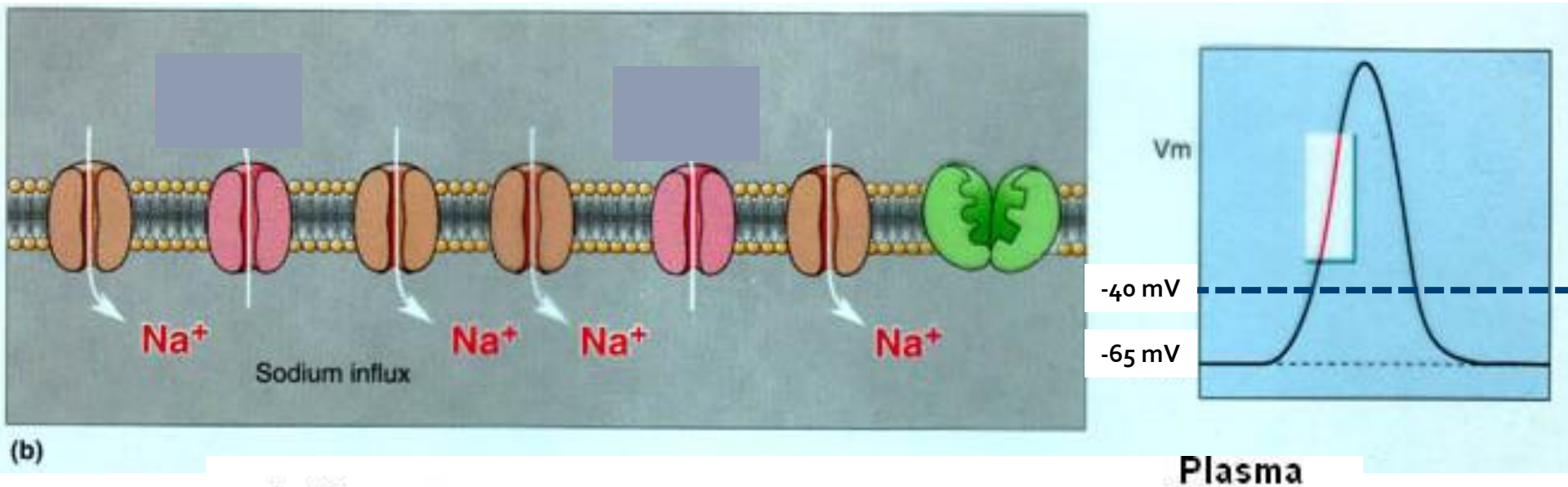
The action potential

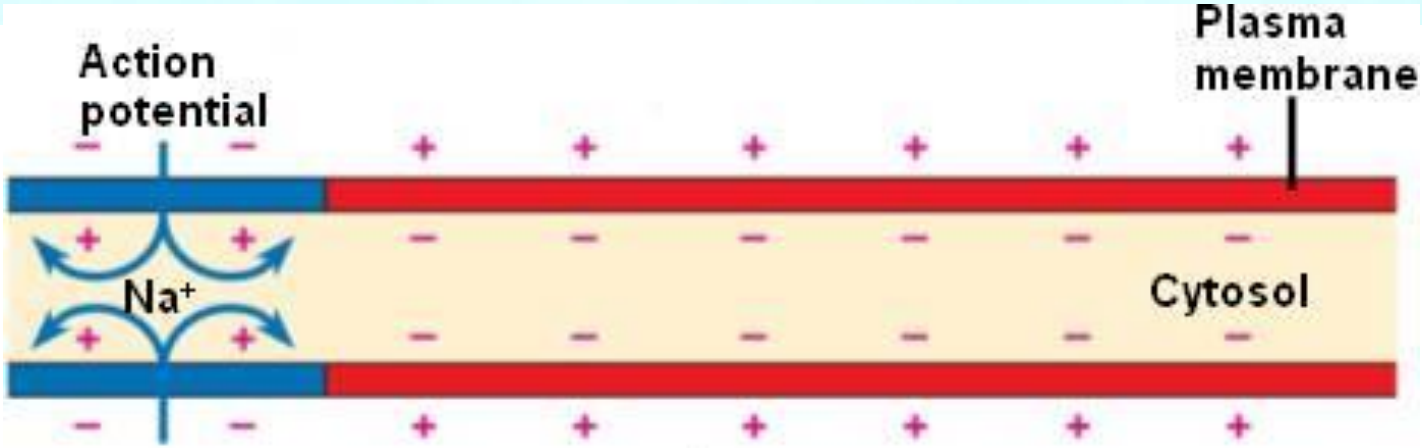
- Resting Potential = The inside of the neuron is negative compare to the outside at -65mV. This is maintained by the sodium-potassium pump which pumps Na+ out of the neuron and K+ into the neuron (more Na+ on outside of neuron and K+ on inside of neuron)



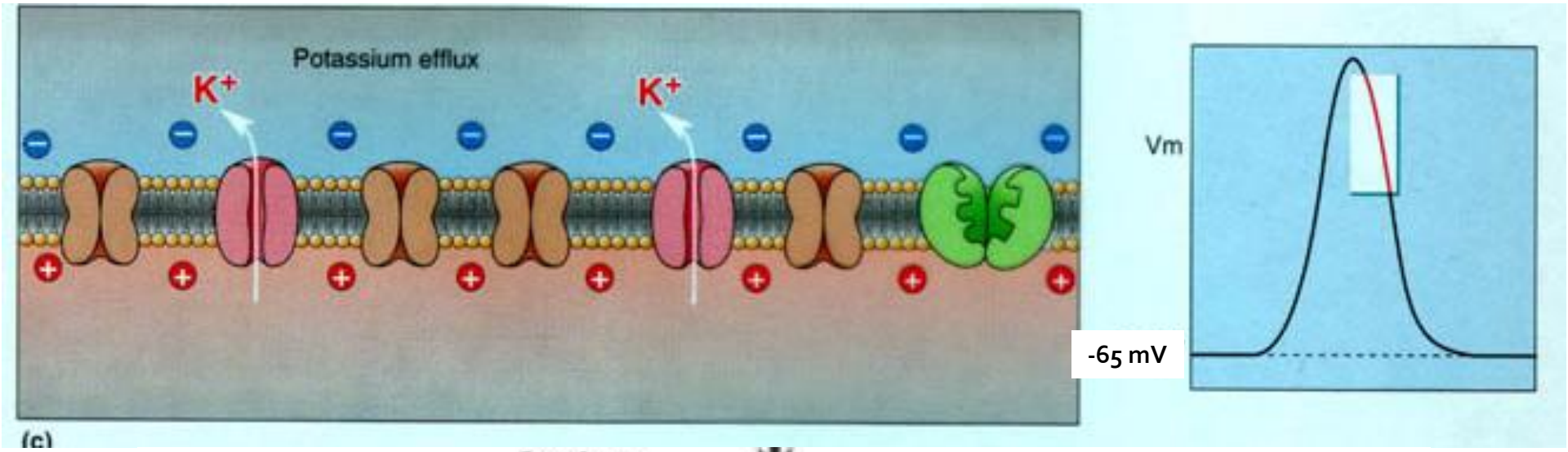
(a)

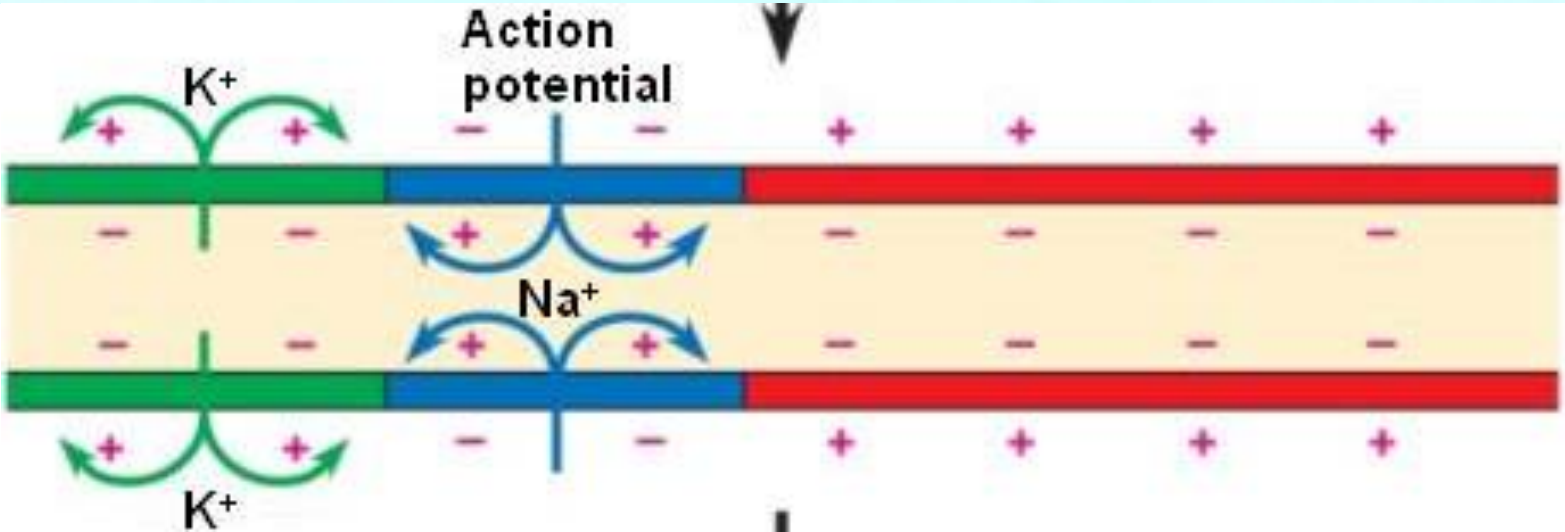
Depolarization = When the membrane stimulated to cause Na+ gates to open, Na+ rushes into the neuron. If enough Na+ rushes into increase neuron potential to -40 mV, then a full depolarization to +40 mV occurs



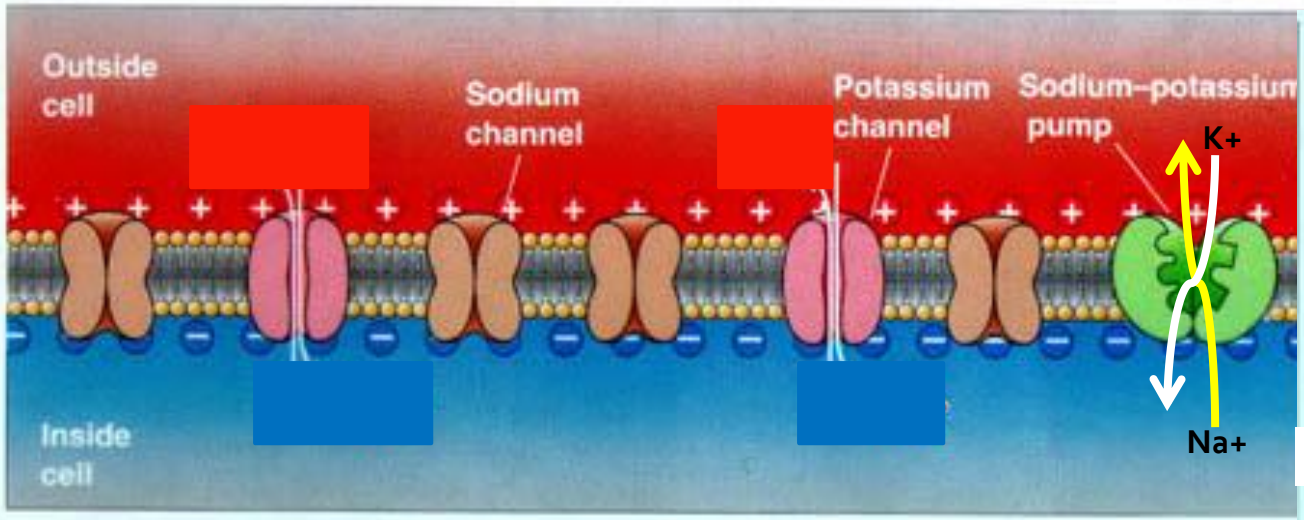


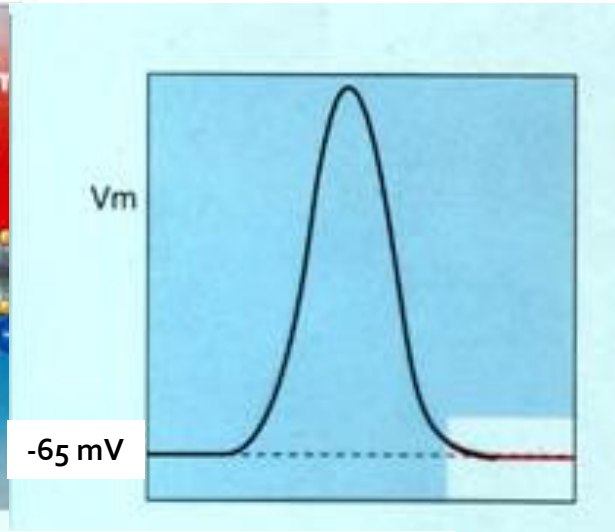
Repolarization = When the potential reaches +40 mV, the sodium gates close and the potassium gates open. K+ rush out of the neuron returning the neuron potential to -65 mV.



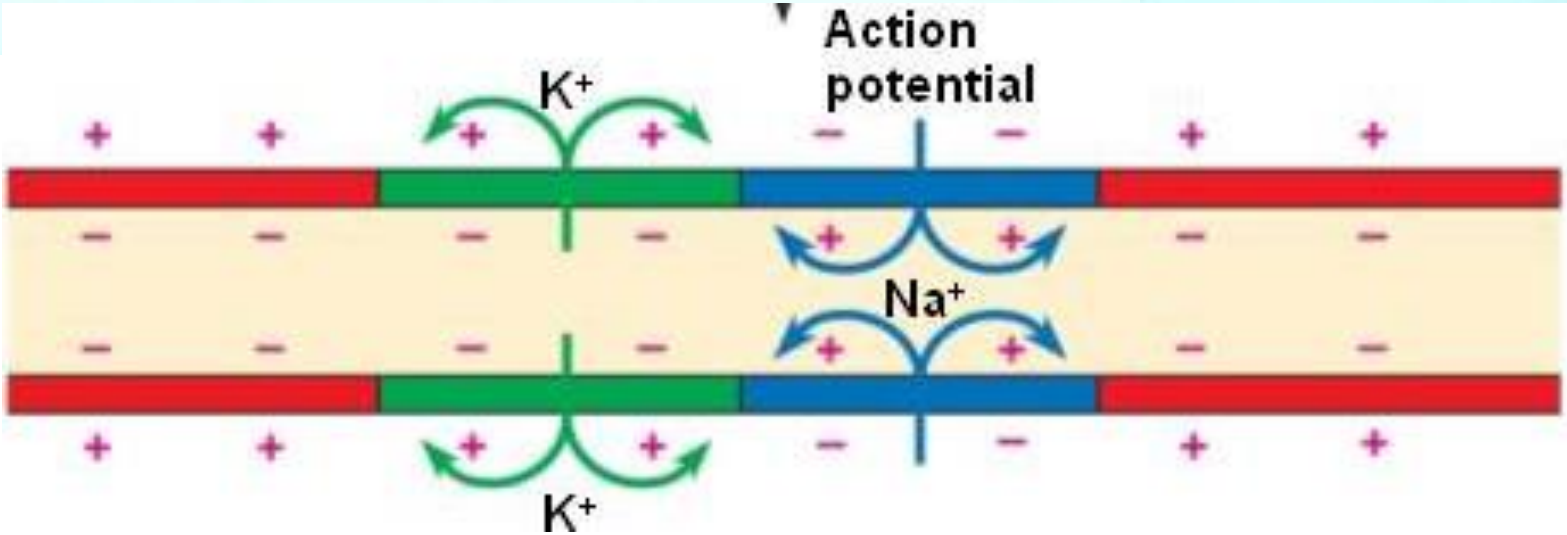


Refractory Period = The sodium-potassium pump is actively pumping the Na+ out and the K+ into the neuron to restore distribution of ions and to return to resting potential.





(a)

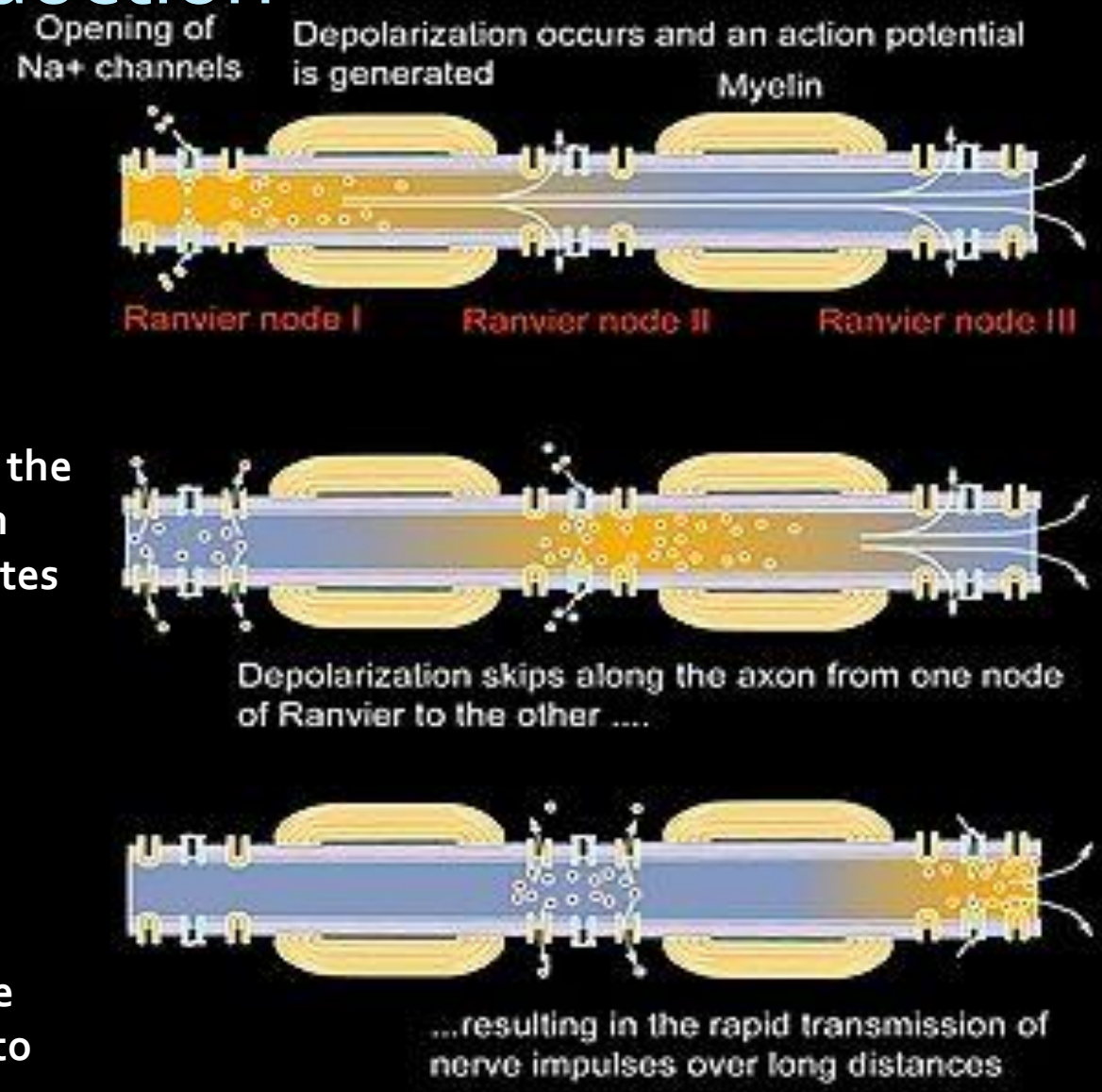


Saltatory Conduction

1. Depolarization occurs on the neuron to begin the action potential – Na+ gates open and Na+ rushes into neuron

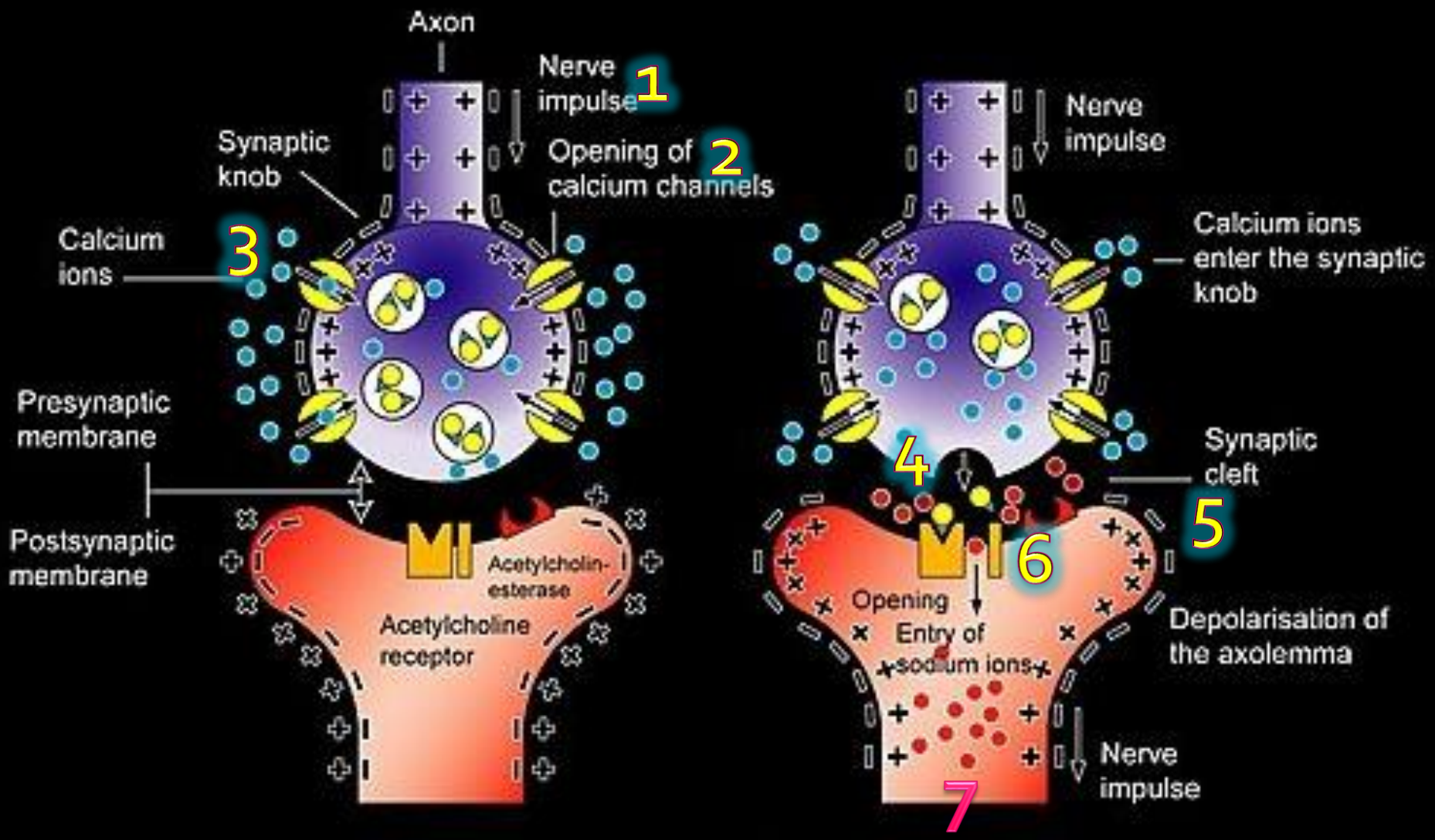
2. Repolarization occurs on the neuron after depolarization has moved forward – K+ gates open and K+ rushes out of neuron

3. The refractory period occurs after repolarization has moved forward. The Na+ is pumped out and the K+ is pumped in to return to resting potential



Synaptic Transmission =

transmitting the action potential between neurons

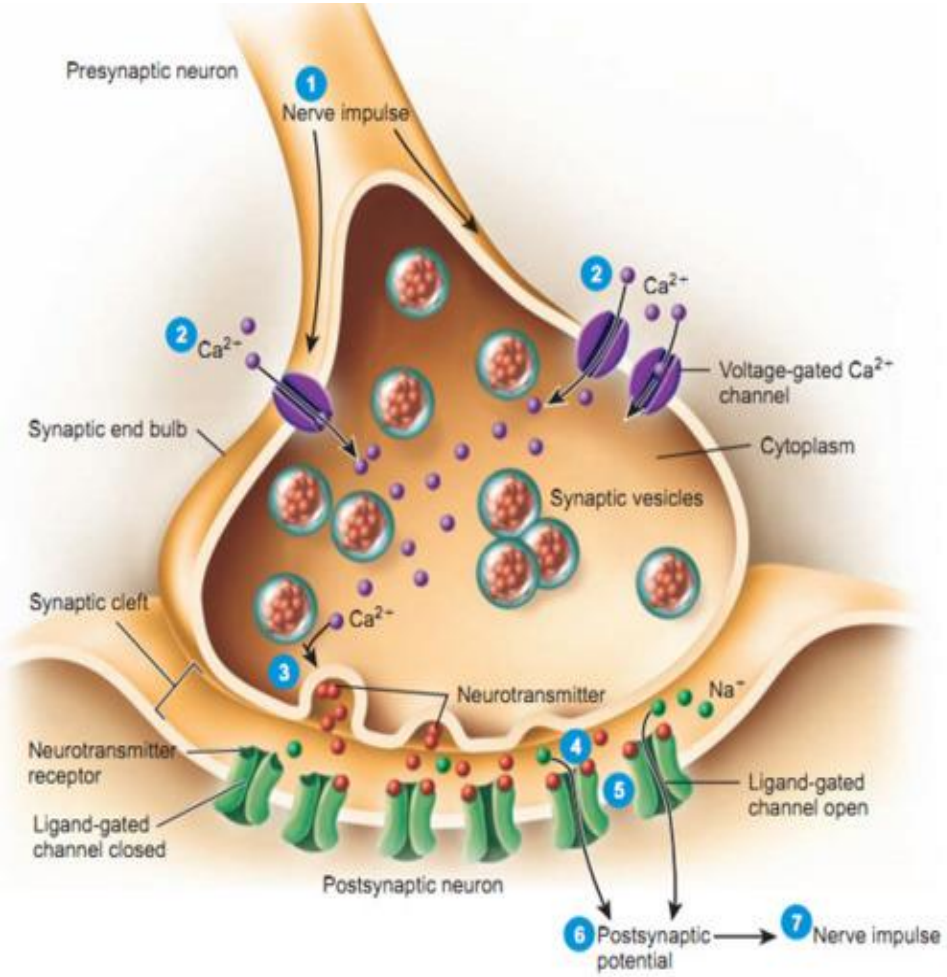


1 - Arrival of a nerve impulse

2 - Releasing of acetylcholine and depolarisation of the postsynaptic membrane

Steps for Synaptic Transmission

1. Impulse reaches the end of the axon at the axon bulb
2. Calcium gates open and Ca2+ rushes into bulb
3. In the presence of calcium, the vesicles carrying neurotransmitter (NT) are pulled towards the pre-synaptic membrane. By exocytosis the NT is released into the synaptic cleft
4. The NT diffuses across the cleft and attached to Na+ gate receptors on the post-synaptic membrane
5. The Na+ gates open and Na+ rushed into the neuron
6. If enough Na+ enters the neuron to pass the -40 mV threshold, a full depolarization will begin
7. The action potential moves down the next neuron.

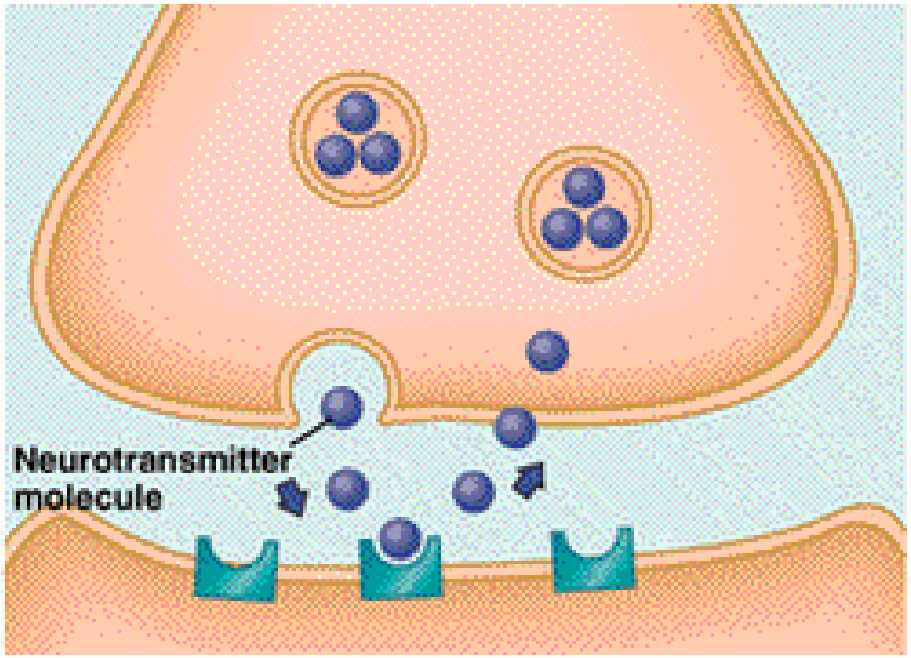


Note: if the axon bulb is at the end of a motor neuron, the NT stimulates or inhibits the effector

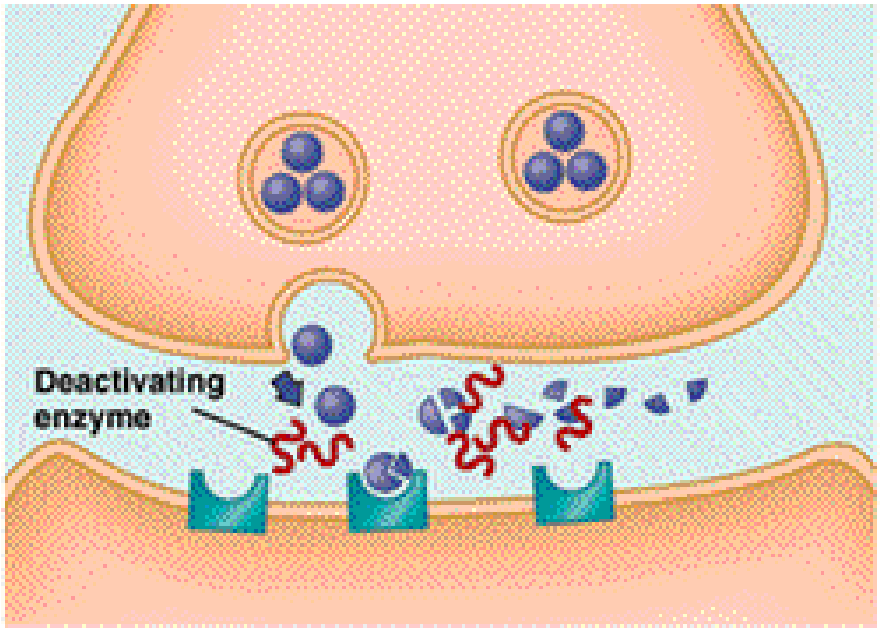
➢ Neurotransmitters in the synaptic cleft can be removed in two ways.

By reuptake = the NT is taken back into axon bulb by endocytosis into vesicles.

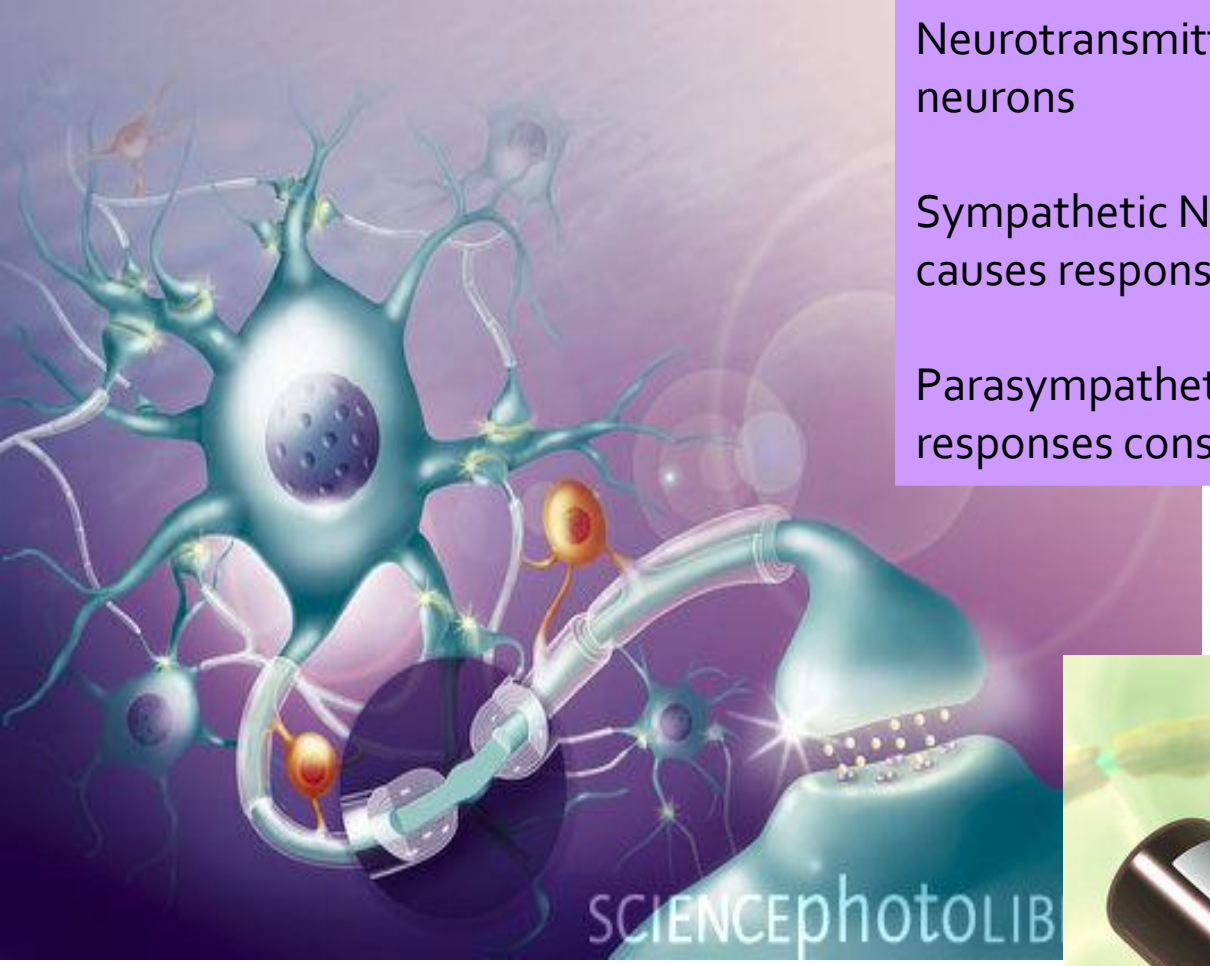
By enzymes = the NT can be broken down in the cleft by enzymes. The enzyme that degrades acetylcholine is **acetylcholinesterase.**



Reuptake



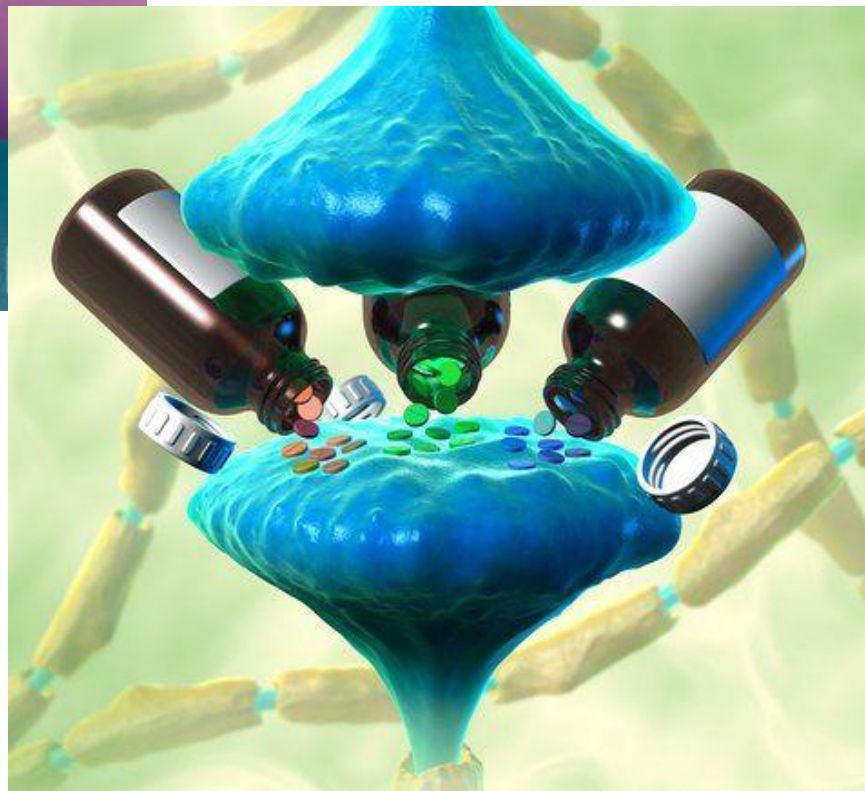
Deactivating Enzymes



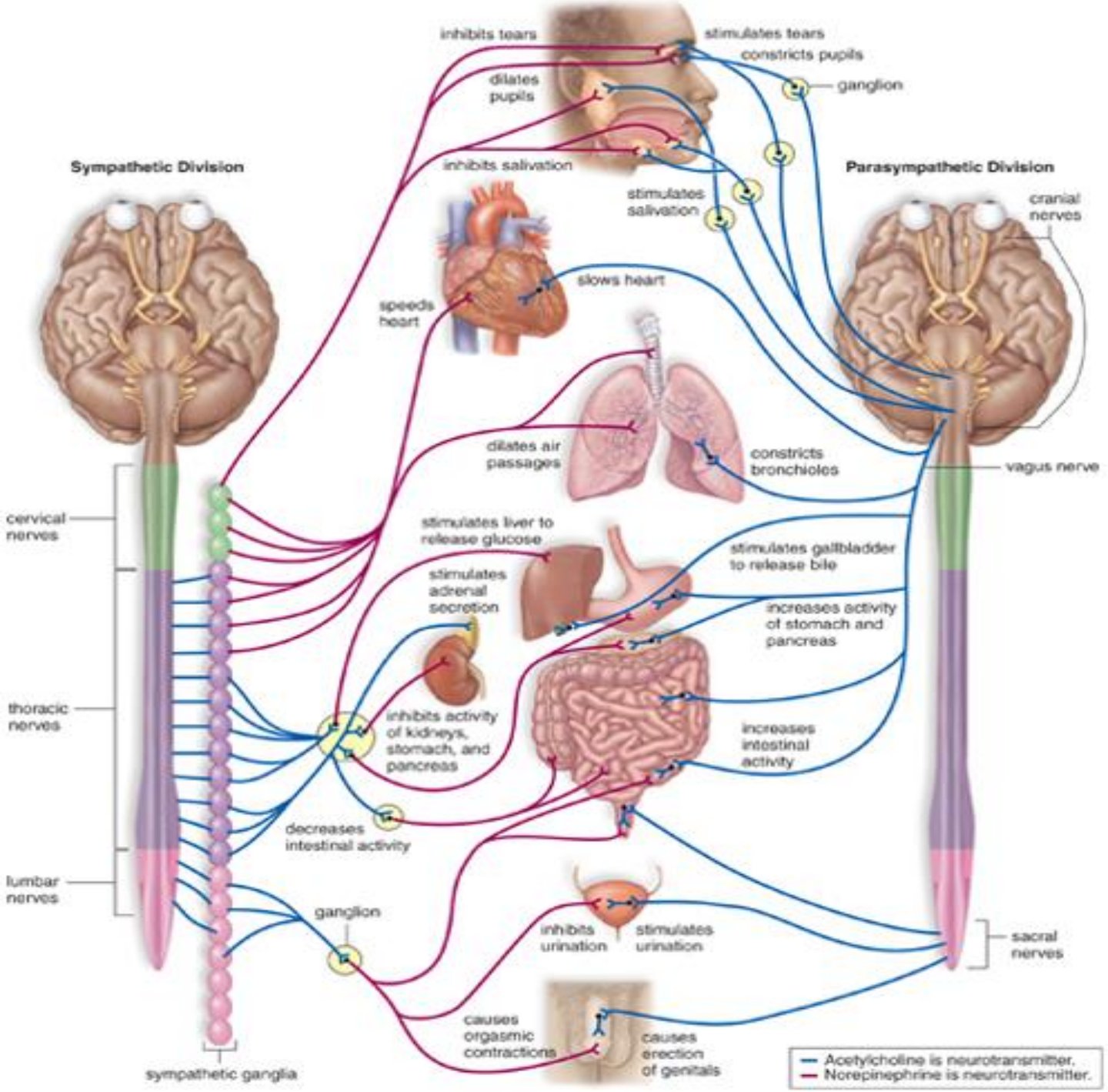
Neurotransmitters can stimulate or inhibit other neurons

Sympathetic NT = **epinephrine** or adrenalin and causes responses consistent with fight-or-flight

Parasympathetic NT = **acetylcholine** and causes responses consistent with relaxed state



Drugs can mimic, enhance or inhibit certain NT's to obtain a desired effect.

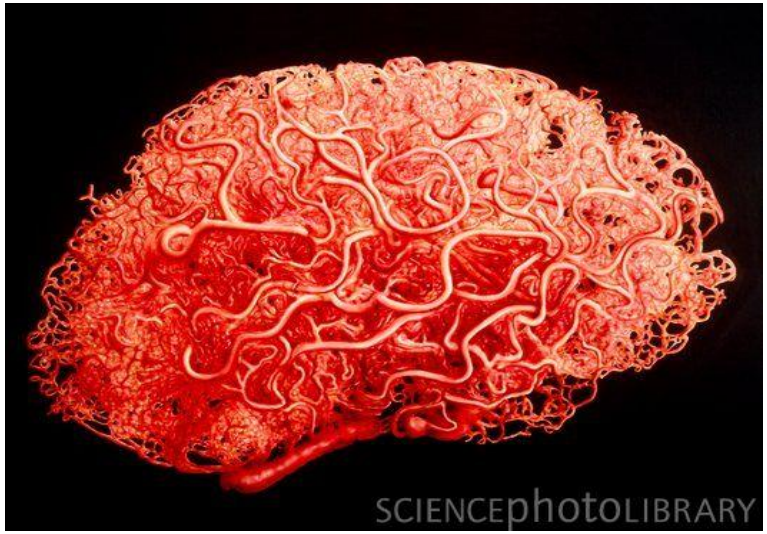

Sympathetic Division
Parasympathetic Division
inhibits tears
stimulates tears
constricts pupils
ganglion
dilates pupils
inhibits salivation
stimulates salivation
cranial nerves
slows heart
speeds heart
dilates air passages
constricts bronchioles
vagus nerve
cervical nerves
stimulates liver to release glucose
stimulates gallbladder to release bile
stimulates adrenal secretion
increases activity of stomach and pancreas
thoracic nerves
inhibits activity of kidneys, stomach, and pancreas
increases intestinal activity
decreases intestinal activity
lumbar nerves
ganglion
inhibits urination
stimulates urination
sacral nerves
causes orgasmic contractions
causes erection of genitals
sympathetic ganglia
Acetylcholine is neurotransmitter.
Norepinephrine is neurotransmitter.

The Brain

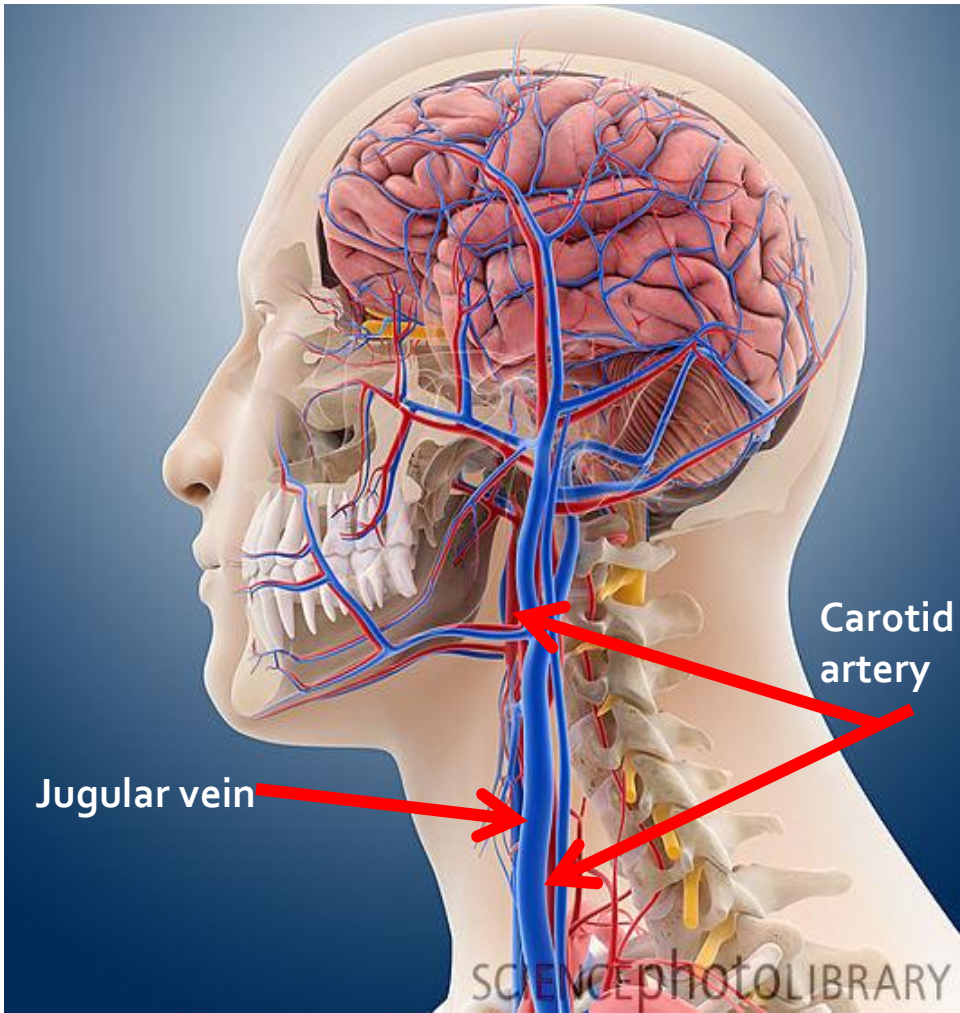
The brain is housed in the **skull** which protects it from injury. It is also surrounded by **meninges** for protection and cushioning. The **cerebrospinal fluid** help provide some cushioning and lubrication but also helps to circulated nutrients around the brain and spinal cord.

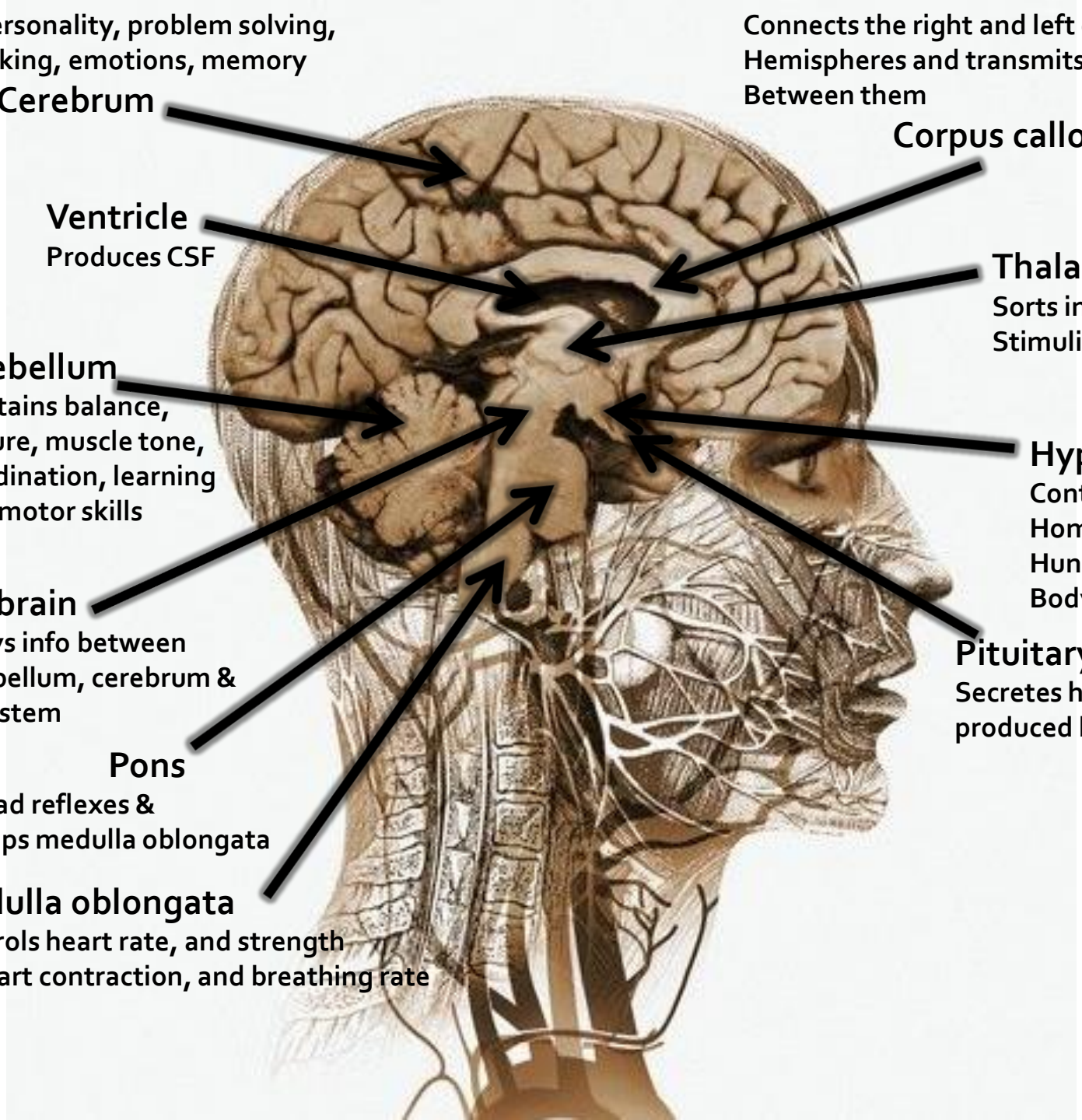
The **carotid artery** supplies the O_2 and nutrients (glucose) to the brain and the **jugular vein** carries wastes and CO_2 away from the brain to the heart.

Notice the extensive vasculature of the brain.

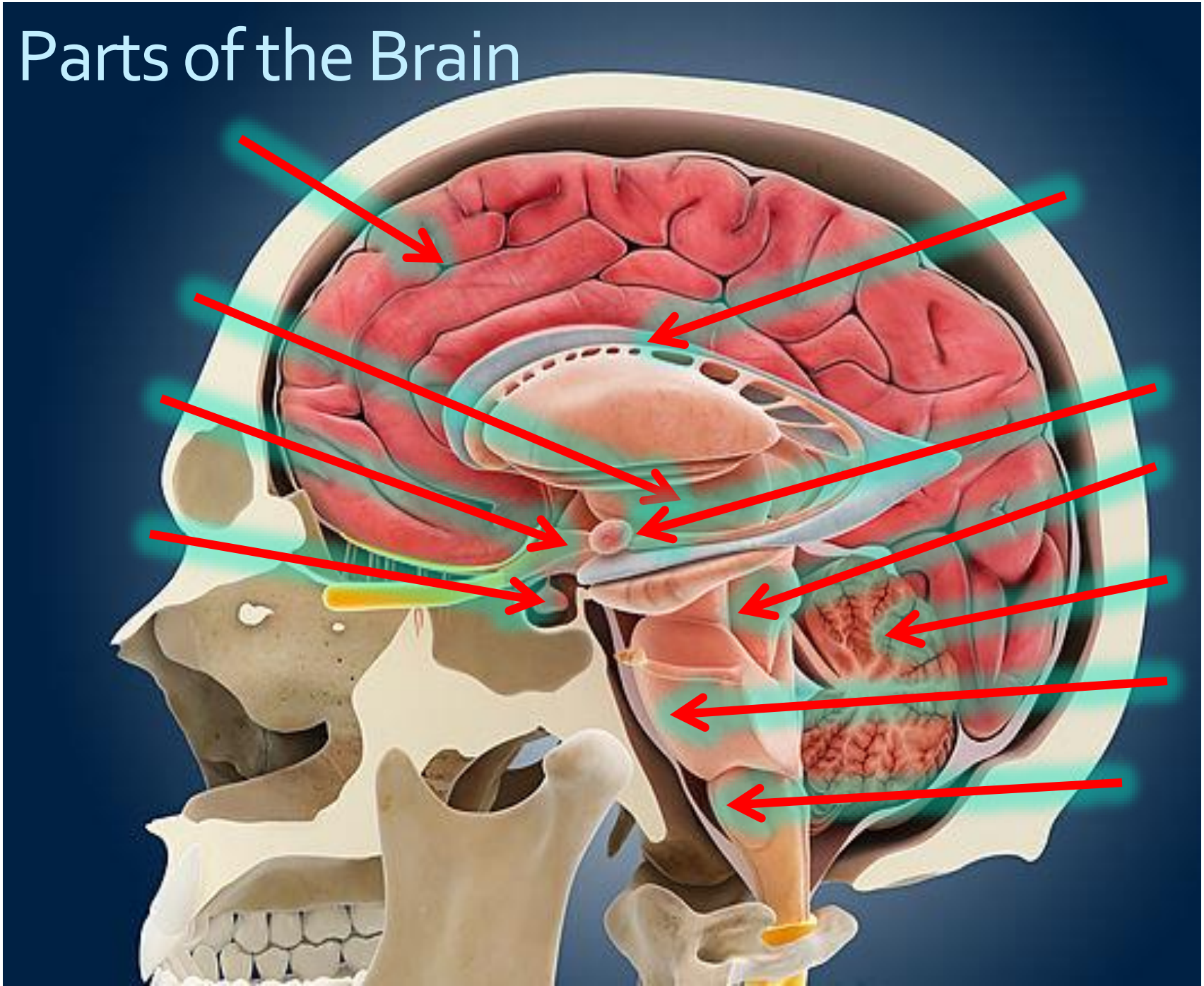


The outer layer of the brain (cerebral cortex) is made of grey matter - short unmyelinated neurons for higher processing and mental functions. The neurons going up through the brain are mostly myelinated neurons making up the white matter.




Thinking, personality, problem solving,
Decision making, emotions, memory
Cerebrum
Connects the right and left cerebral
Hemispheres and transmits messages
Between them
Corpus callosum
Ventricle
Produces CSF
Thalamus
Sorts incoming sensory
Stimuli to cerebrum
Cerebellum
Maintains balance,
Posture, muscle tone,
Coordination, learning
New motor skills
Hypothalamus
Controls/maintains
Homeostasis; ie. Thirst,
Hunger, water balance,
Body temperature.
Midbrain
Relays info between
Cerebellum, cerebrum &
brainstem
Pituitary gland
Secretes hormones that are
produced by hypothalamus
Pons
Head reflexes &
Helps medulla oblongata
Medulla oblongata
Controls heart rate, and strength
of heart contraction, and breathing rate

Parts of the Brain

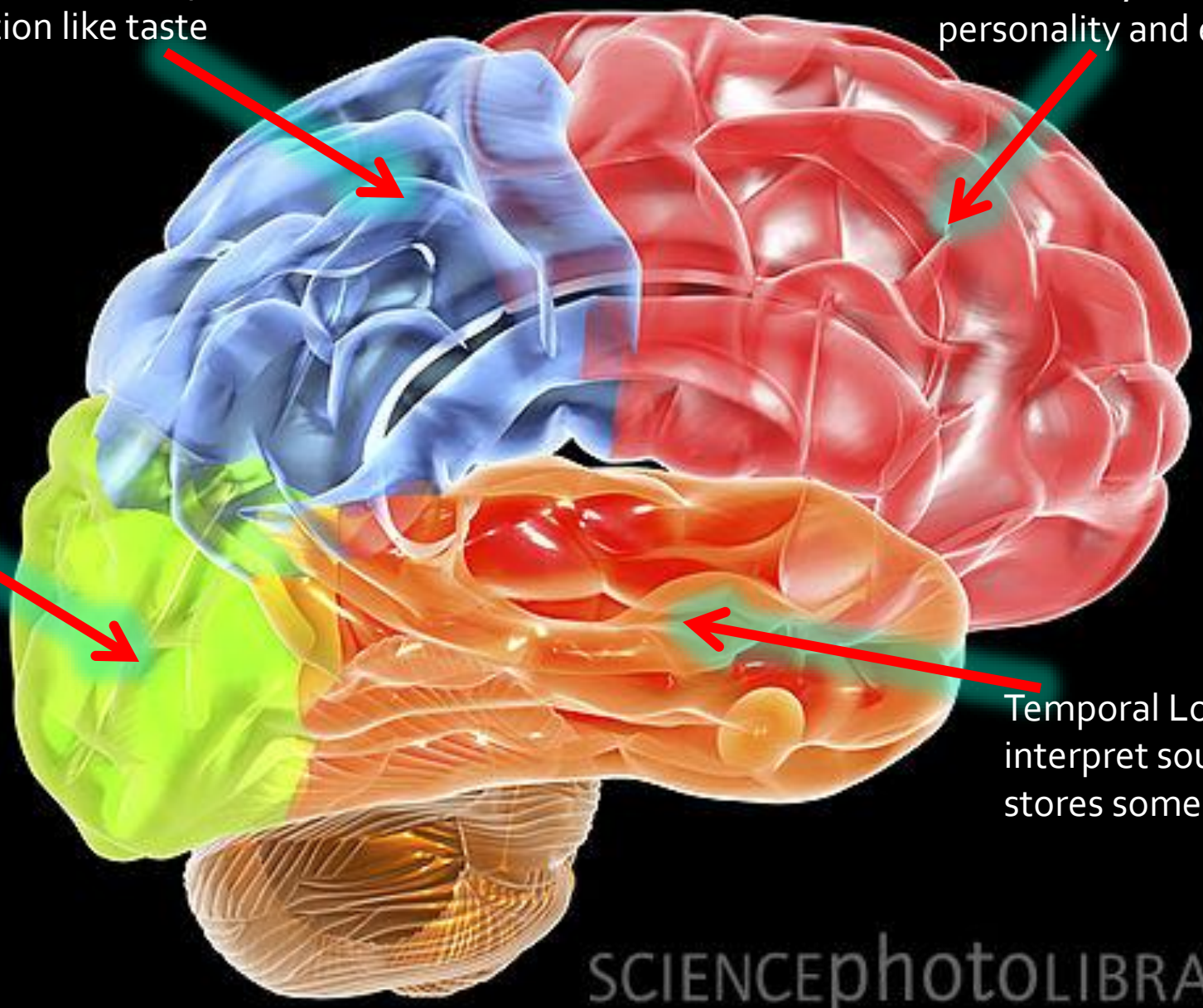


Lobes of the Cerebrum

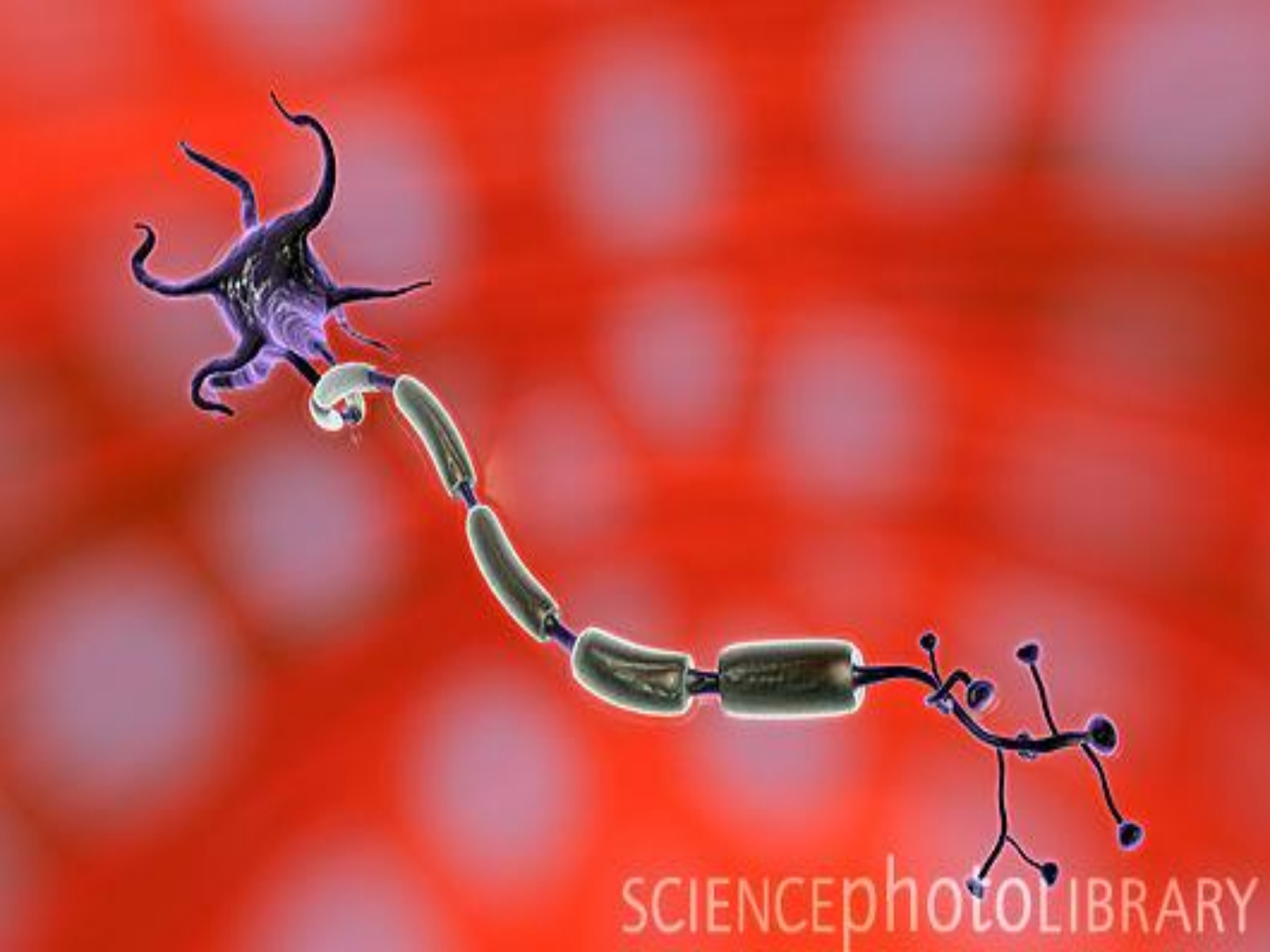
Parietal Lobe = sensory interpretation like taste and touch.

Frontal Lobe = problem solving, voluntary speech and muscle, and personality and emotions

Occipital Lobe = interpret vision



Temporal Lobe = interpret sounds and stores some memories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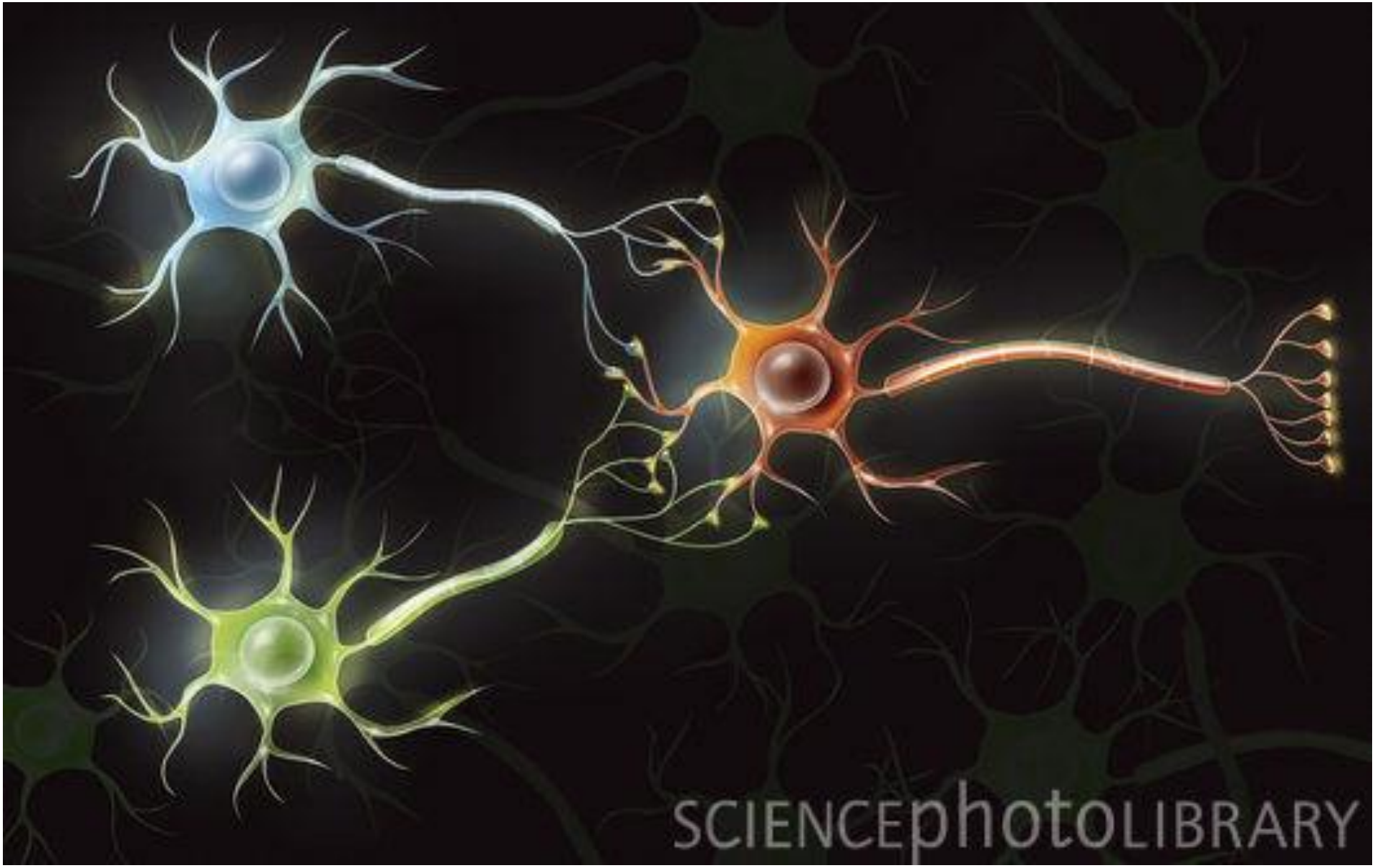
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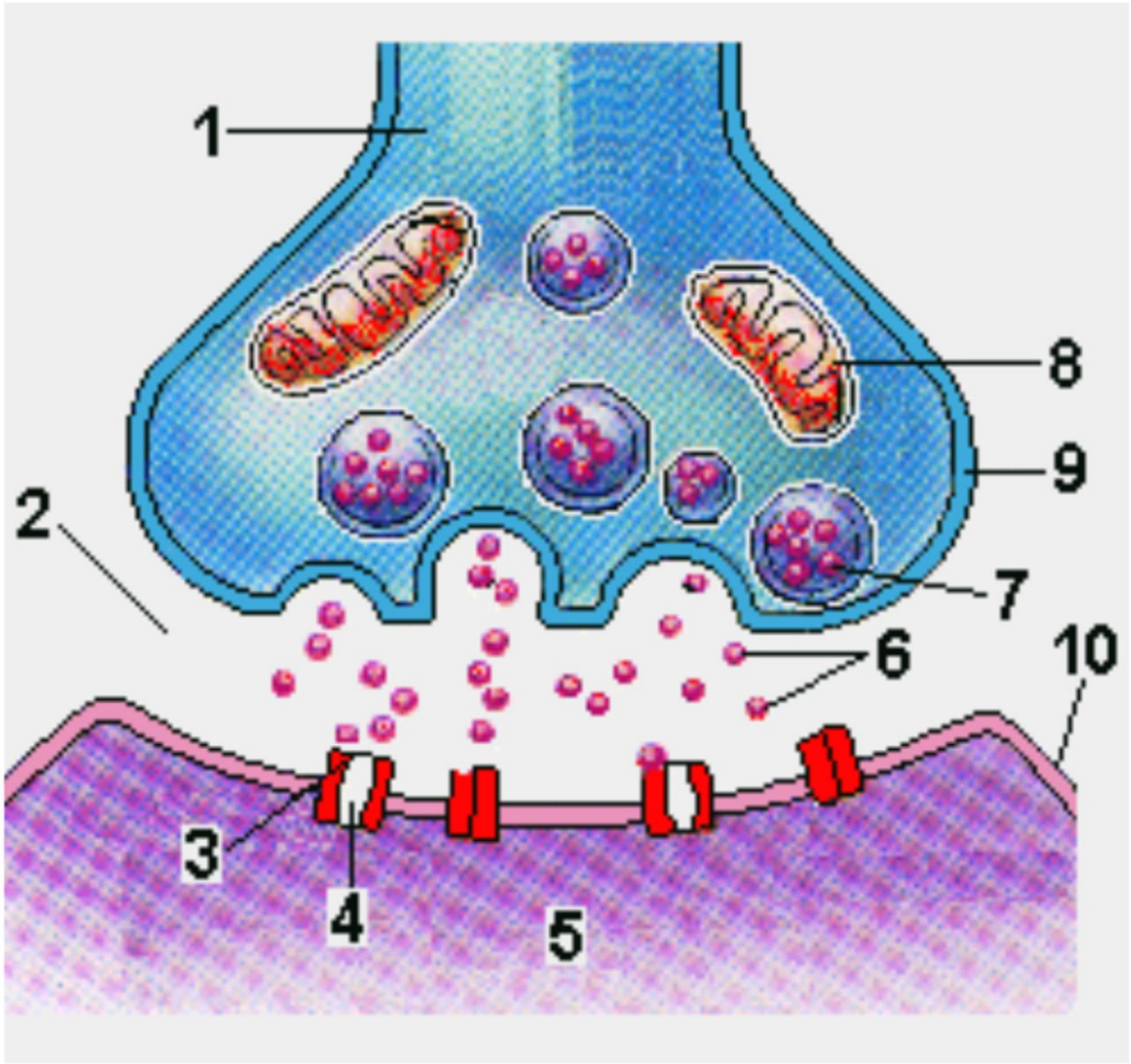
1
2
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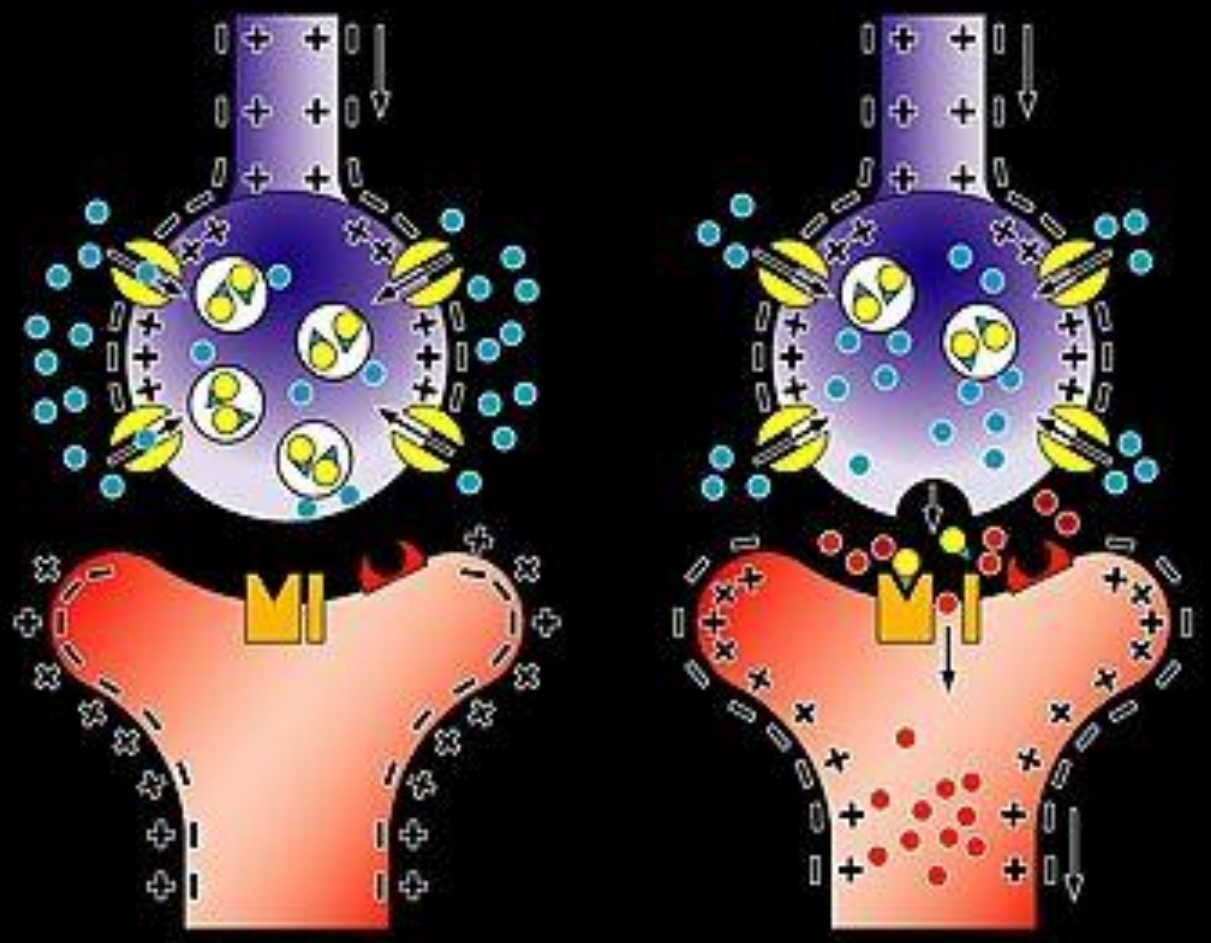
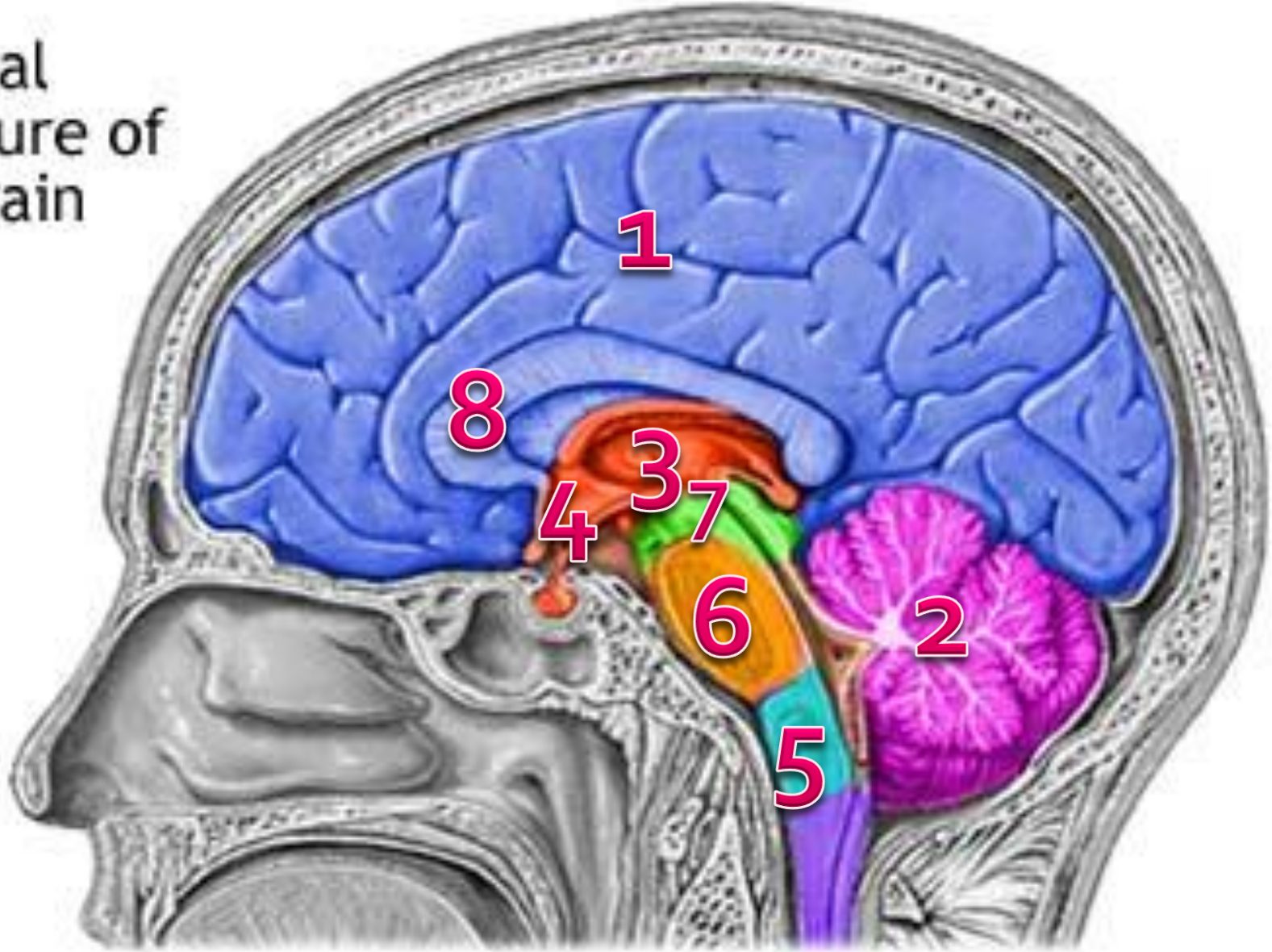
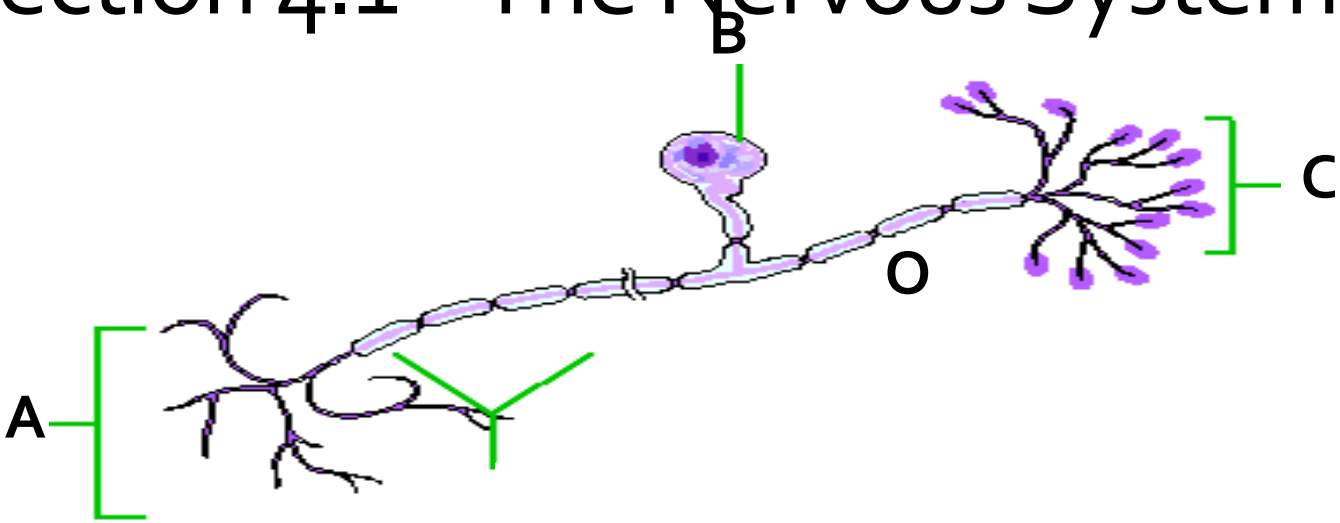
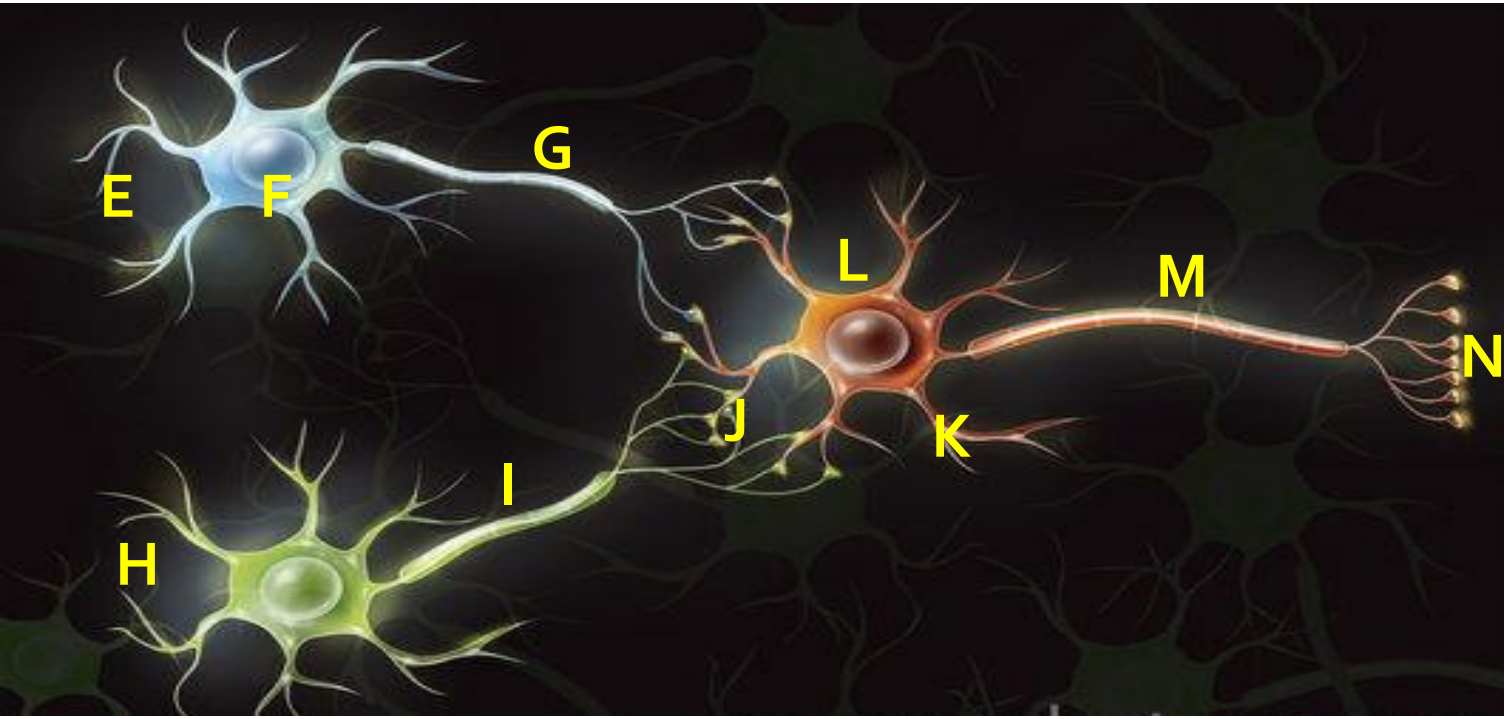


Internal structure of the brain

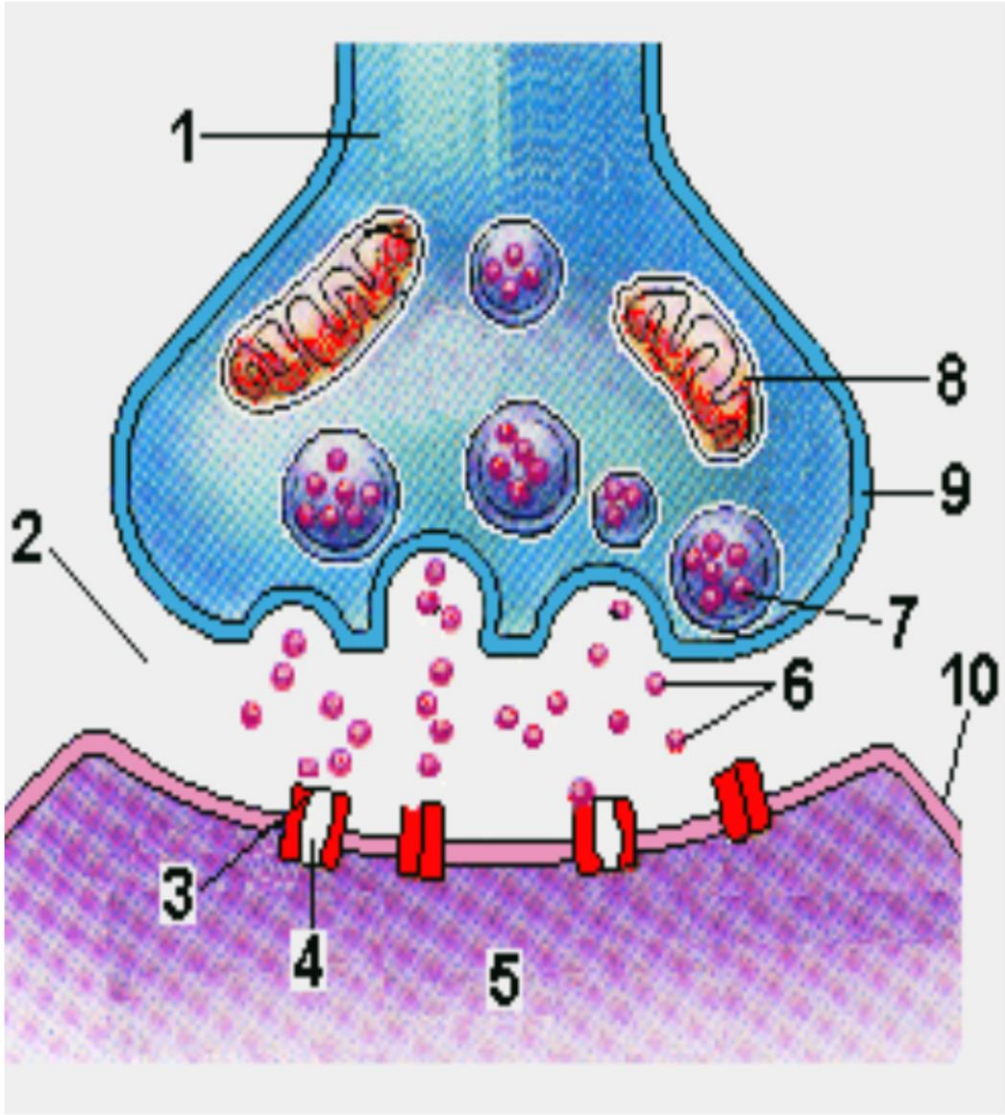


Section 4.1 – The Nervous System

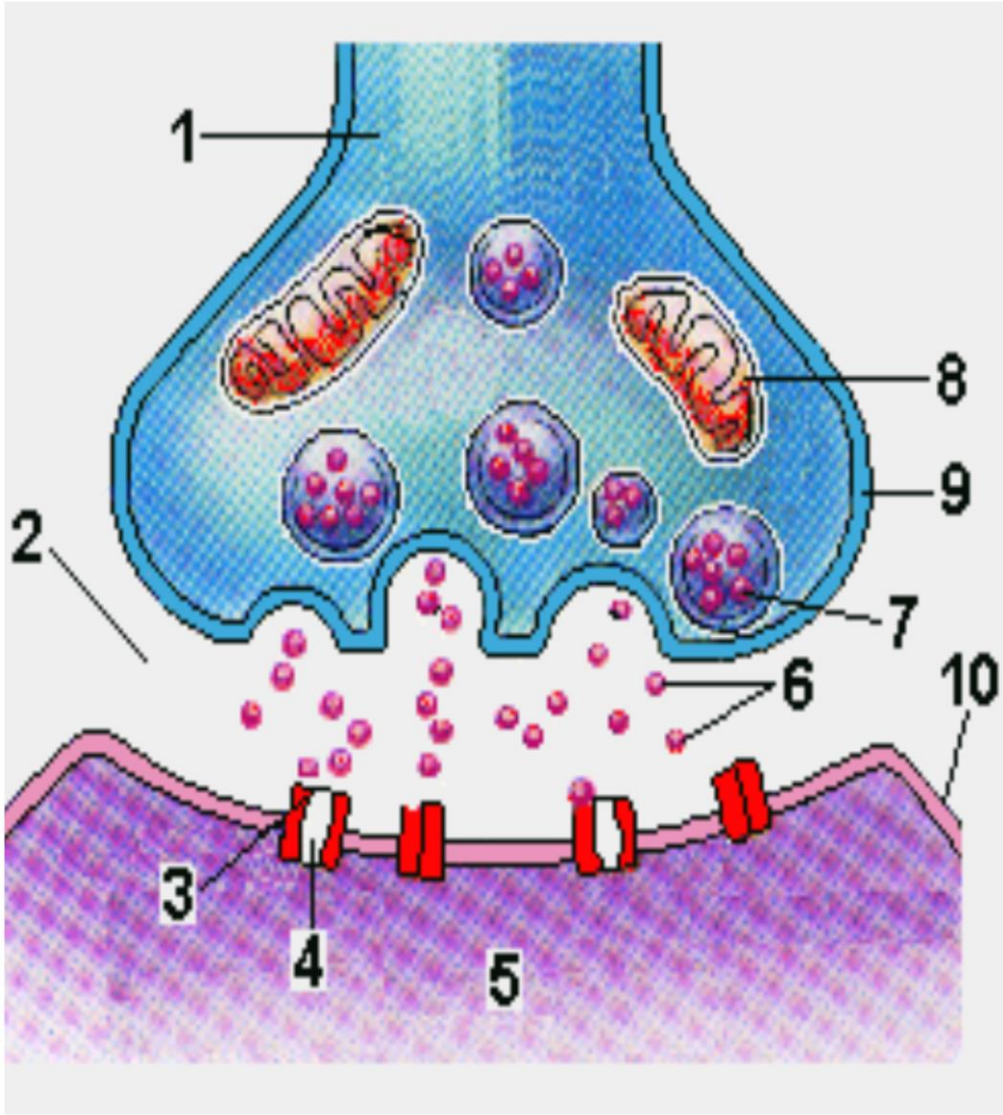




Dendrites
Cell Bodies
Axons
Axon Bulbs

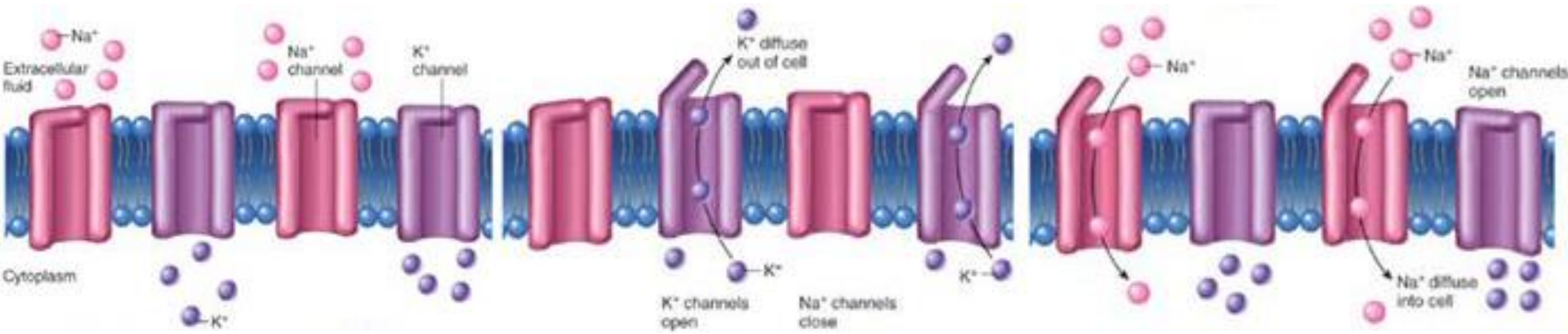


	Function
	Provided energy in the form of ATP for active transport
	Neurotransmitter diffuses across cleft
	NT attaches to receptor on Na+ gate
	Synaptic Cleft
	Post-synaptic Neuron
	Axon
	Vesicles carrying NT
	Na+ gates open and sodium rushes into neuron
	Action potential would continue down next dendrite
	Axon bulb



	Function
8	Provided energy in the form of ATP for active transport
6	Neurotransmitter diffuses across cleft
3	NT attaches to receptor on Na+ gate
2	Synaptic Cleft
5	Post-synaptic Neuron
1	Axon
7	Vesicles carrying NT
4	Na+ gates open and sodium rushes into neuron
10	Action potential would continue down next dendrite
9	Axon bulb

Direction of Action Potential



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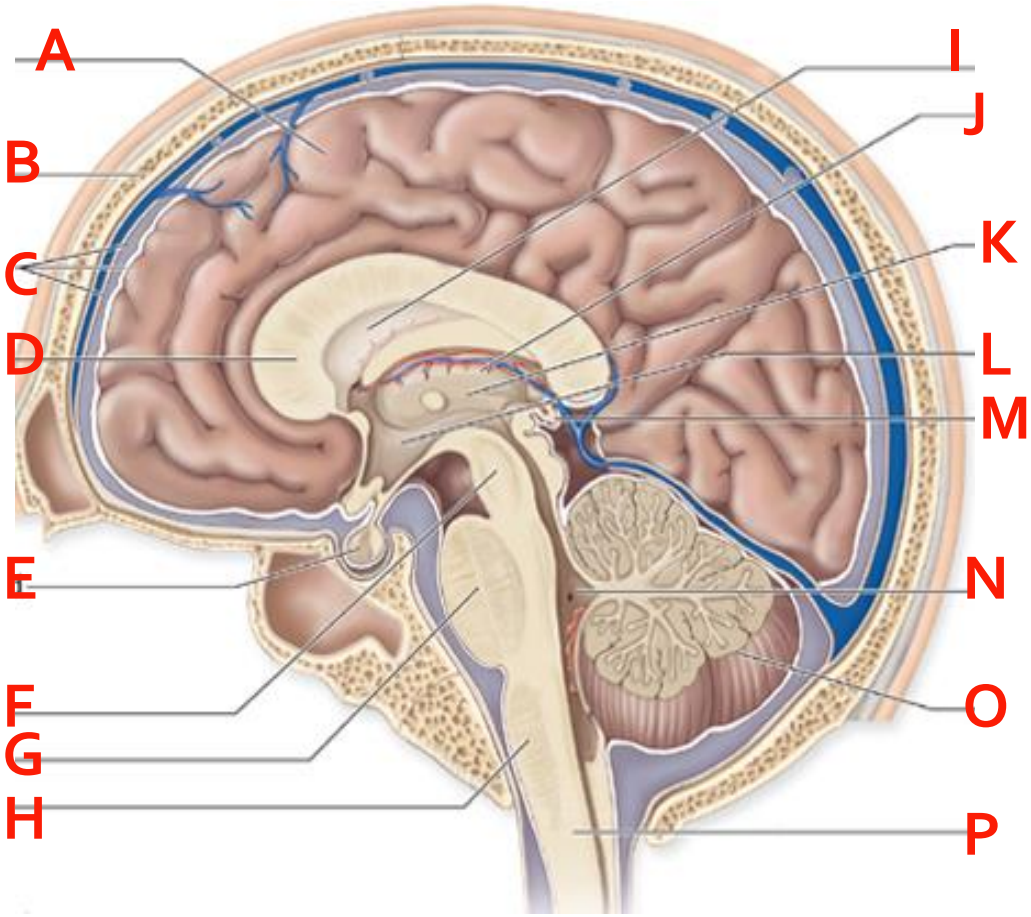
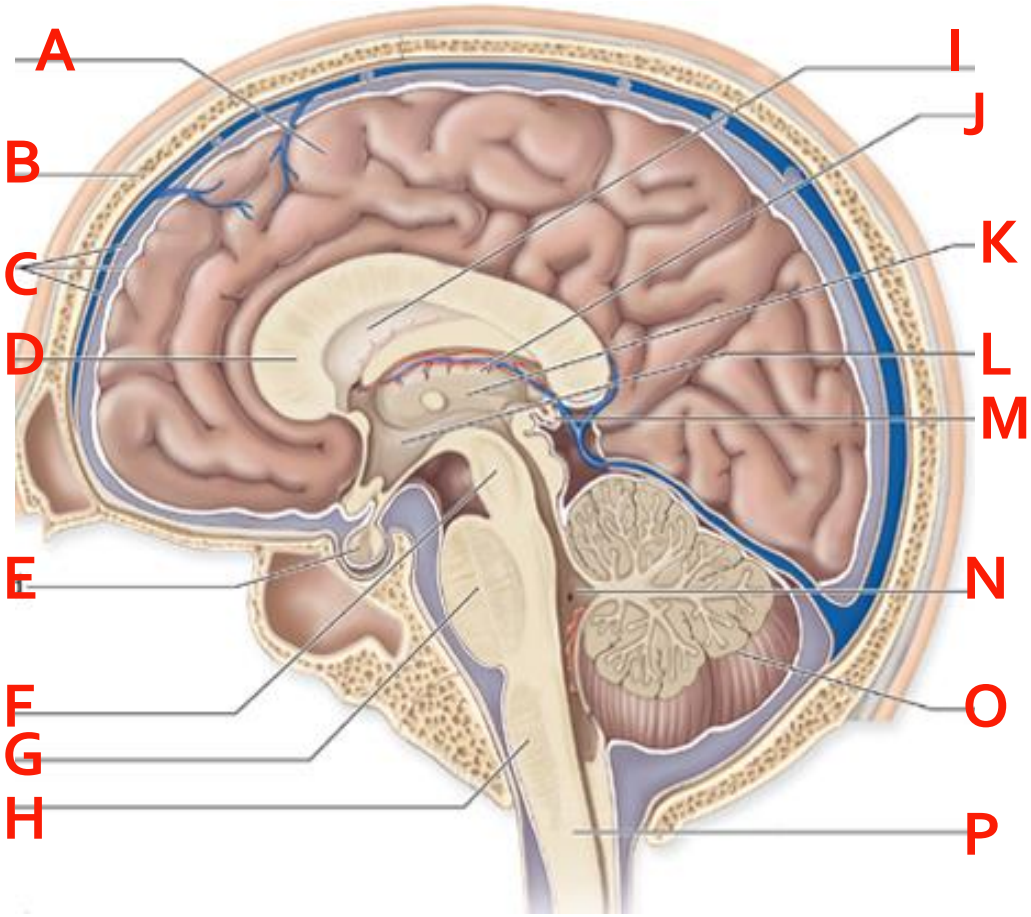


	Function
	Joins the cerebral hemispheres together
	Sort sensory stimuli to cerebrum
	Responsible for coordination and balance
	Secretes ADH, oxytocin, LH and FSH
	Ventricles that produce cerebrospinal fluid (CSF)
	Help regulated heart rate, strength of contraction and breathing
	Controls homeostasis like hunger, water balance, body temp., and reproduction
	Visual and auditory reflexes along with providing communication between all parts of the brain
	Involved with head reflexes and helps with heart rate and breathing control



	Function
D	Joins the cerebral hemispheres together
K	Sort sensory stimuli to cerebrum
O	Responsible for coordination and balance
E	Secretes ADH, oxytocin, LH and FSH
I	Ventricles that produce cerebrospinal fluid (CSF)
H	Help regulated heart rate, strength of contraction and breathing
L	Controls homeostasis like hunger, water balance, body temp., and reproduction
F	Visual and auditory reflexes along with providing communication between all parts of the brain
G	Involved with head reflexes and helps with heart rate and breathing control

CHAPTER 13: EXCRETION

EXCRETION

Kidneys:

- Filter blood of wastes & produces urine
- Maintains water & salt balance
- Maintains blood pH
- Produces hormones

Ureters:

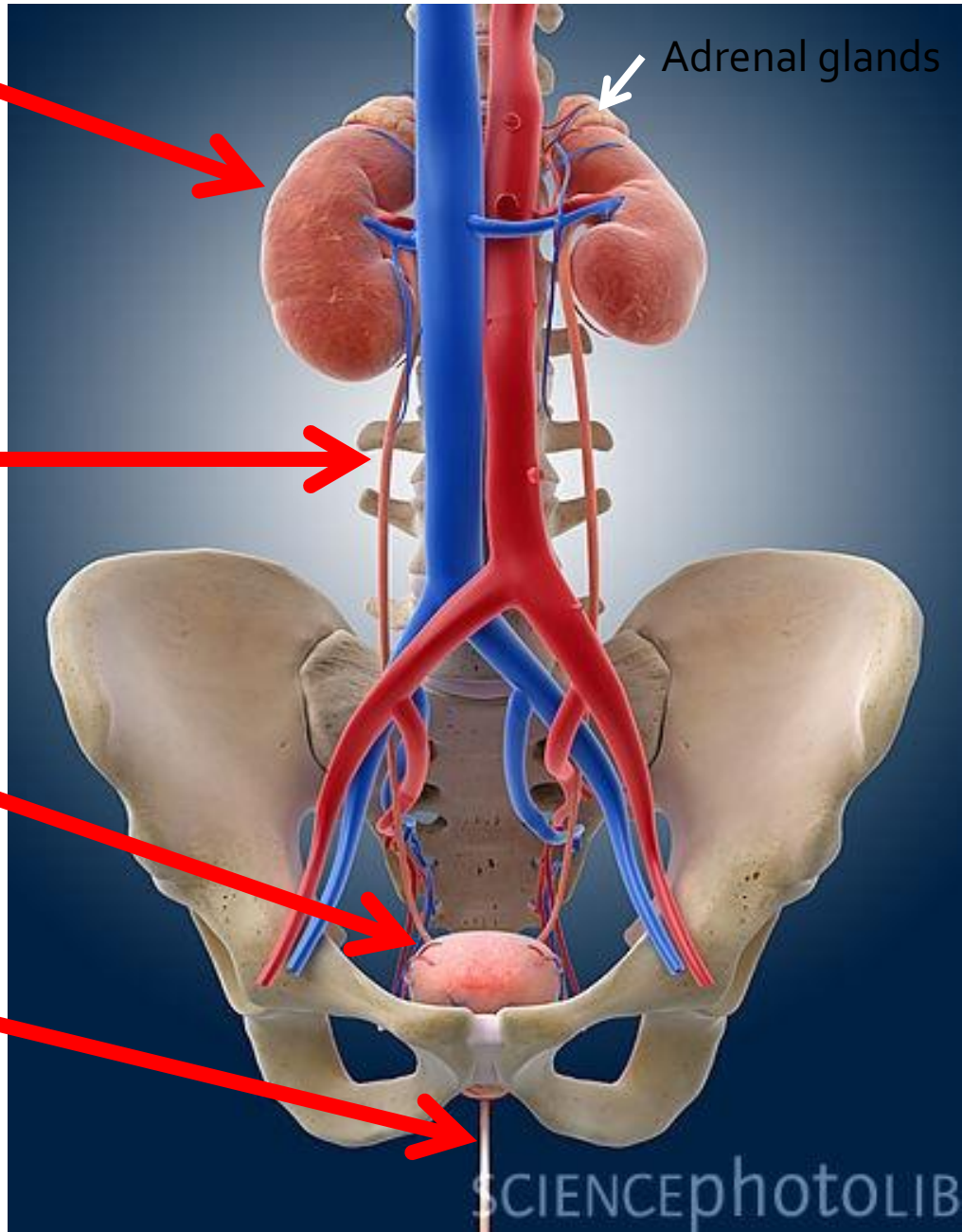
- Transports urine from kidney to bladder by peristalsis

Bladder:

- Stores urine until urination

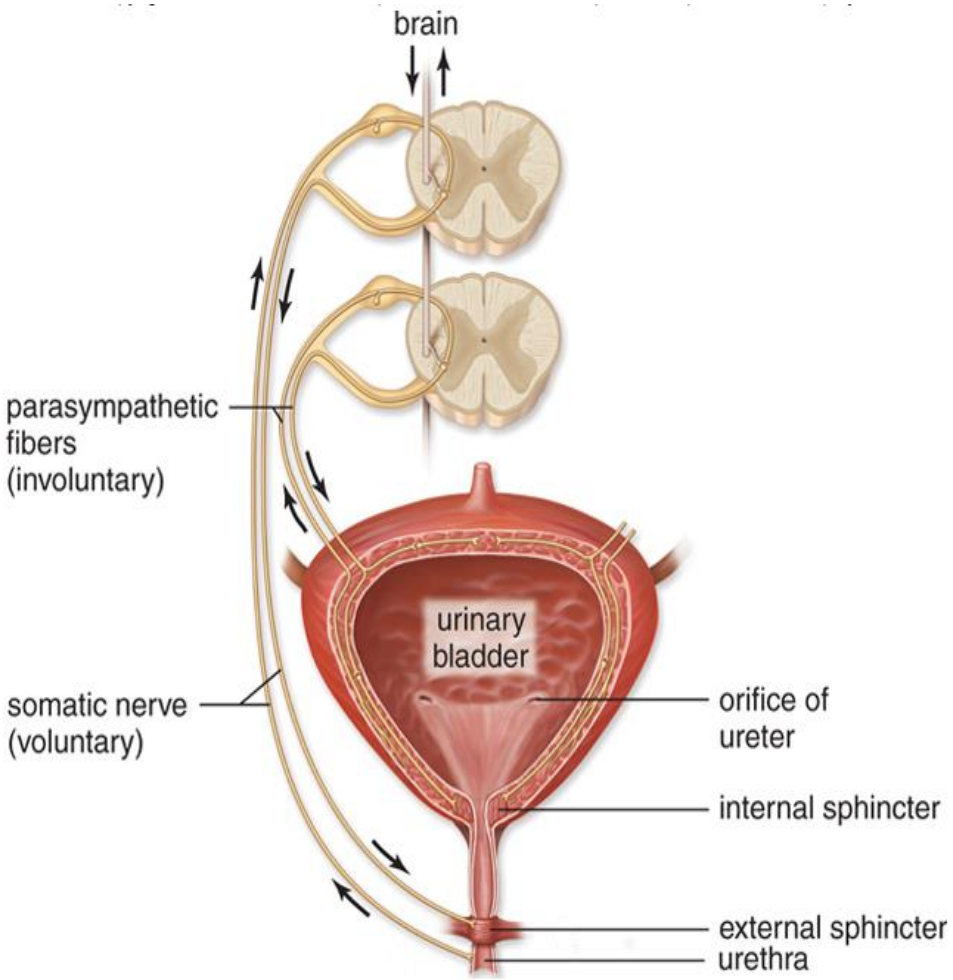
Urethra:

- Transports urine from bladder out of body during urination



Urination = micturition reflex

1. Bladder fills with urine and stretches.
2. Stretch receptors send impulse to spinal cord and back as a reflex
3. Bladder contracts and internal sphincter relaxes
4. External sphincter is voluntary and you relax it during a convenient time to urinate

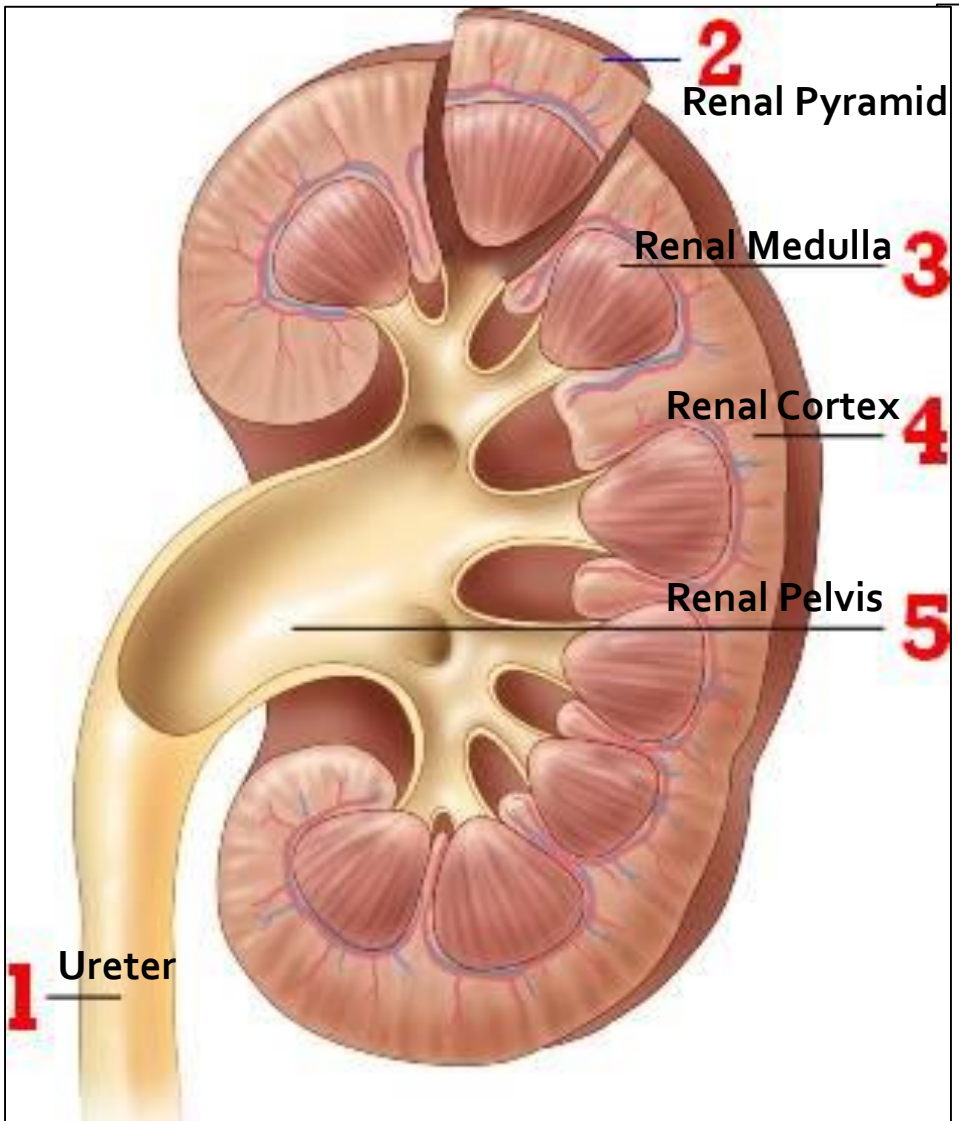


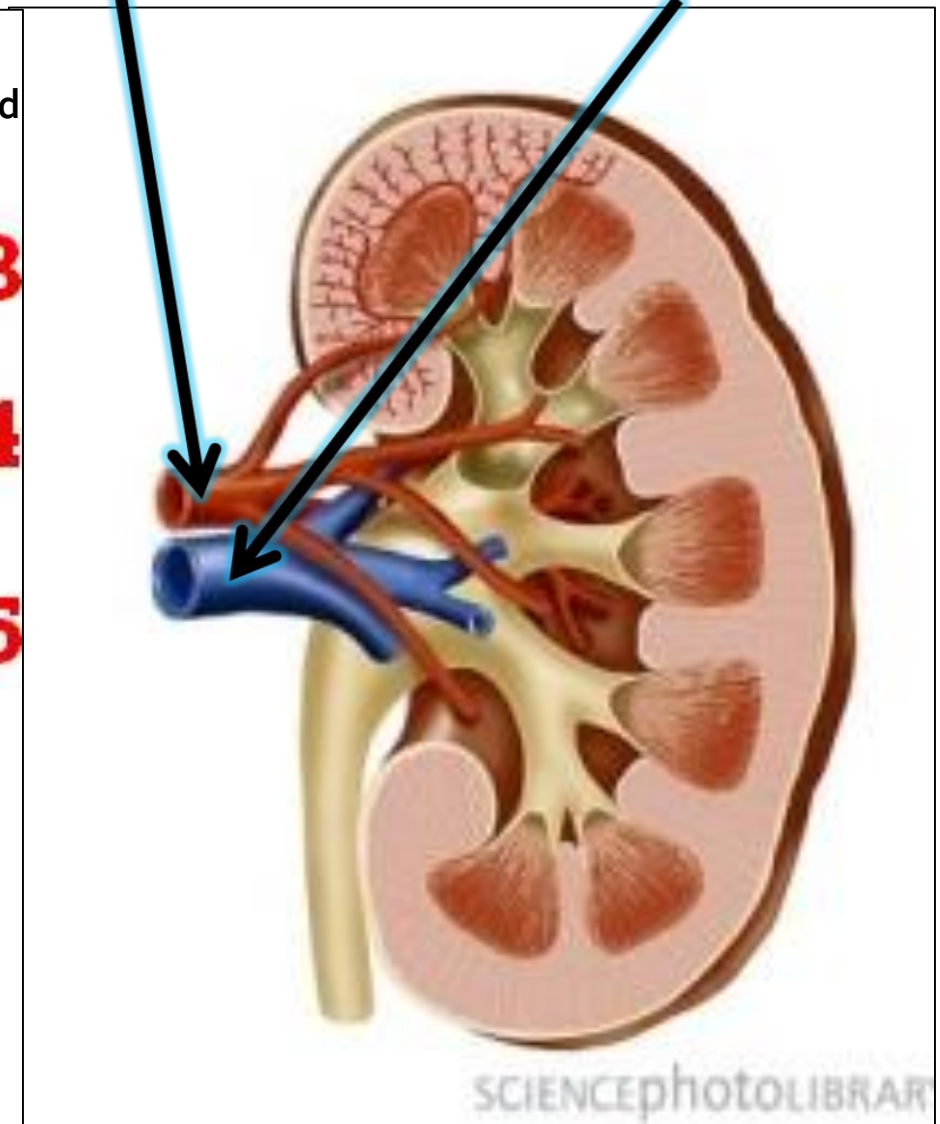
http://highered.mcgraw-hill.com/sites/0072495855/student_viewo/chapter27/animation__micturition_reflex.html

Kidney Anatomy

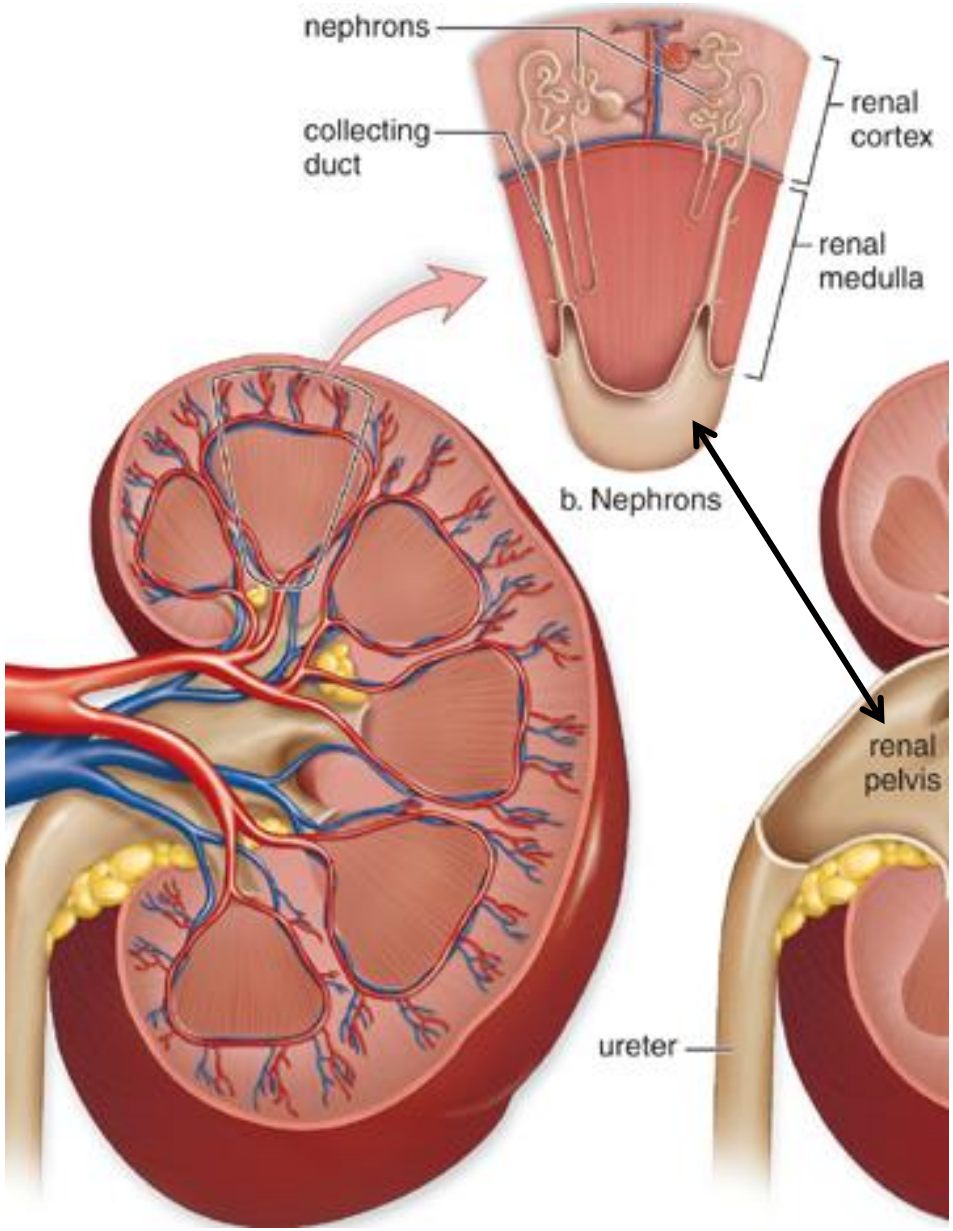
Renal Artery: High in O_2, low in CO_2, high in nutrients, **HIGH in wastes**

Renal Vein: Low in O_2, high in CO_2, lower than artery but still high in nutrients, **LOW in wastes**





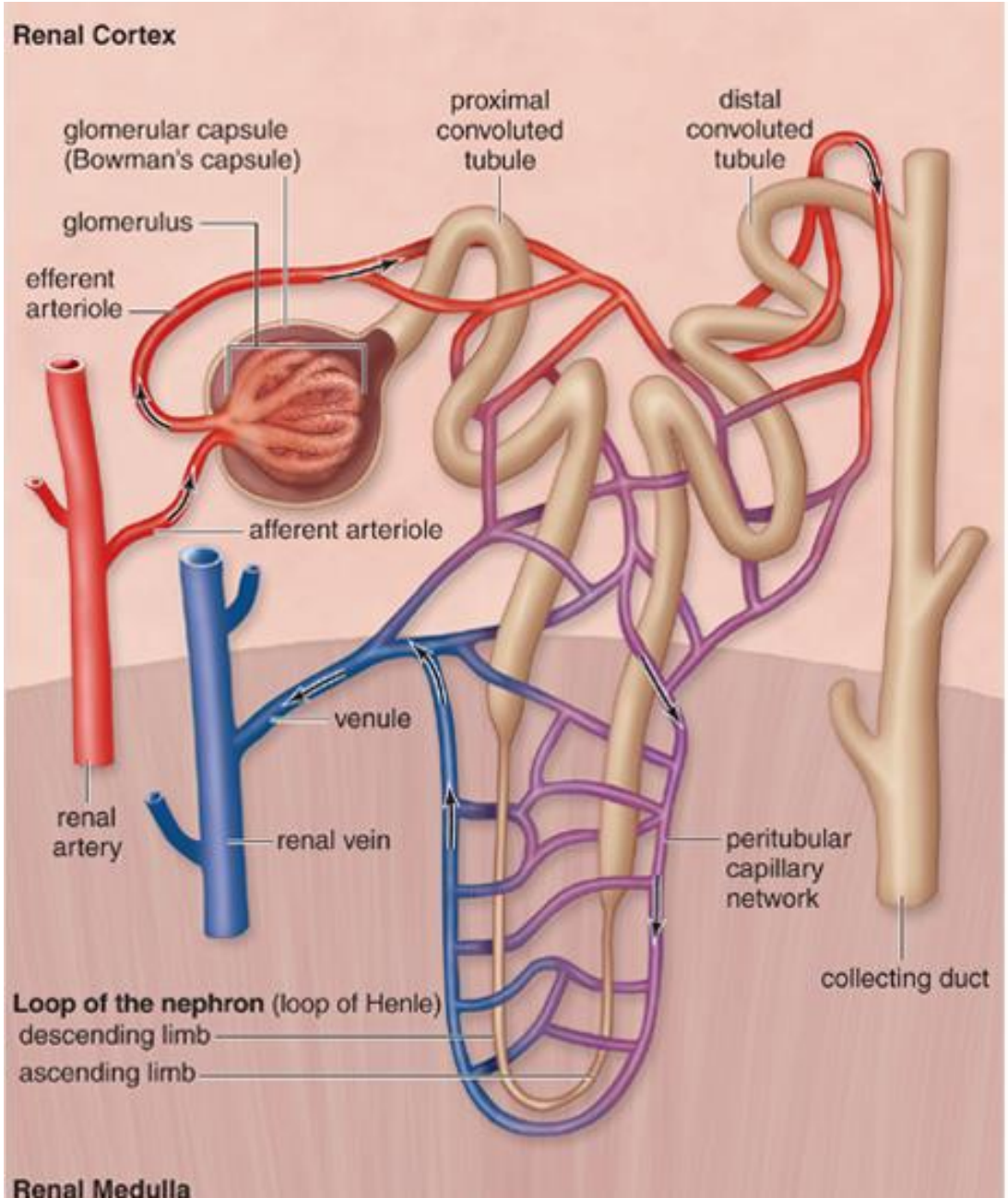
Nephrons = kidney tubules for urine formation



- The renal artery carries blood high in wastes to the kidney.
- Filtration of the blood occurs at the nephron
- Wastes are excreted while nutrients are reabsorbed back into the blood
- Urine is formed and excreted from the kidney via the renal pelvis into the ureters
- Blood leaving the renal vein is low in wastes

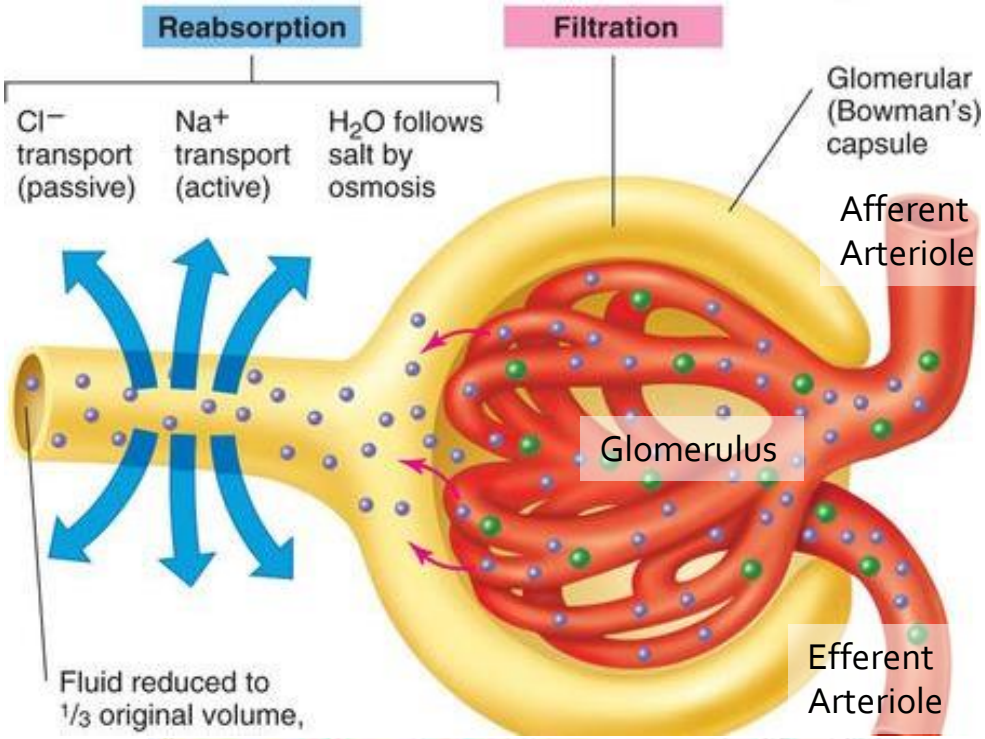
Nephron Anatomy & Urine Formation

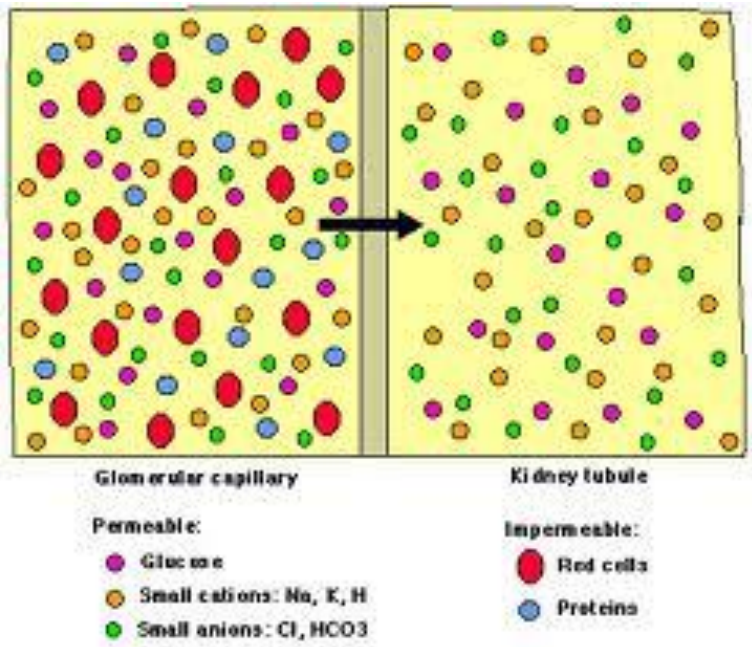
1. ***Pressure Filtration*** - occurs at the glomerulus where blood is filtered. Only small molecules leave blood (plasma) but large molecules like the formed elements (RBCs, WBCs, platelets) and proteins are not filtered.
2. ***Reabsorption*** – where molecules are reabsorbed from the filtrate inside the tubule back into the blood capillary.
3. ***Excretion or Secretion*** – additional wastes, drugs and hydrogen ions (H+) can be excreted from blood into the nephron tubule to become a part of urine.



Urine Formation

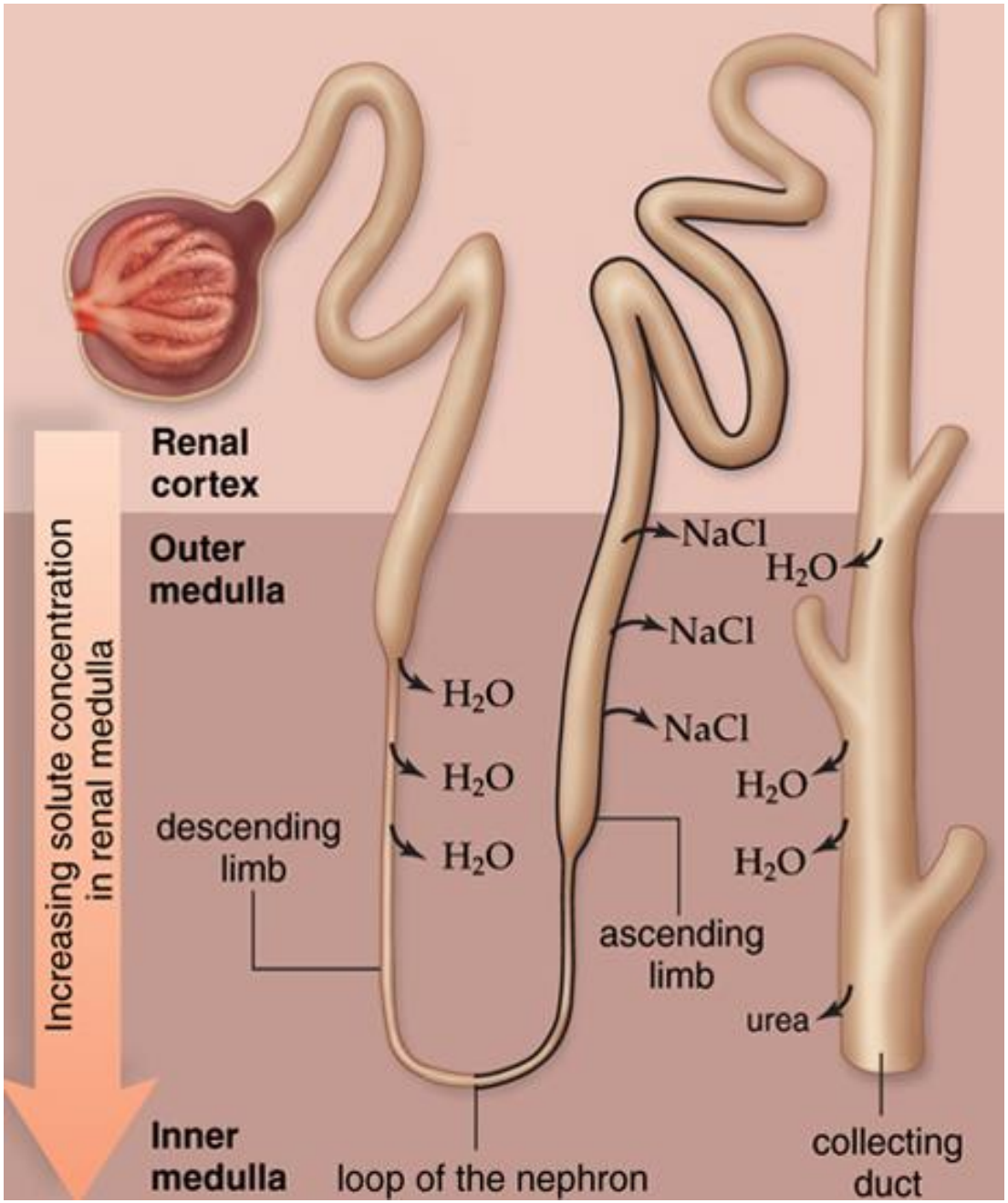
1. Afferent Arteriole = high BP to bring wastes to glomerulus
2. Pressure filtration at glomerulus to push small molecules out of blood (formed elements and proteins not filtered)
3. Filtrate enters glomerular capsule
4. At the proximal convoluted tubule reabsorption of nutrients (glucose, amino acids), water, salt – both actively & passively; PCT has microvilli and mitochondria to help with maximal transport of molecules across nephron



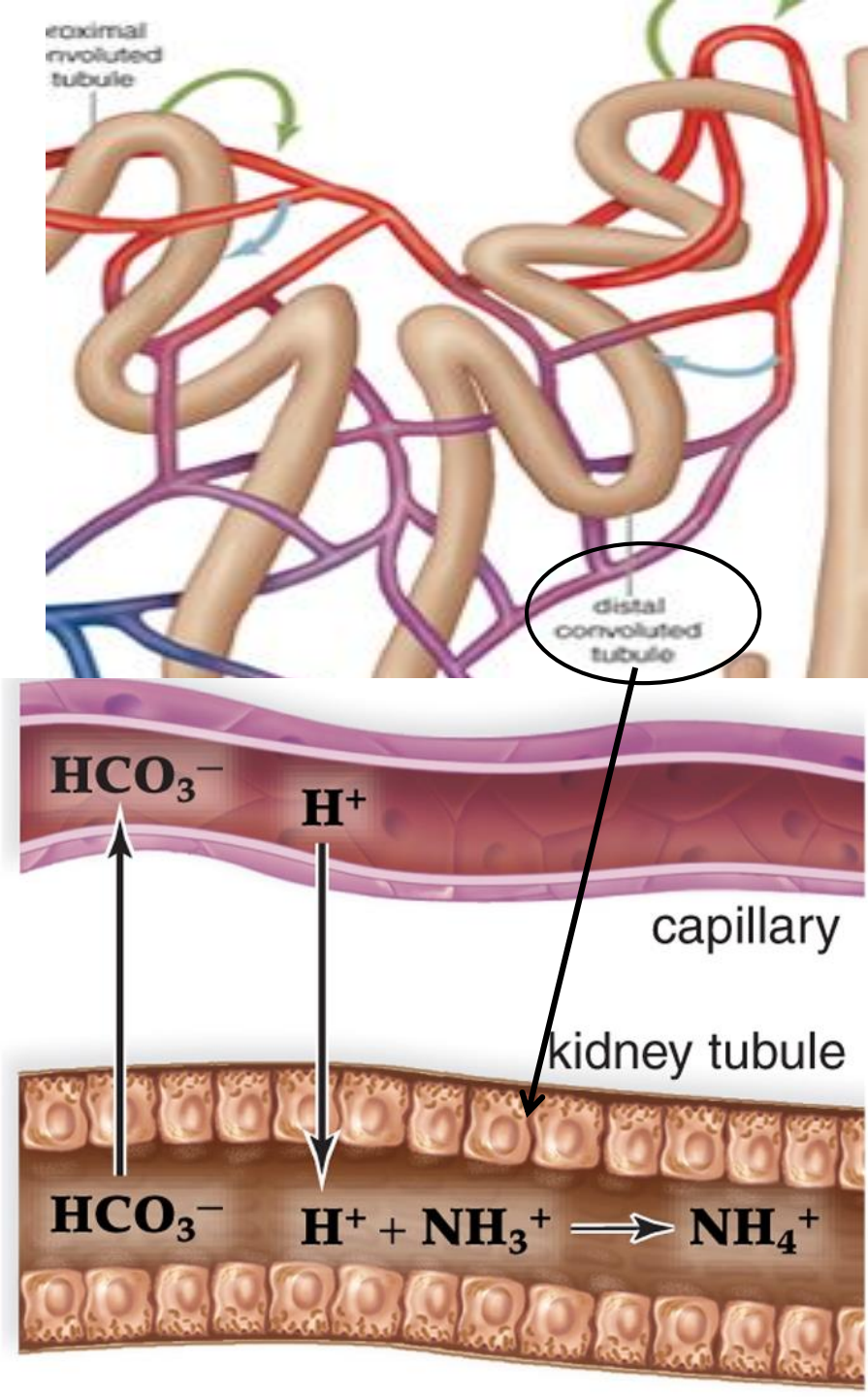


5. Filtrate goes down into the loop of the nephron where it is hypertonic outside the tubule. This causes water to be reabsorbed along the descending limb of the loop
6. Salt (NaCl or Na+) is reabsorbed along the ascending limb of the loop. This is what causes the medulla to become hypertonic drawing the water out of the tubule by osmosis at the descending limb.

Note: water reabsorption also occurs at the collecting duct due to the hypertonic medulla

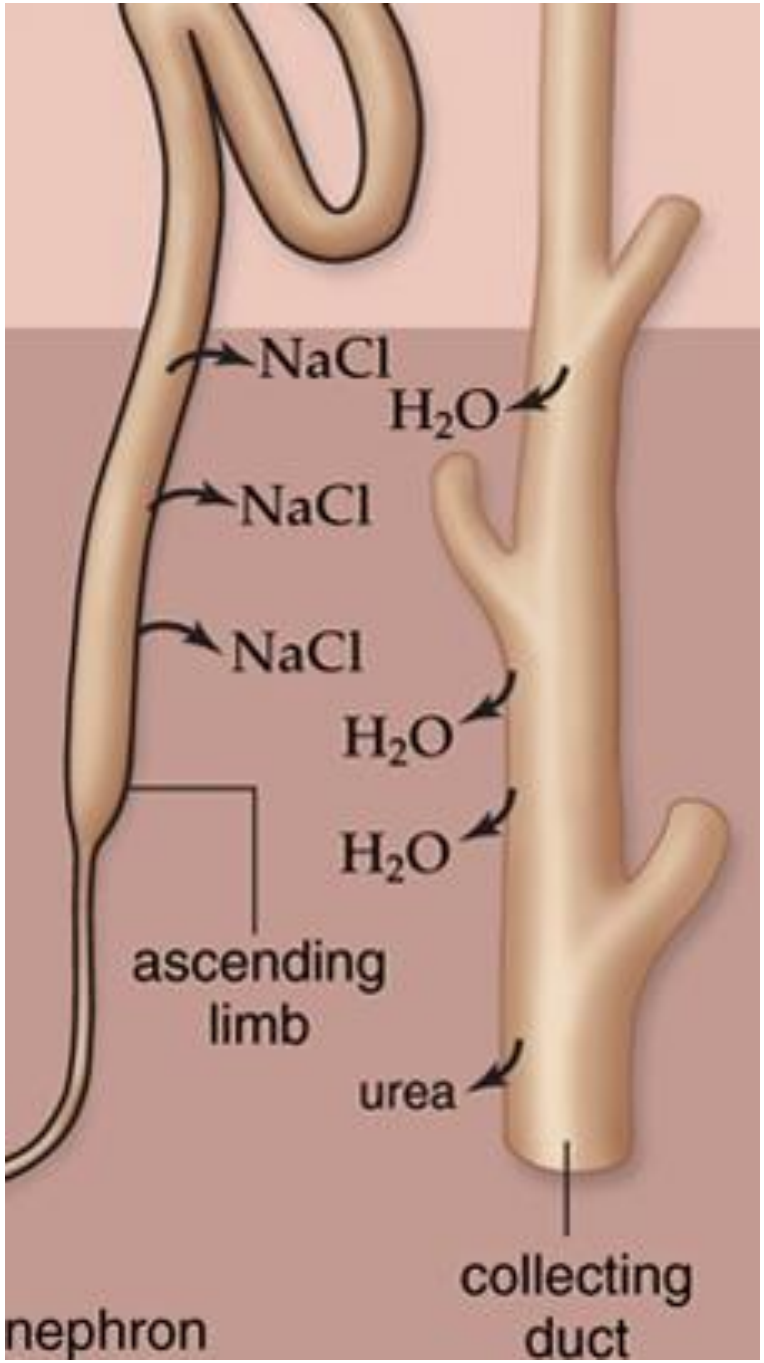


7. The filtrate travels up into the renal cortex again into the distal convoluted tubule where additional wastes like creatinine is excreted. Also drugs and Hydrogen ions. To maintain pH balance, H+ is excreted and HCO3- is reabsorbed. The H+ is buffered by ammonia in the tubule and urine



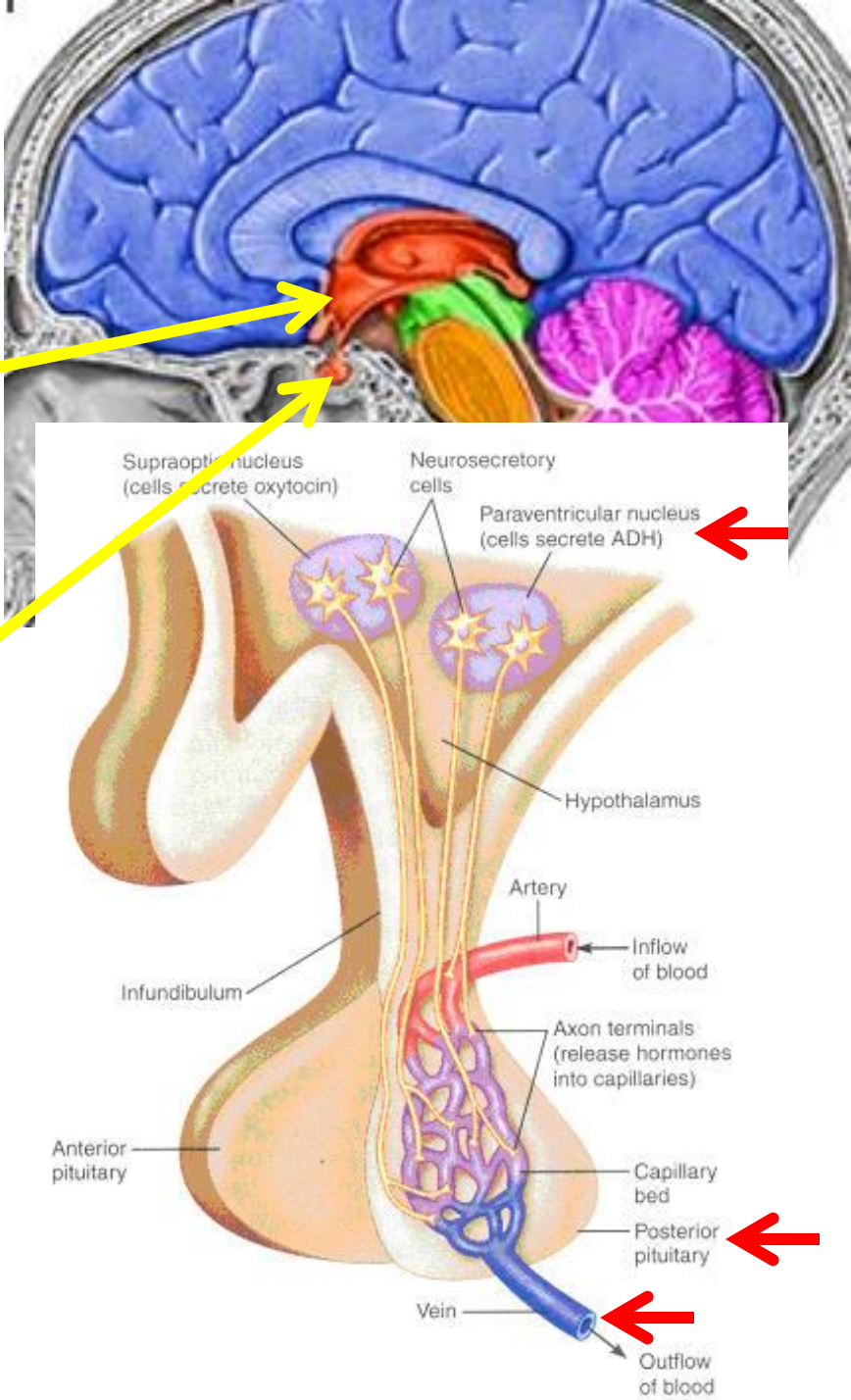
8. The filtrate from many nephrons is now collected by the collecting duct. Since is passes through the renal medulla again, additional water is reabsorbed as it passes through this hypertonic area. This concentrates the urine.

Note: some urea may be reabsorbed due to the concentration gradient.

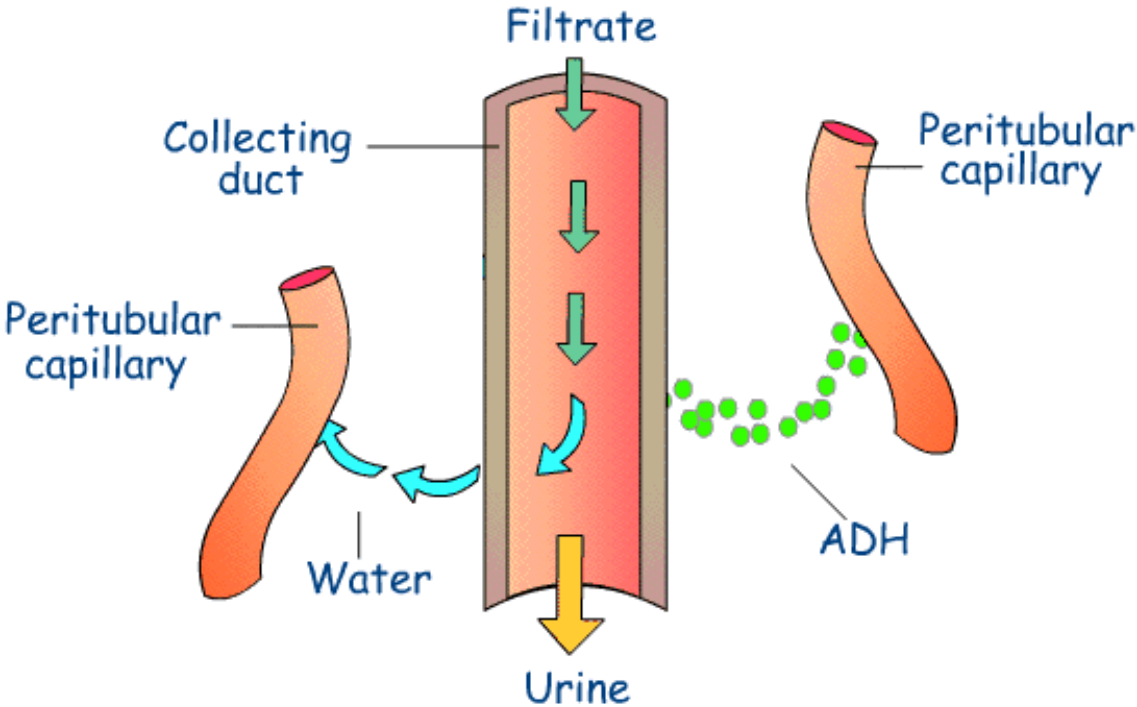


Hormones

- During dehydration or low water concentration in the blood, the hypothalamus produces Anti-Diuretic Hormone (ADH).
- ADH is secreted out the posterior pituitary gland into the blood to act on the kidney

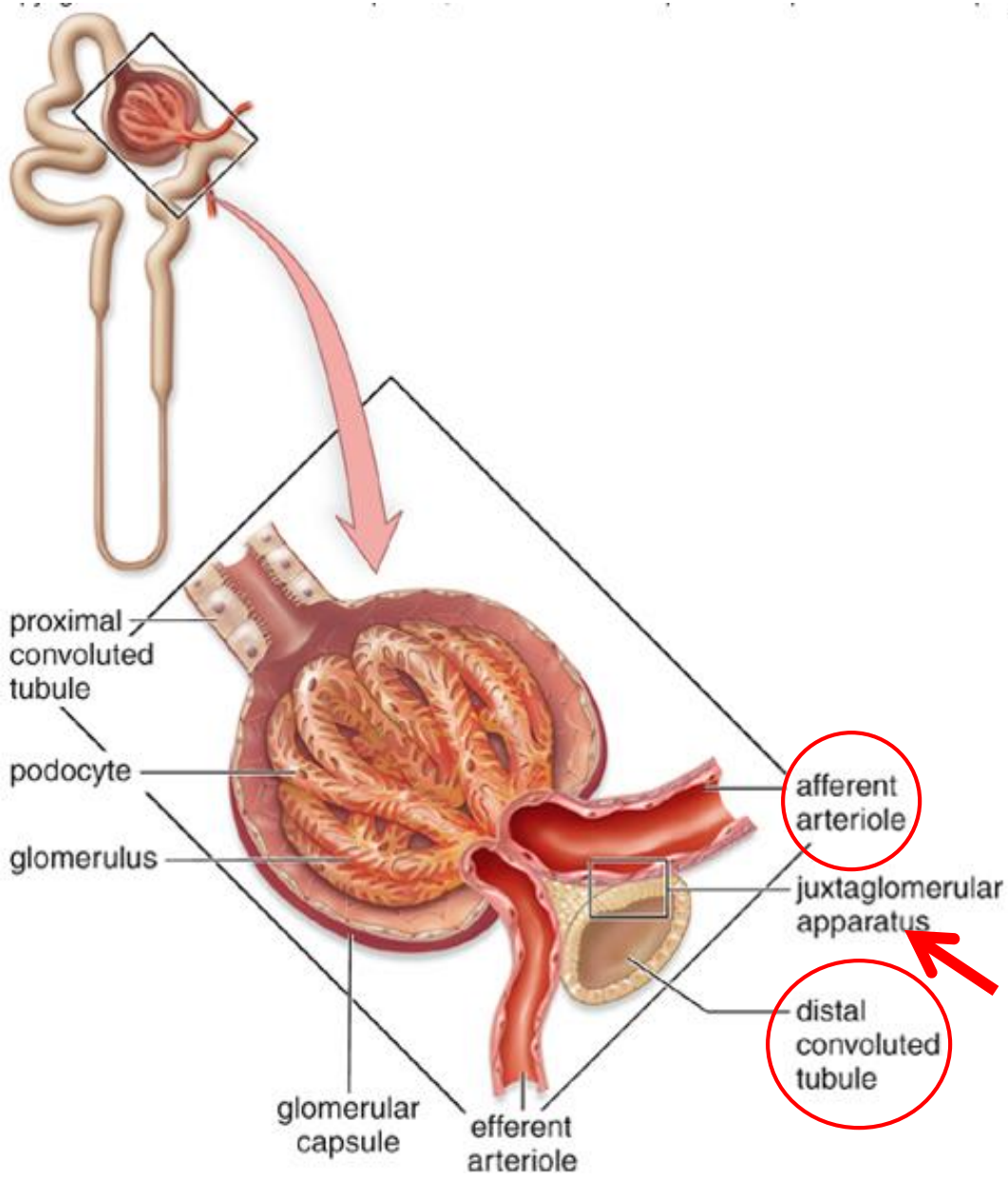


- ADH acts on the collecting ducts of the nephrons to increase water reabsorption
- This increases blood volume and water concentration which is detected by the hypothalamus
- Negative feedback results and the hypothalamus decreases ADH production
- Urine is also more concentrated due to less water content in urine

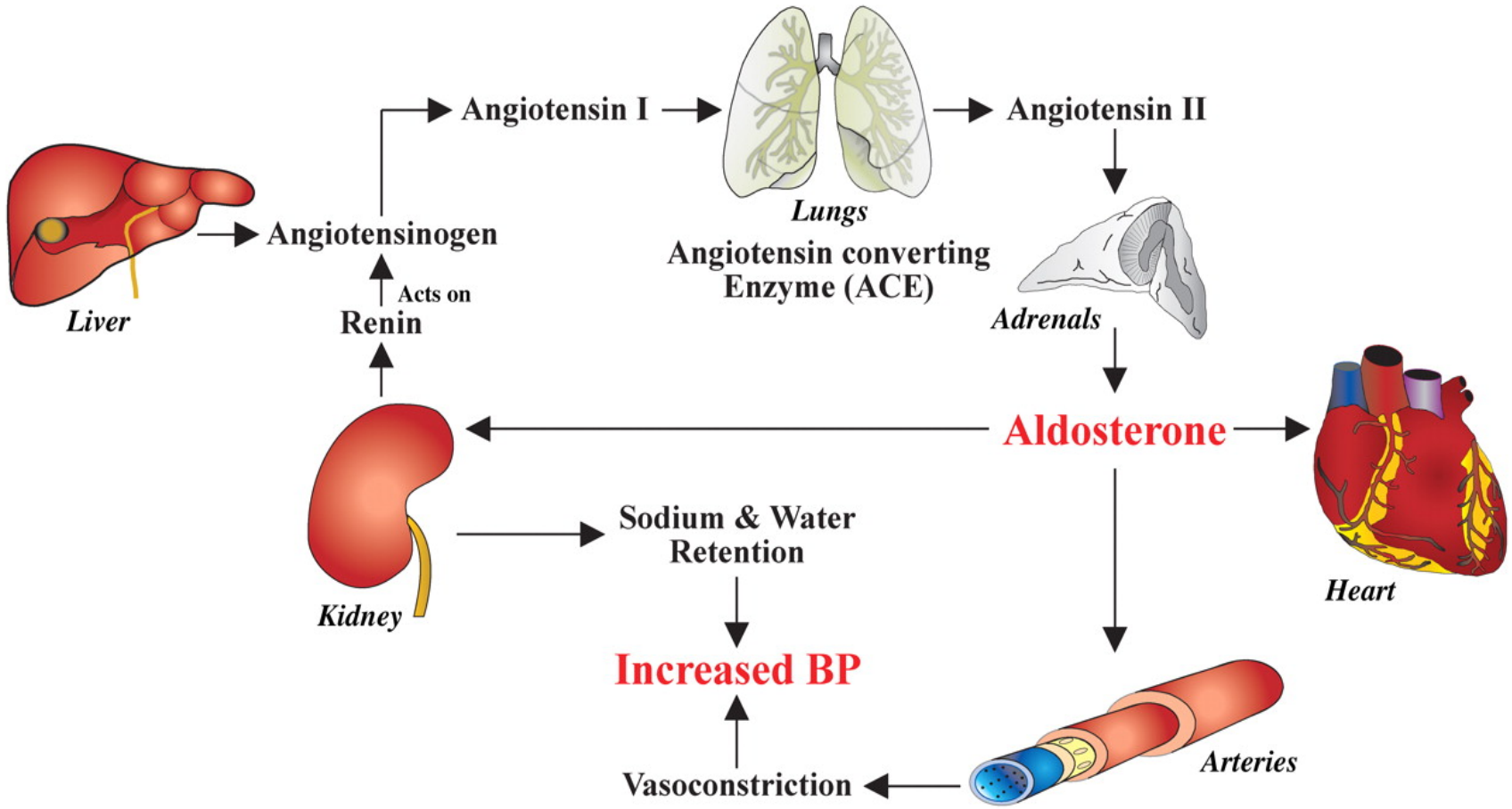


Aldosterone

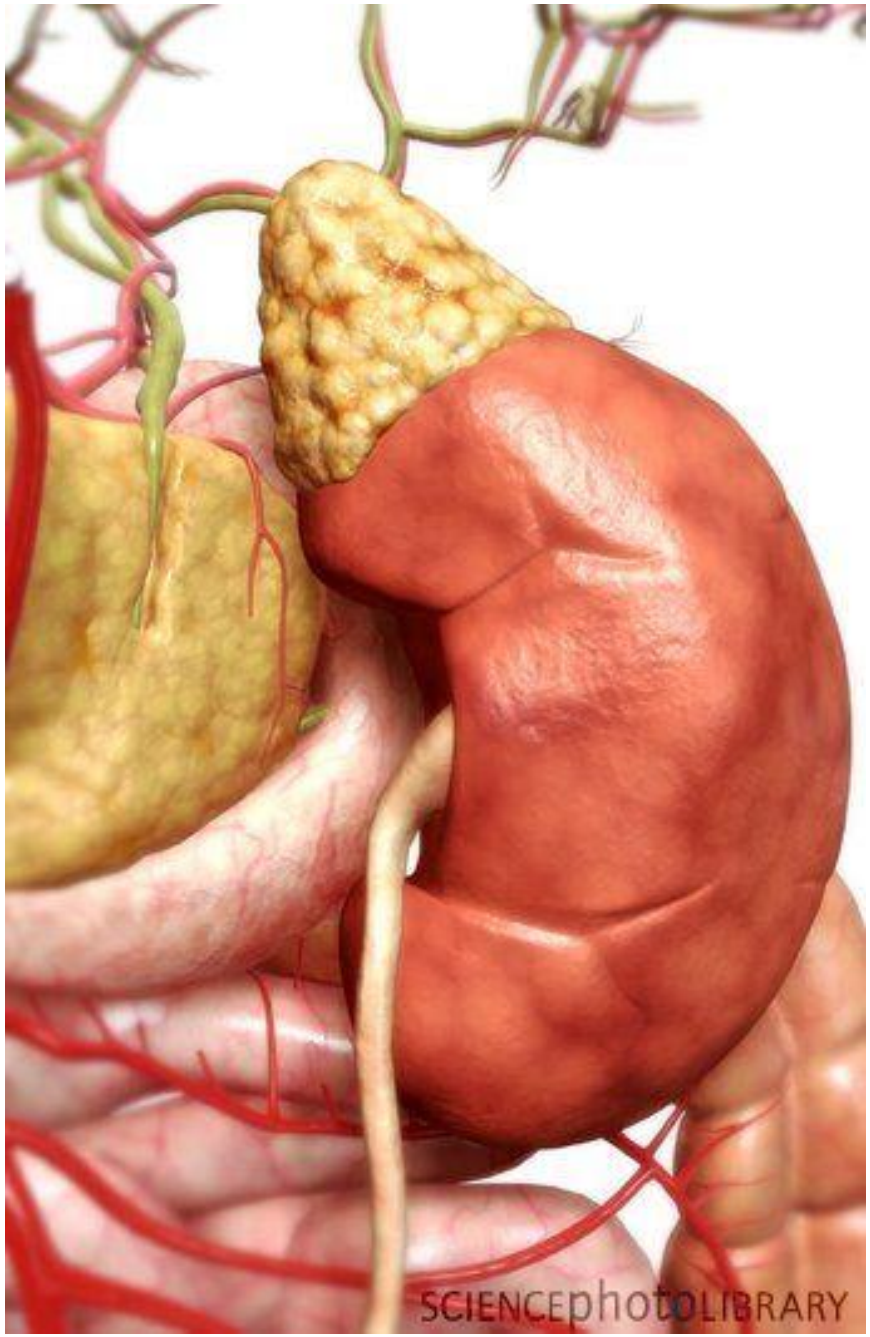
- When there is low BP due to low blood volume, a specialized group of cells in the kidney called the juxtaglomerular apparatus detects this low BP and secretes renin into the blood



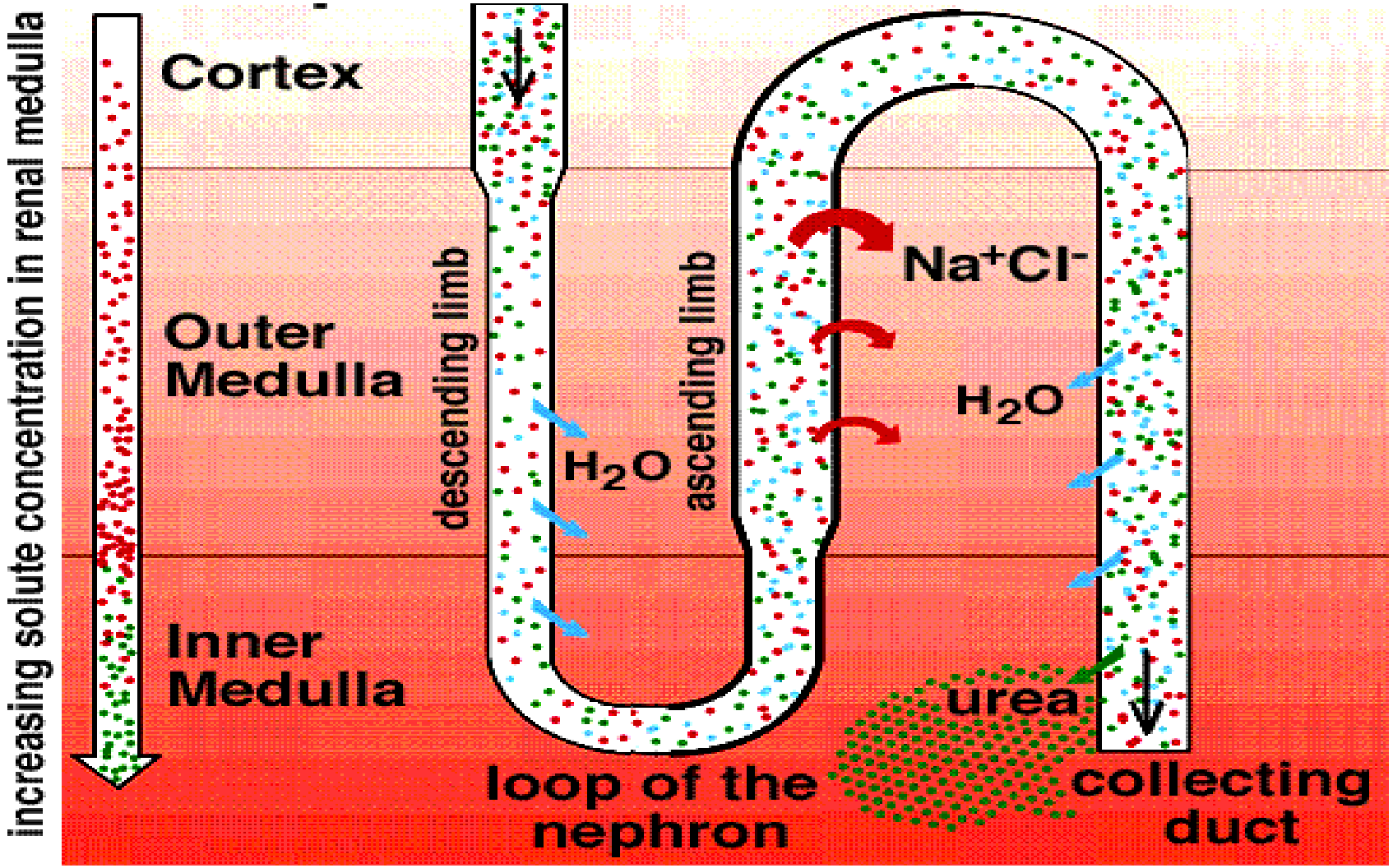
- Renin causes the conversion of Angiotensinogen (a plasma protein from the liver) to Angiotensin I
- Angiotensin I is converted to Angiotensin II in the lungs
- Angiotensin II causes vasoconstriction to increase BP & it acts on the adrenal glands to secrete aldosterone



- Aldosterone is secreted from the adrenal cortex
- It causes an increase in salt (NaCl or Na+) reabsorption at the nephron
- This results in an increase in water reabsorption resulting in an increase in blood volume and blood pressure



- Since increased salt reabsorption causes an increasingly hypertonic medulla resulting in an increased water reabsorption along the descending limb and the collecting ducts occurs

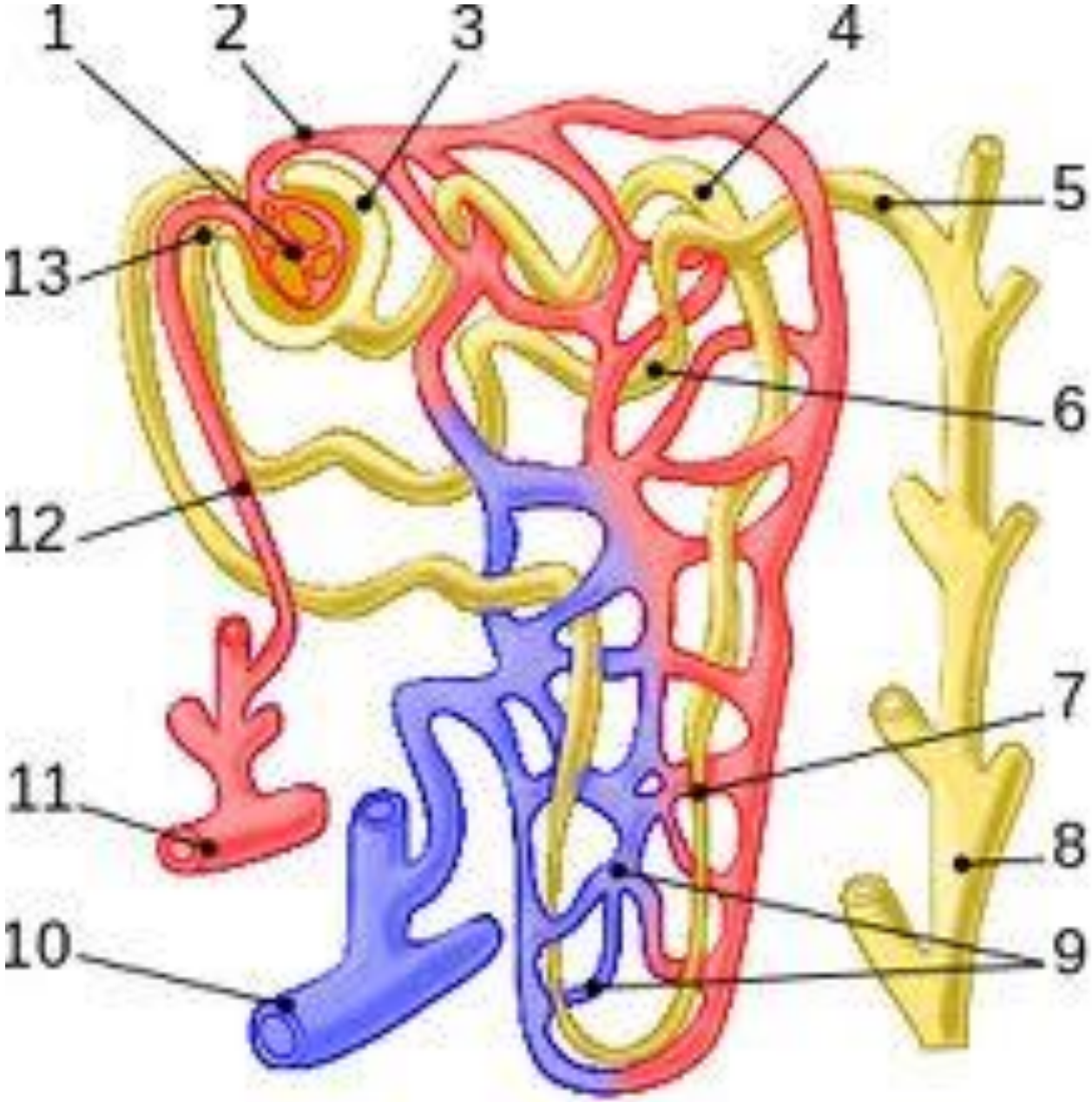


Structure/Molecule	Function
	Site of pressure filtration
	These molecules are completely reabsorbed at the PCT
	ADH acts here to increase water reabsorption
	The part is impermeable to salt reabsorption
	When blood pH is low, there is an increase in excretion of this molecule
	Reabsorption of this molecule creates a hypertonic medulla
	The is the last place in the nephron that water is reabsorbed
	Aldosterone is secreted from this gland
	This hormone causes increased salt reabsorption

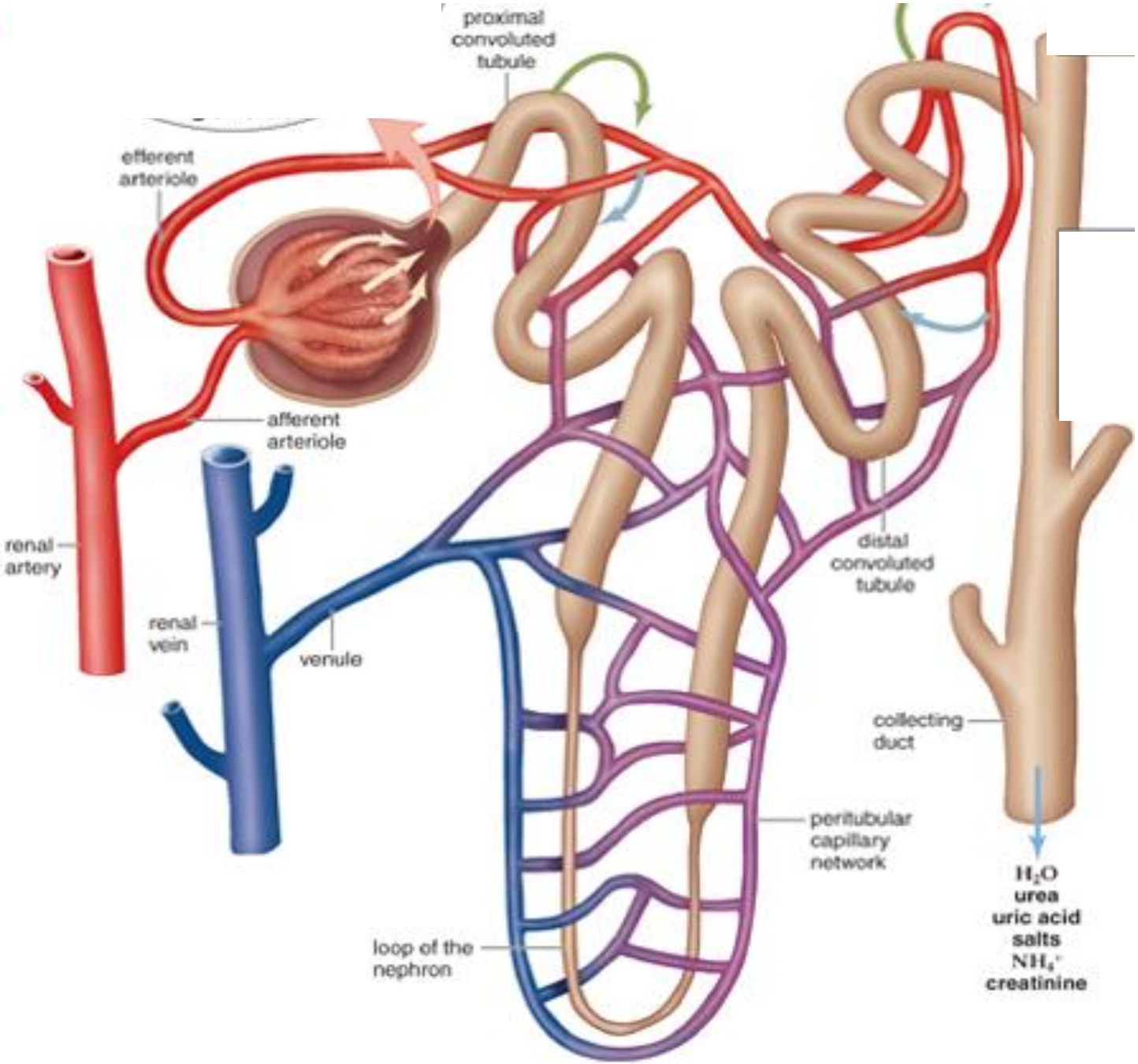
Structure/Molecule	Function
	Site of glucose reabsorption
	Increases surface area for transport of molecules through nephron
	This waste is filtered out of blood at the glomerulus
	When BP drops, the nephron produces this hormone
	Blood pH is regulated by transport of molecules at this part of the nephron
	This molecule is reabsorbed at the PCT, loop, and collecting duct
	This part of the kidney collects all of the urine from the nephrons
	This structure help to store urine
	Peristalsis along this tube transports urine to the bladder

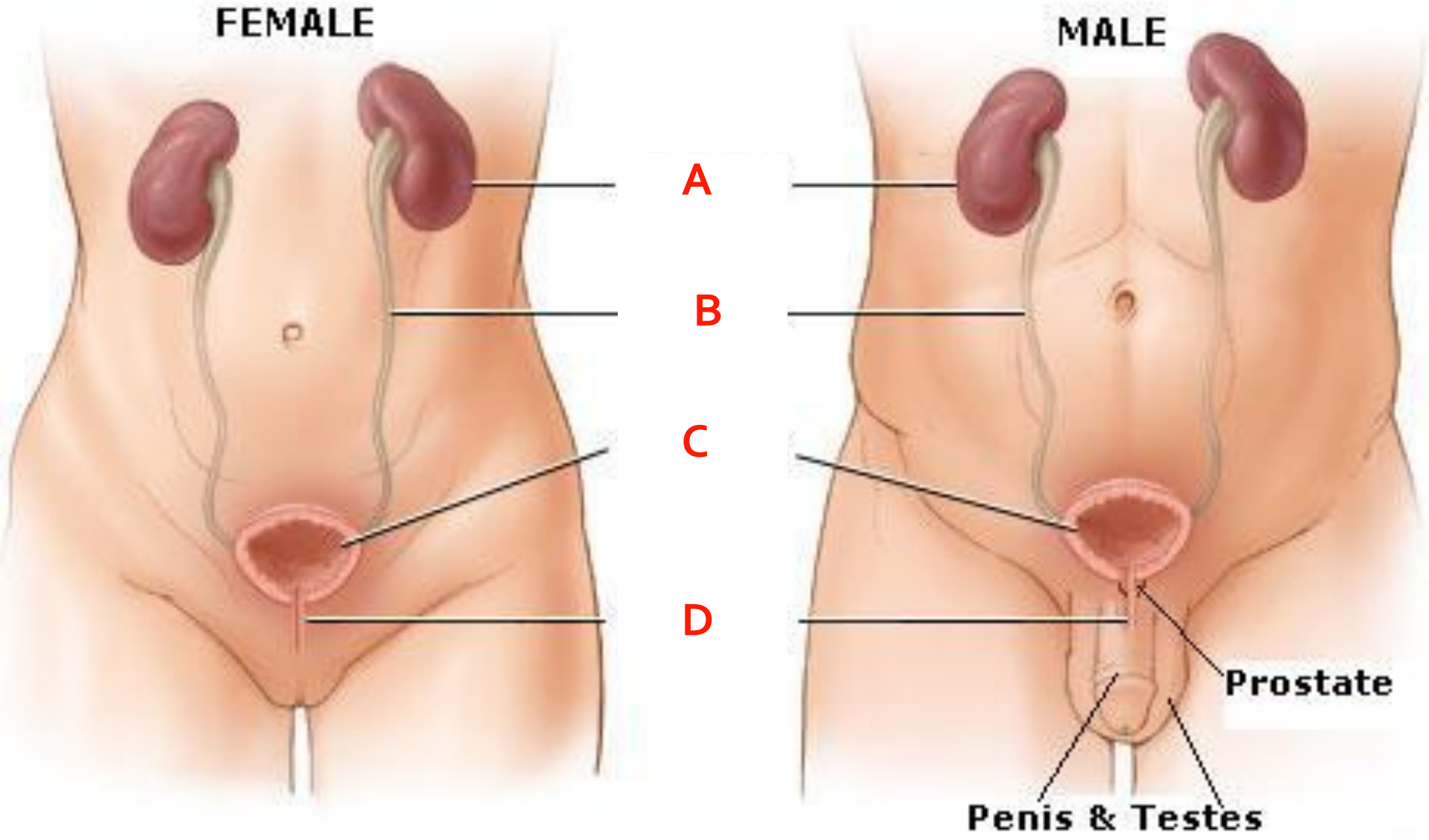
Structure/Molecule	Function
Glomerulus/Glomerular Capsule	Site of pressure filtration
Glucose & amino acids	These molecules are completely reabsorbed at the PCT
Collecting Duct (& DCT)	ADH acts here to increase water reabsorption
Descending limb of loop	The part is impermeable to salt reabsorption
Hydrogen ion / H+	When blood pH is low, there is an increase in excretion of this molecule
Salt/NaCl/Na+	Reabsorption of this molecule creates a hypertonic medulla
Collecting Duct	The is the last place in the nephron that water is reabsorbed
Adrenal Gland (adrenal cortex is more specific)	Aldosterone is secreted from this gland
Aldosterone	This hormone causes increased salt reabsorption

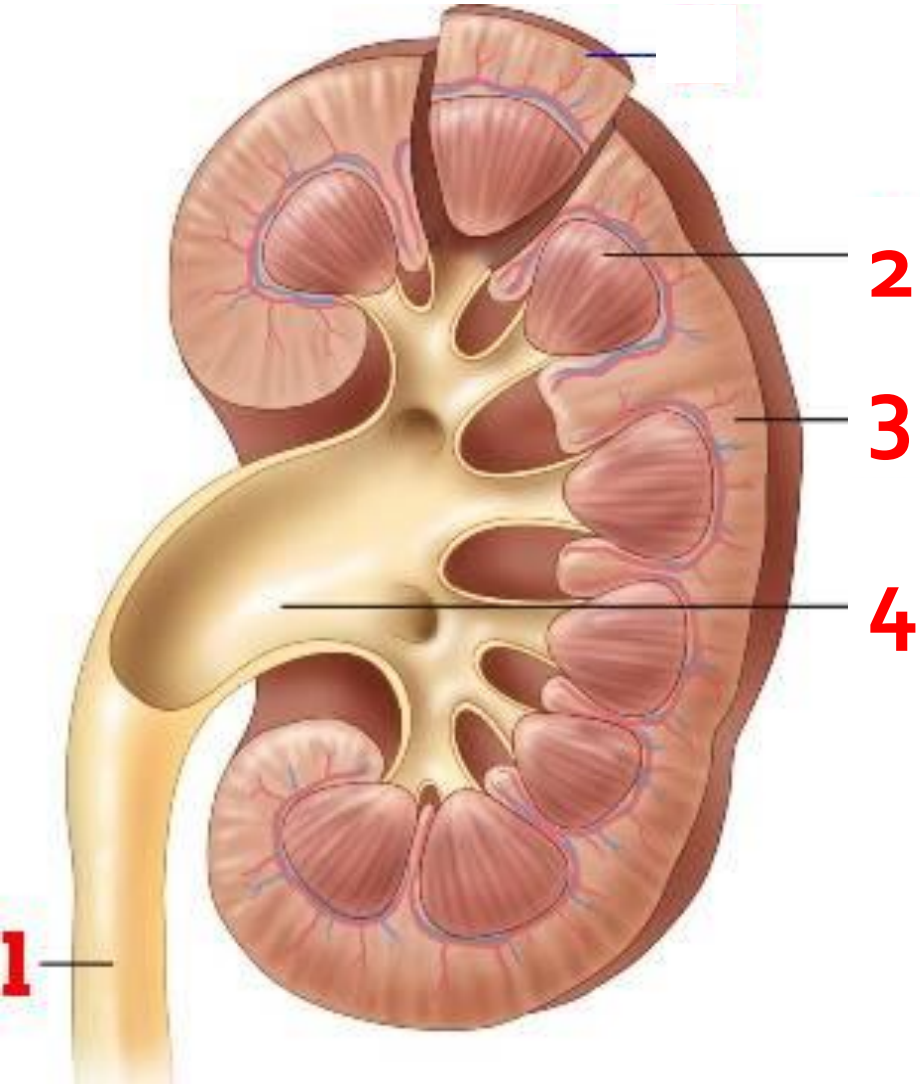
Structure/Molecule	Function
PCT	Site of glucose reabsorption
Microvilli	Increases surface area for transport of molecules through nephron
Urea & Uric Acid	This waste is filtered out of blood at the glomerulus
Renin	When BP drops, the nephron produces this hormone
DCT	Blood pH is regulated by transport of molecules at this part of the nephron
Water/H_2O	This molecule is reabsorbed at the PCT, loop, and collecting duct
Renal Pelvis	This part of the kidney collects all of the urine from the nephrons
Bladder	This structure help to store urine
Ureter(s)	Peristalsis along this tube transports urine to the bladder

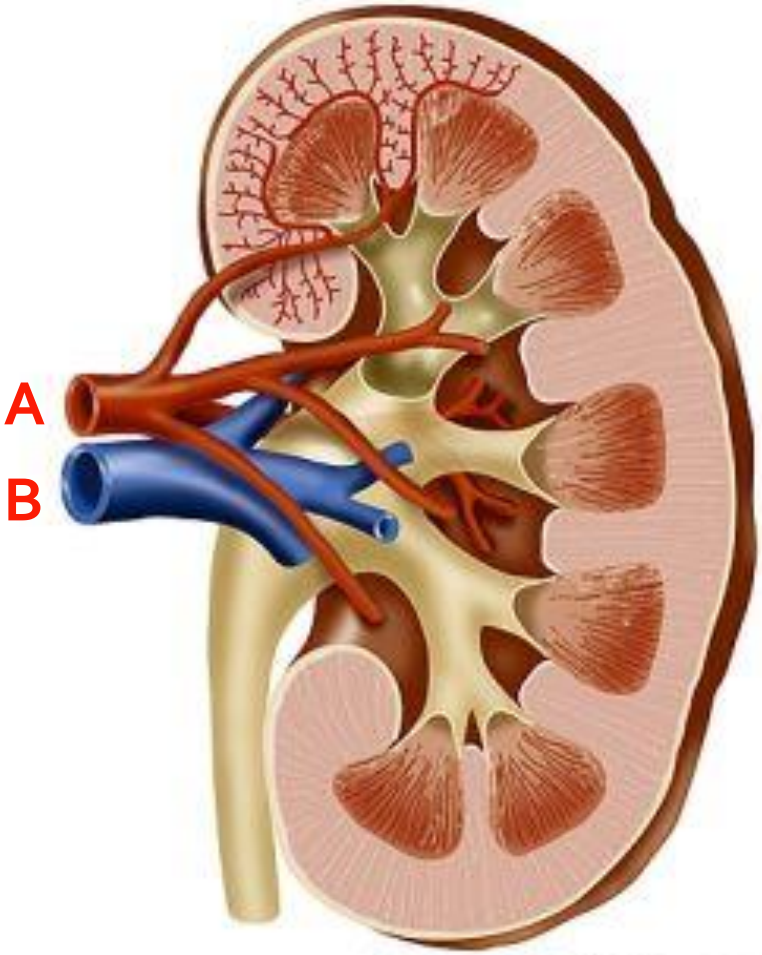

1
2
3
4
5
13
6
12
7
11
8
10
9

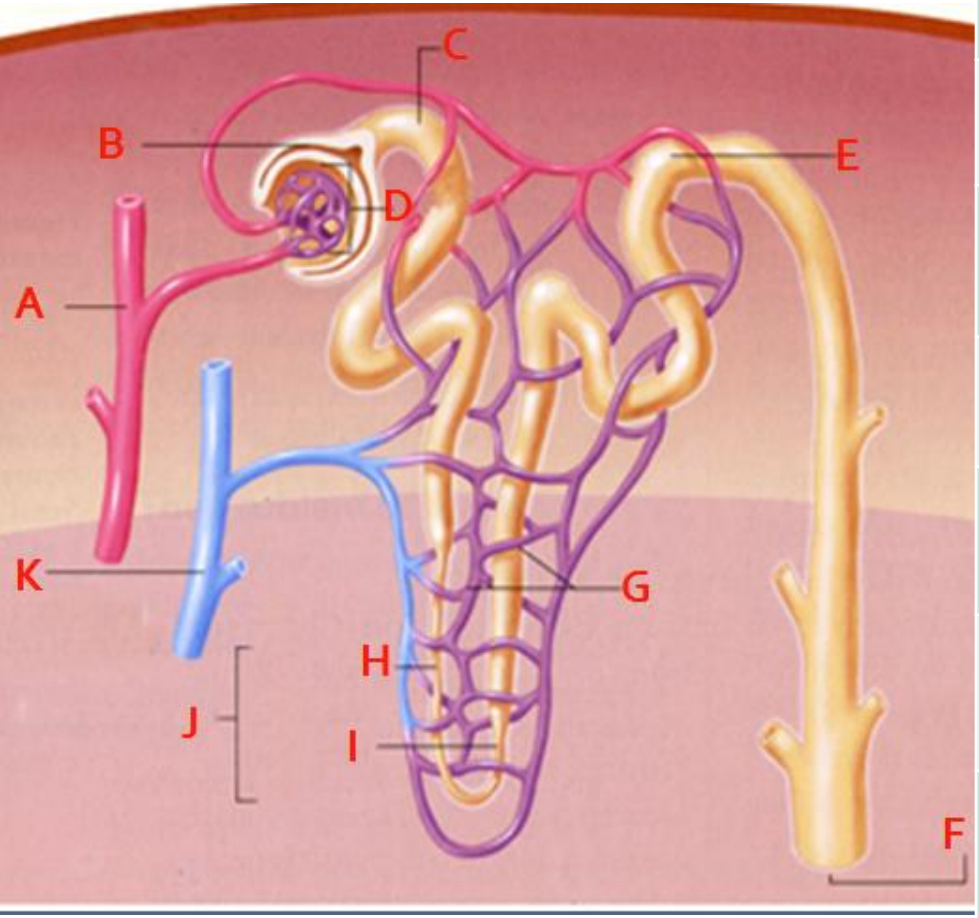
Label all molecules with direction of transport in the nephron



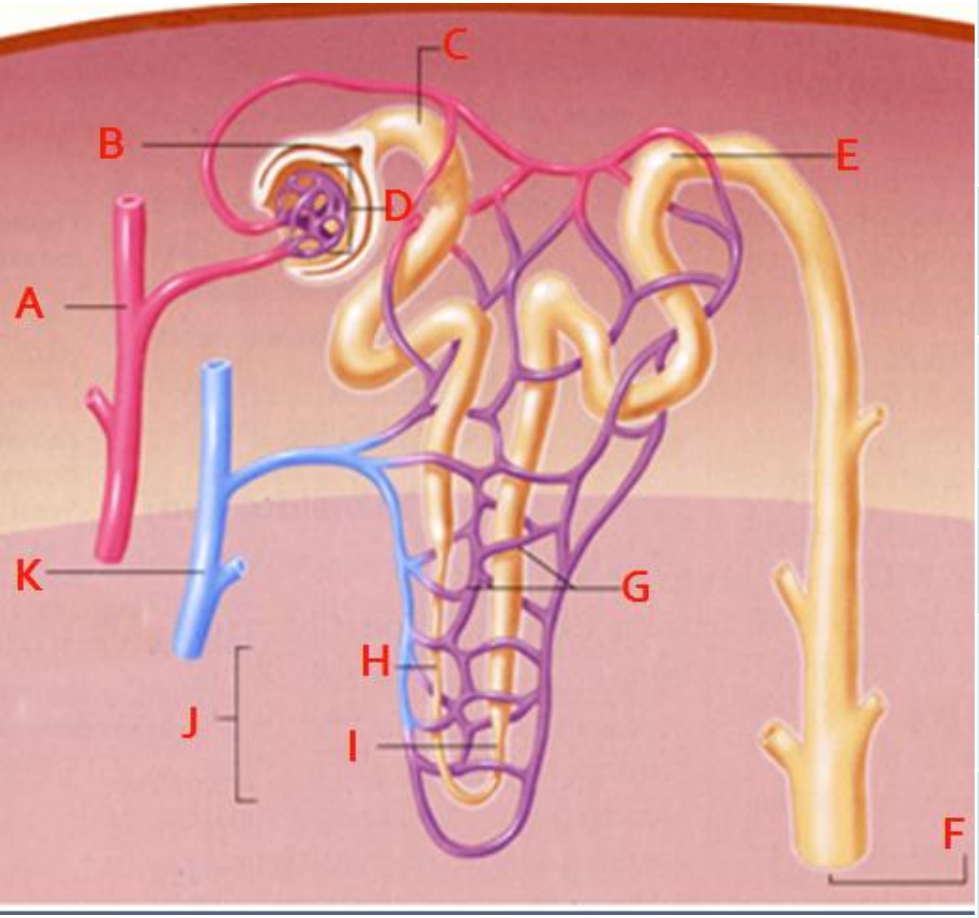

FEMALE
MALE
A
B
C
D
Prostate
Penis & Testes







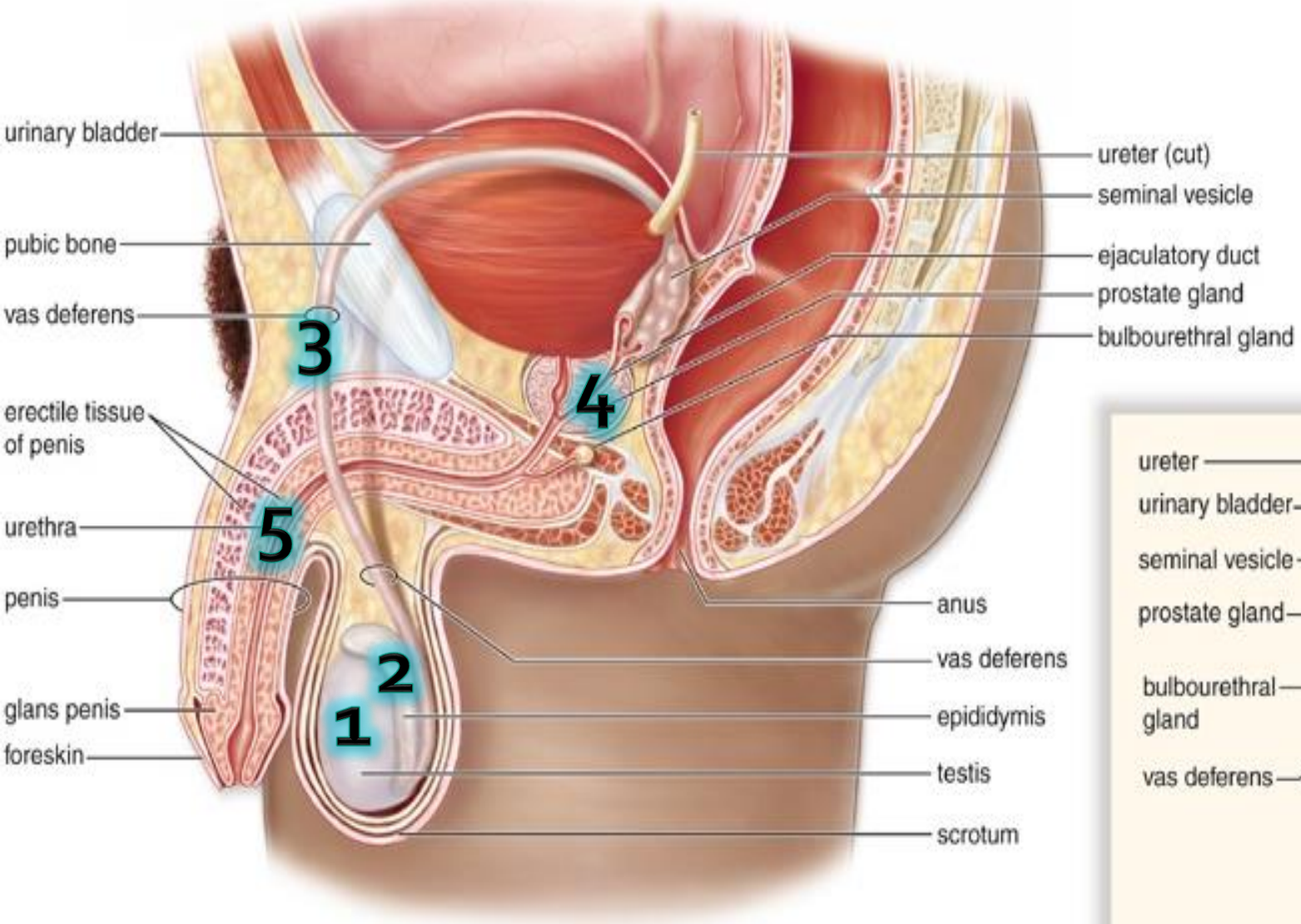
	Function
	Contains lowest amount of wastes in blood
	Reabsorption of nutrients
	Pressure filtration is due to high BP
	Collects small molecules from blood
	Water reabsorption and transport of urine to renal pelvis
	Salt (Na+) reabsorption to make a hypertonic medulla
	Only permeable to water
	Acid base balance and drug excretion
	Delivers blood high in wastes towards kidney
	Reabsorbed molecules re-enter blood here

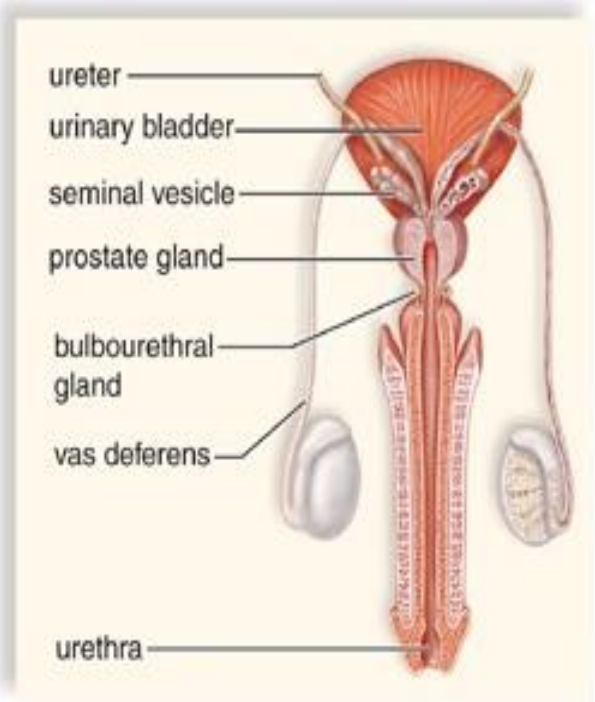


	Function
K	Contains lowest amount of wastes in blood
C	Reabsorption of nutrients
D	Pressure filtration is due to high BP
B	Collects small molecules from blood
F	Water reabsorption and transport of urine to renal pelvis
I	Salt (Na+) reabsorption to make a hypertonic medulla
H	Only permeable to water
E	Acid base balance and drug excretion
A	Delivers blood high in wastes towards kidney
G	Reabsorbed molecules re-enter blood here

CHAPTER 14: REPRODUCTION

MALES

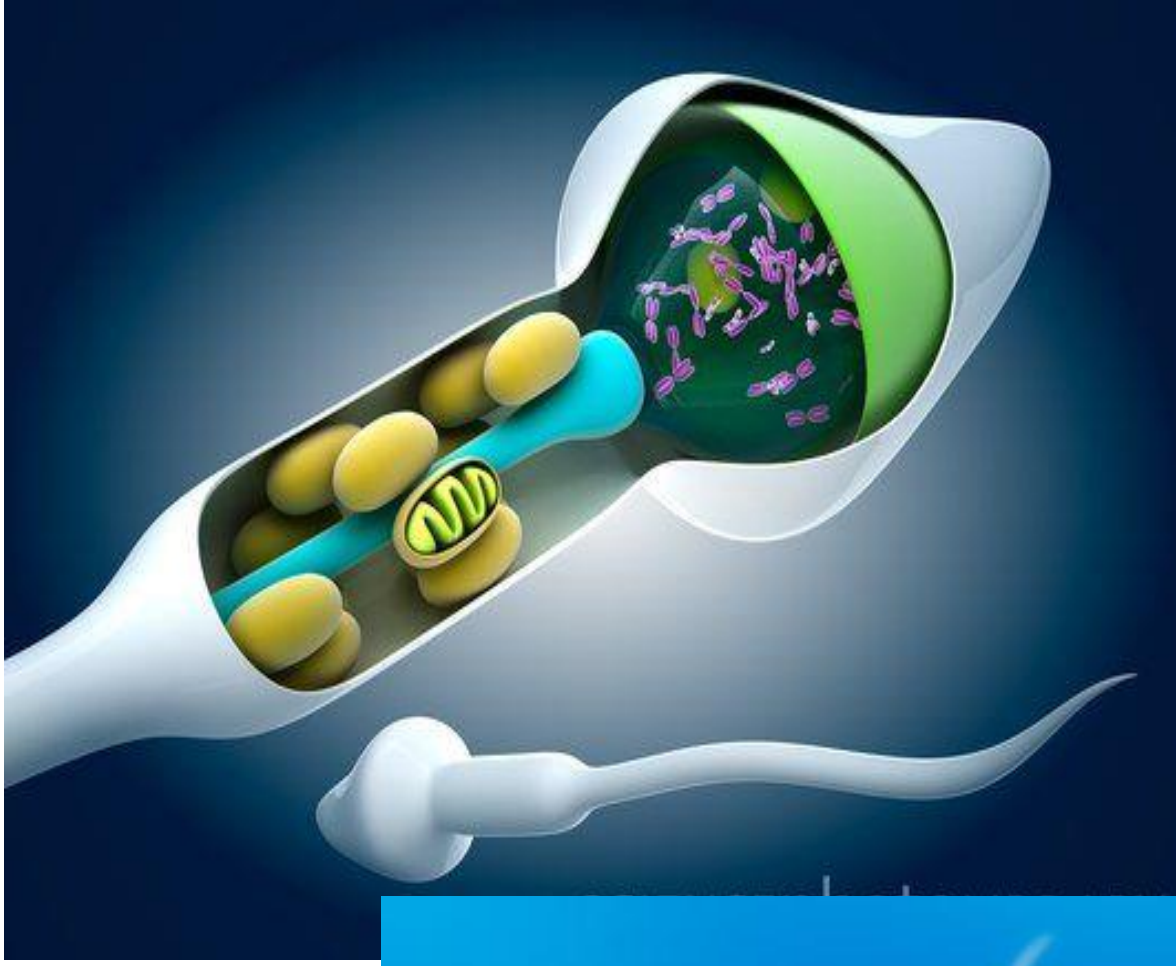

urinary bladder
pubic bone
vas deferens
erectile tissue of penis
urethra
penis
glans penis
foreskin
ureter (cut)
seminal vesicle
ejaculatory duct
prostate gland
bulbourethral gland
anus
vas deferens
epididymis
testis
scrotum
1
2
3
4
5


ureter
urinary bladder
seminal vesicle
prostate gland
bulbourethral gland
vas deferens
urethra

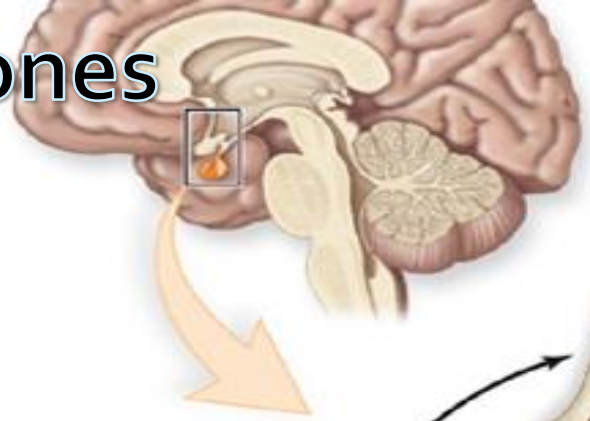
Structure	Function
1. Testes •Seminiferous Tubules •Interstitial Cells	Site of Spermatogenesis inside the seminiferous tubules & Testosterone production in the interstitial cells
2. Epididymis	Sperm finish maturing and become motile here.
3. Vas Deferens	Sperm travel here from epididymis and during ejaculation
4. Ejaculatory Duct	During ejaculation, the ejaculatory duct contracts and propels sperm along with secretions from the 3 accessory organs into the Urethra. This is now called semen.
Seminal Vesicle	Adds fructose secretions so mitochondria can produce ATP for flagellum to move sperm
Prostate Gland	Secreted an alkaline fluid to protect sperm from acidity in urethra and vagina. Also provided prostaglandins to help uterus contract so sperm and travel up the female tract
Bulborethral Gland	Adds mucus for lubrication during intercourse
5. Urethra	When penis is erect and during orgasm, the penis contracts to propel semen out of the penis and into the female . It is also a passage for urine during urination. The external sphincter under the bladder is contracted during ejaculation.

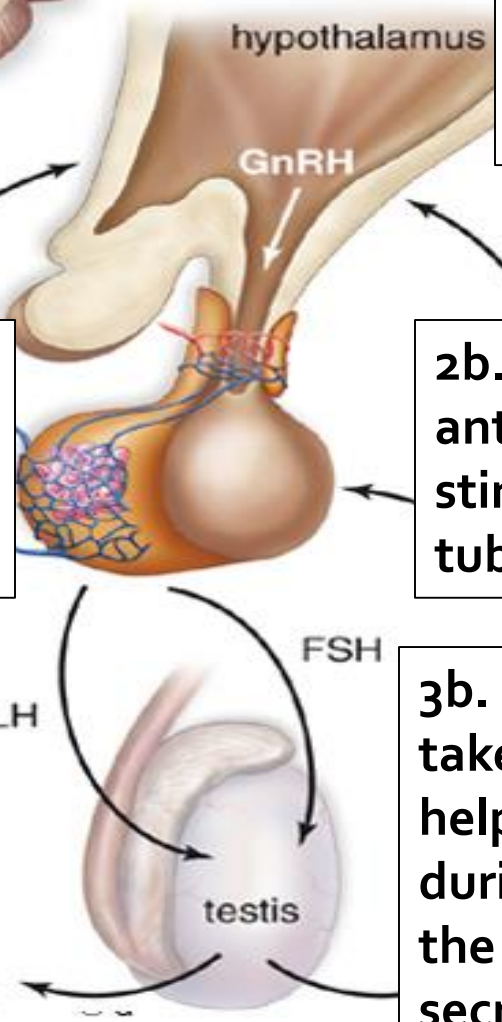
Sperm

- Head = contains the 23 chromosomes which will provide the genetic information to create a new human
- Acrosome = covers the head and contains powerful enzymes that can dissolve through the egg shell to penetrate
- Middle Piece = contains mitochondria that breaks down fructose in semen to produce ATP for flagellum movement
- Tail = a flagellum that helps the sperm to move towards the egg



Hormones





1. Hypothalamus secretes GnRH which stimulates the anterior pituitary

2a. LH is secreted from the anterior pituitary and stimulates the interstitial glands to produce testosterone

2b. FSH is secreted from the anterior pituitary and stimulates the seminiferous tubules for spermatogenesis

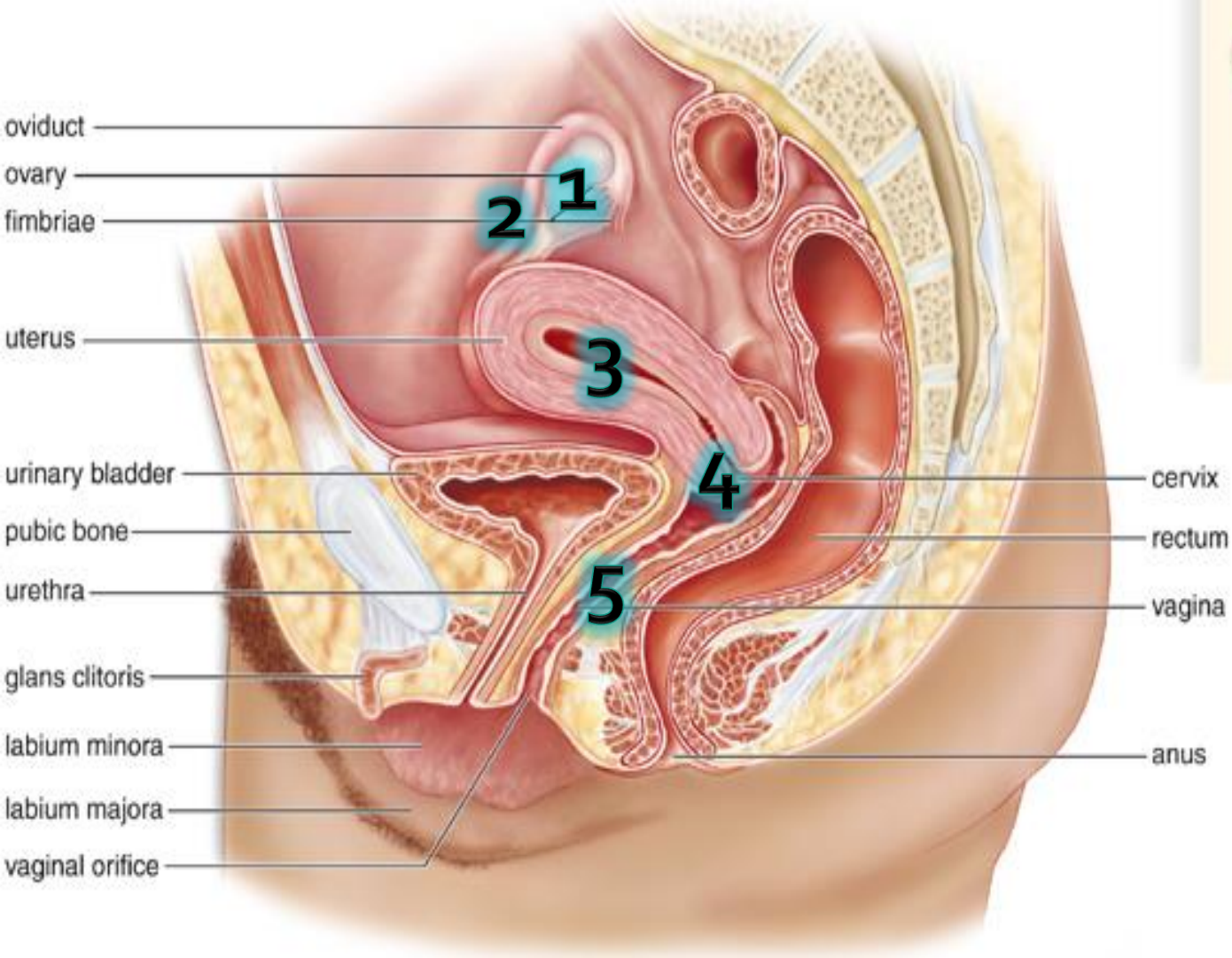
3a. Interstitial cells produce testosterone which helps with sperm production. It also exerts negative feedback on the hypothalamus to decrease LH

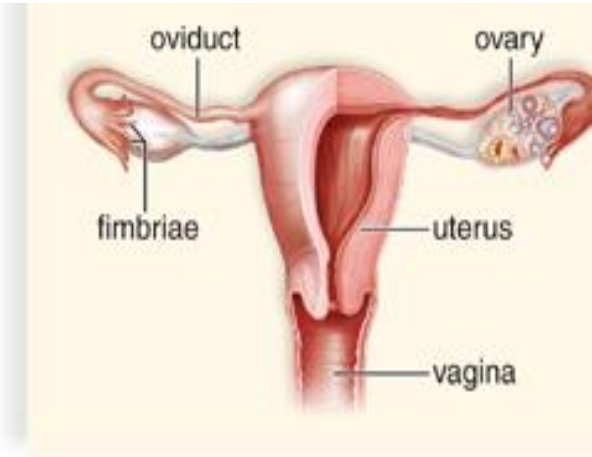
3b. Sertolli cells in the tubules takes up testosterone which helps nourish the sperm during spermatogenesis. At the same time, inhibin is secreted which exerts negative feedback on the hypothalamus to decrease FSHa

Effects of Testosterone During Puberty

- Causes initiation of sperm production = spermatogenesis
- Increased growth of the gonads (testes and penis)
- Increases hair grow (chest, axillary, pubic)
- Larger larynx for deeper voice
- Broader shoulders
- Testosterone also contributes to aggressive behaviour

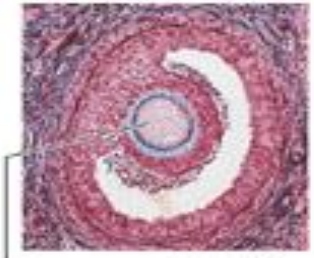
FEMALES


oviduct
ovary
fimbriae
uterus
urinary bladder
pubic bone
urethra
glans clitoris
labium minora
labium majora
vaginal orifice
1
2
3
4
5
cervix
rectum
vagina
anus


oviduct
ovary
fimbriae
uterus
vagina

Structure	Function
1. Ovaries	Follicles are stimulated by FSH to help the egg mature. Only ONE follicle and egg will mature; while at the same time secreted estrogen. After ovulation, the follicle becomes the corpus luteum which produces progesterone.
2. Oviducts (Fallopian Tubes)	At ovulation when the egg is released, the Fimbriae sweep the egg into the oviducts. Cilia and smooth muscle contractions help move egg to the uterus. Fertilization would occur in the oviducts.
3. Uterus	The lining of the uterus is called the endometrium ; which is made of vascular tissue. If egg is fertilized, then the embryo would attach to the endometrium lining. If no embryo, then the endometrium sheds at the end of the menstrual cycle.
4. Cervix	Opening to the uterus. Usually plugged with mucus to protect uterus from bacteria. Becomes watery at ovulation to allow sperm to enter.
5. Vagina	Organ of sexual intercourse. Penis enters and ejaculate can introduce sperm into female tract so fertilization can occur.
Clitoris	Contains erectile tissue and can facilitate an orgasm.
Labia	Flaps of tissue that protect vagina and urethral opening while also secreting mucus during sexual intercourse for lubrication

Hormones



2. The secondary follicle contains a primary oocyte and produces the sex hormones estrogen and some progesterone.

3. Vesicular (Graafian) follicle develops.

secondary follicle

oocyte

vesicular (Graafian) follicle

primary follicles

1. A primary follicle contains an oocyte and begins producing the sex hormone estrogen.

6. Corpus luteum degenerates.

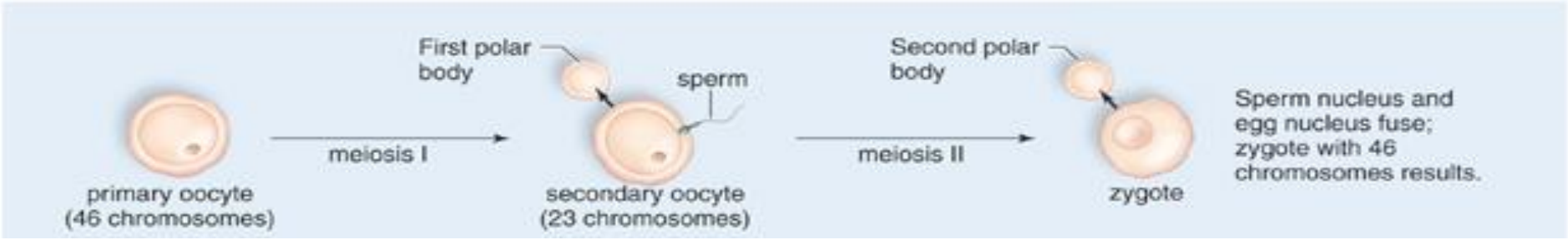
4. Ovulation: The secondary oocyte is released.

a.

corpus luteum

5. Corpus luteum produces the sex hormones progesterone and some estrogen.

secondary oocyte



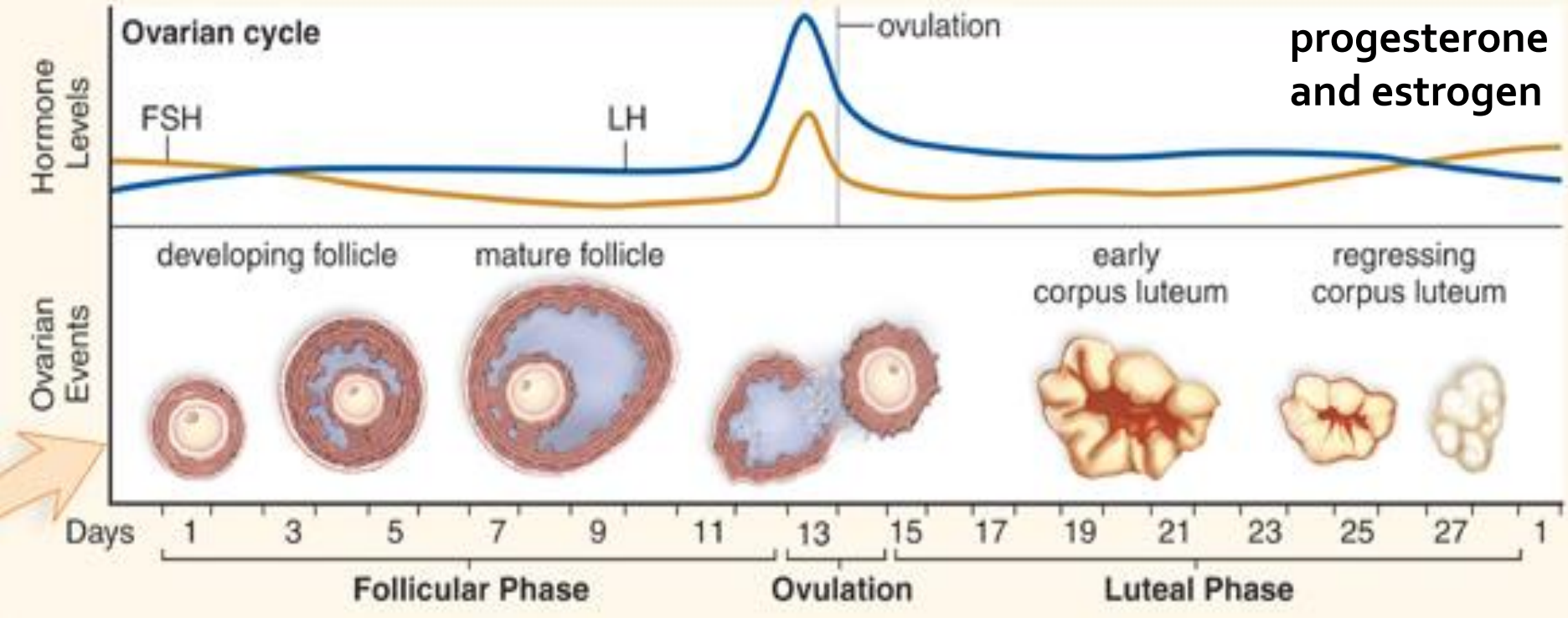
Day 1-5: FSH stimulates follicle development and oogenesis. Estrogen production increases

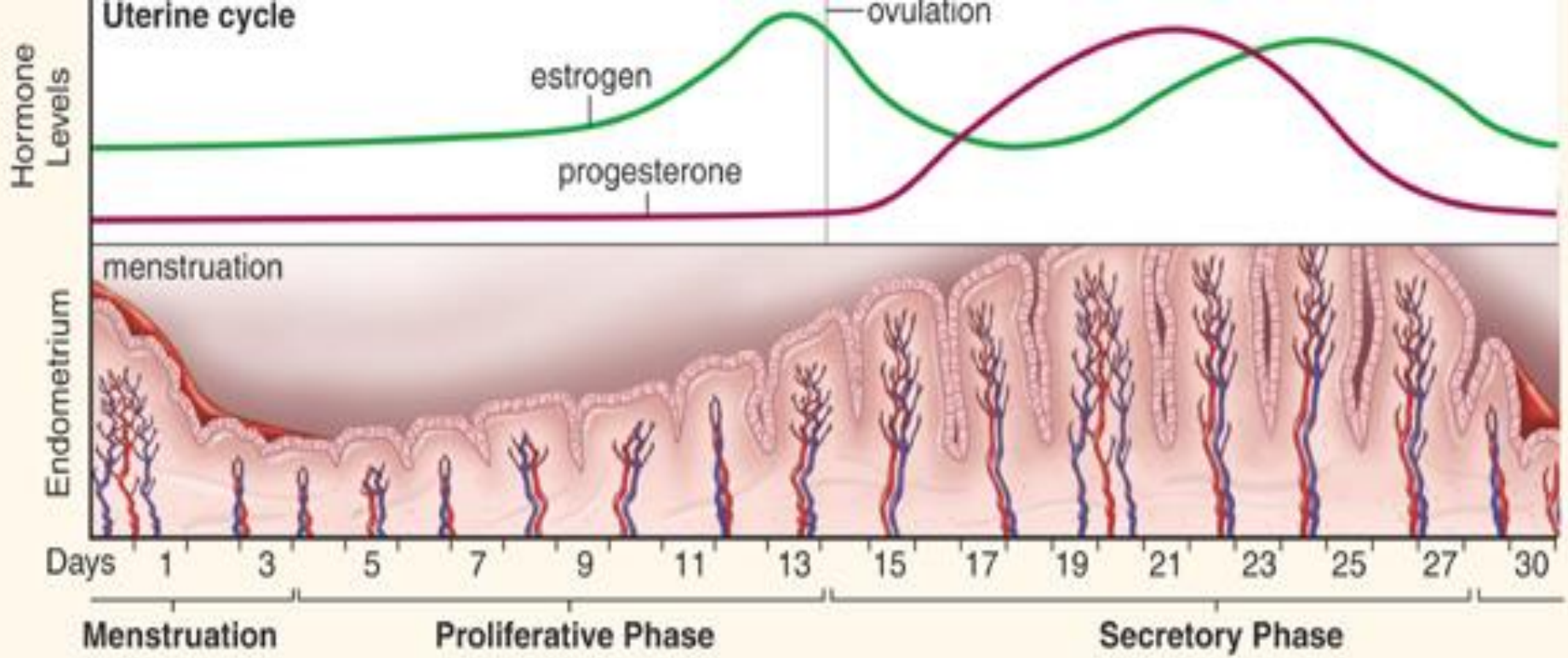
Day 6-13: FSH decreases due to negative feedback of estrogen

Day 14: estrogen exerts positive feedback causing the LH surge which triggers ovulation

Day 15-28: LH is higher and helps to maintain the corpus luteum in the ovary; this increases production of progesterone

Day 28: Due to negative feedback of progesterone, the LH levels decrease and the corpus luteum degenerates causing lower levels of progesterone and estrogen





Day 1-5: menstruation due to the low hormone levels from end of previous cycle

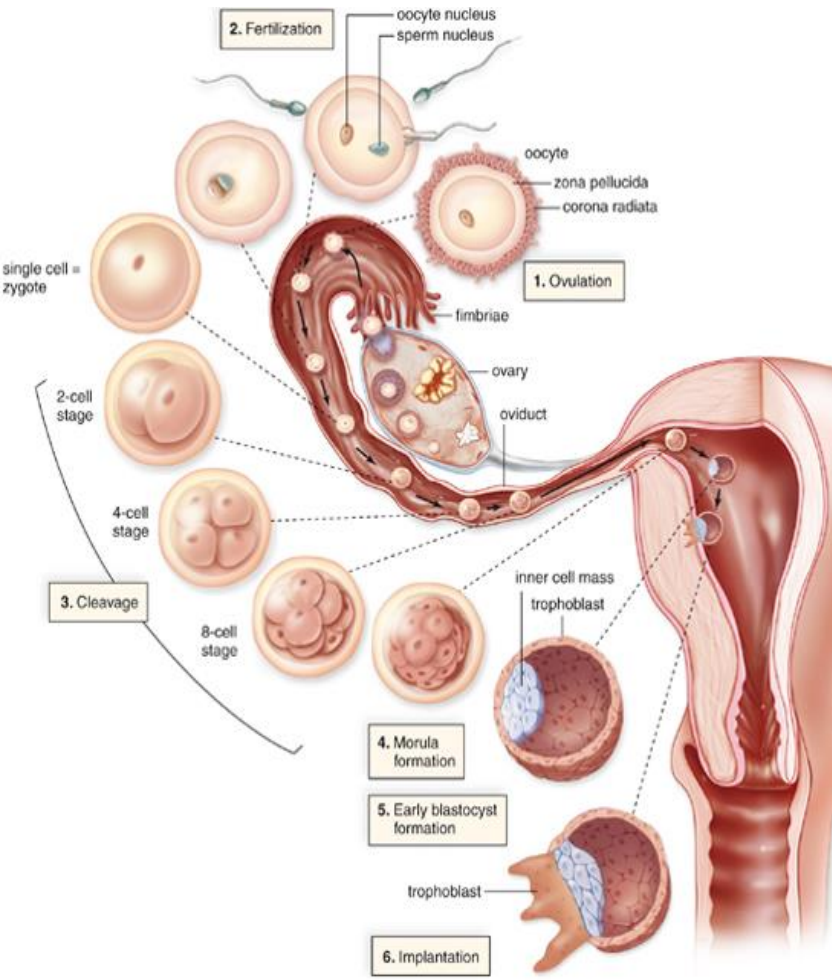
Day 6-14: as follicle grows there is an increase production of estrogen which causes the endometrium to become vascular and rebuild/grow

Day 14-28: the corpus luteum secretes progesterone causing the endometrium to double/triple in thickness and become secretory

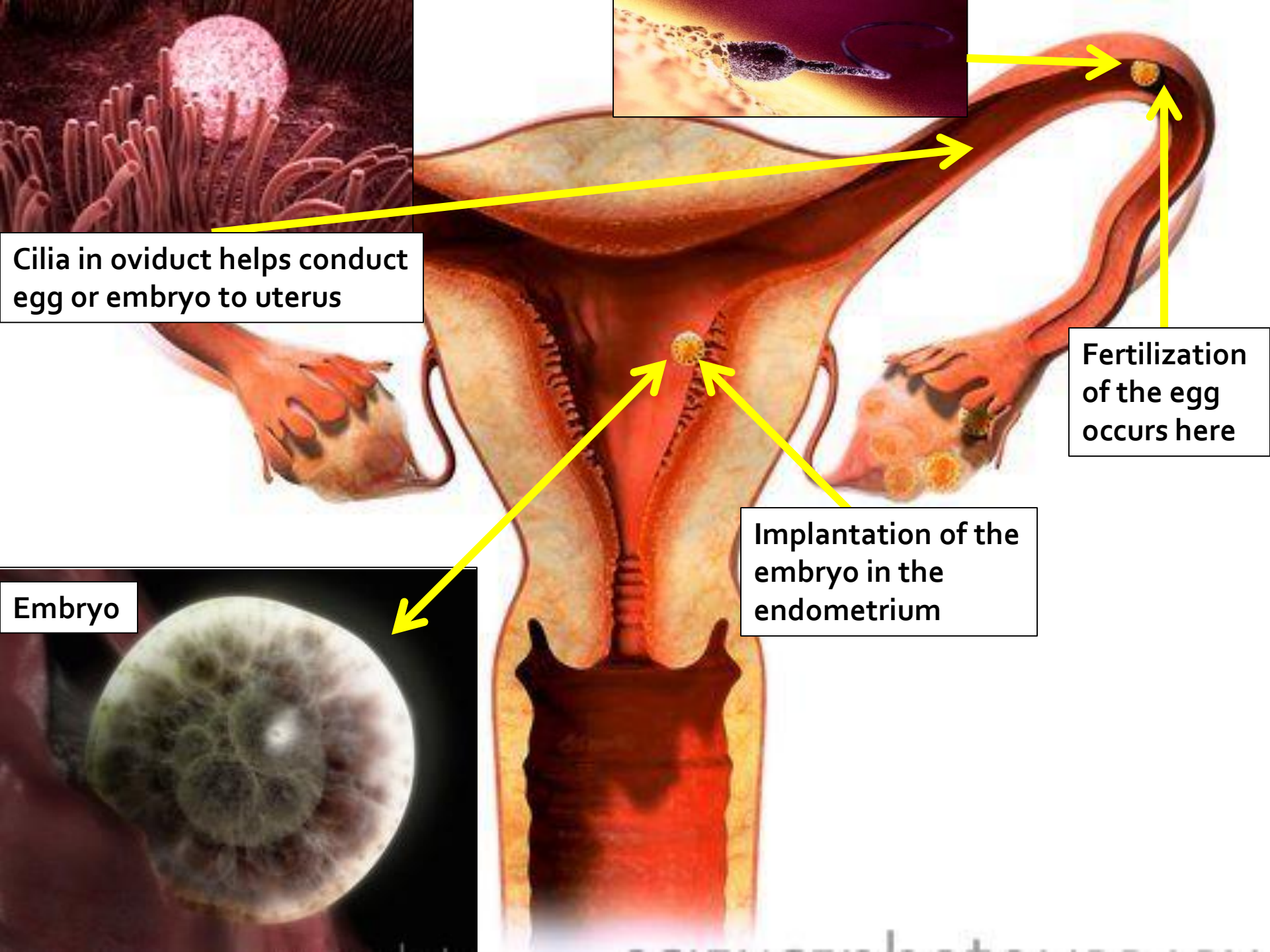
Effects of Estrogen During Puberty

- Menstrual cycle beings promoting production of eggs (oocytes) = initiates oogenesis
- Promotes breast develop
- Increased hair axillary and pubic hair growth
- Promotes wider hips
- Increases fat deposition on body

IMPLANTATION

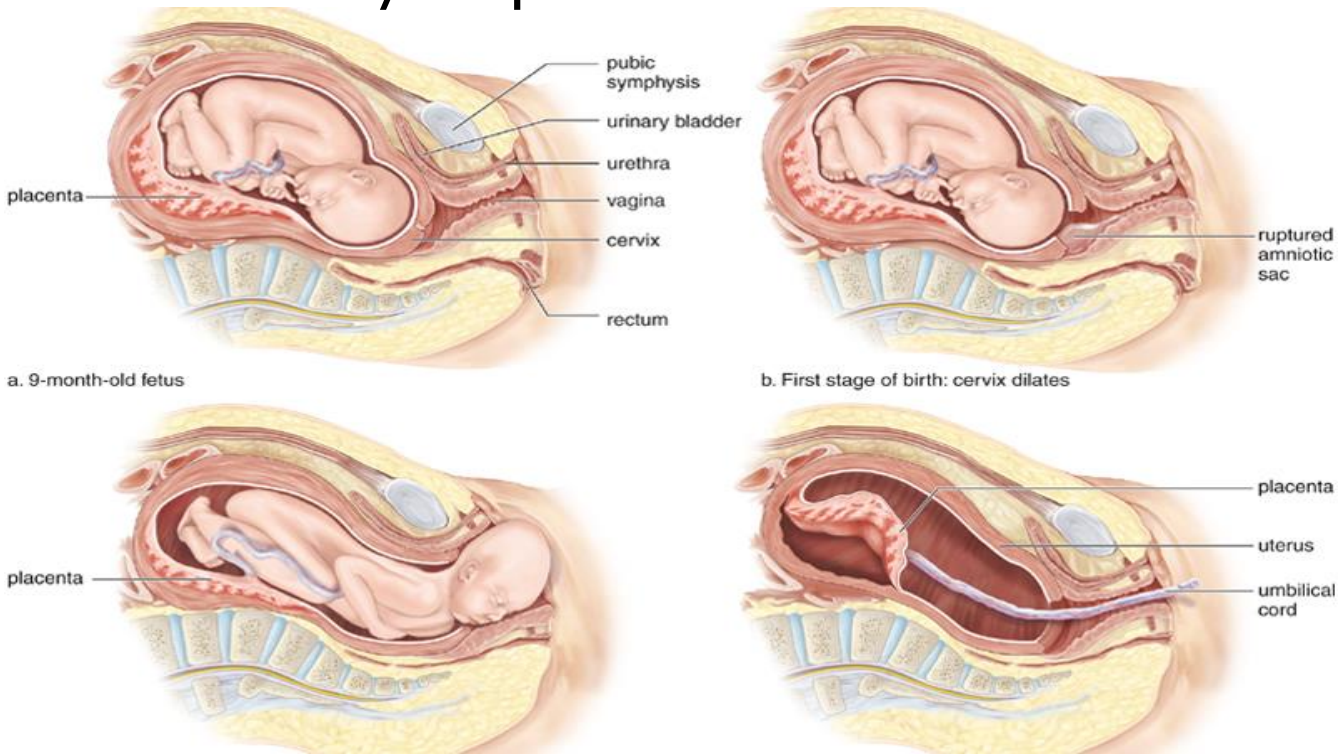


- After ovulation, the egg only survives for 12-24 hours or it will disintegrate and be removed along the endometrium during menstruation.
- If it is fertilized inside the oviduct, then cell divisions begin as it continues to travel towards the uterus.
- When the embryo reaches the uterus it can implant in the endometrium = this is called IMPLANTATION
- It releases the hormone HCG which signals to the ovary to maintain the corpus luteum
- The corpus luteum continues secreting progesterone and estrogen which helps to keep the endometrium intact and prevents menstruation along with exerting negative feedback on the hypothalamus and anterior pituitary to keep FSH low so no new follicles will develop.
- When the placenta develops, it produces enough estrogen and progesterone to maintain the endometrium for the entire term of the pregnancy.
- After birthing, the placenta is removed and the hormone levels in the blood drop triggering Day 1 when menstruation starts.


Cilia in oviduct helps conduct egg or embryo to uterus
Fertilization of the egg occurs here
Implantation of the embryo in the endometrium
Embryo

Birthing = positive feedback of oxytocin

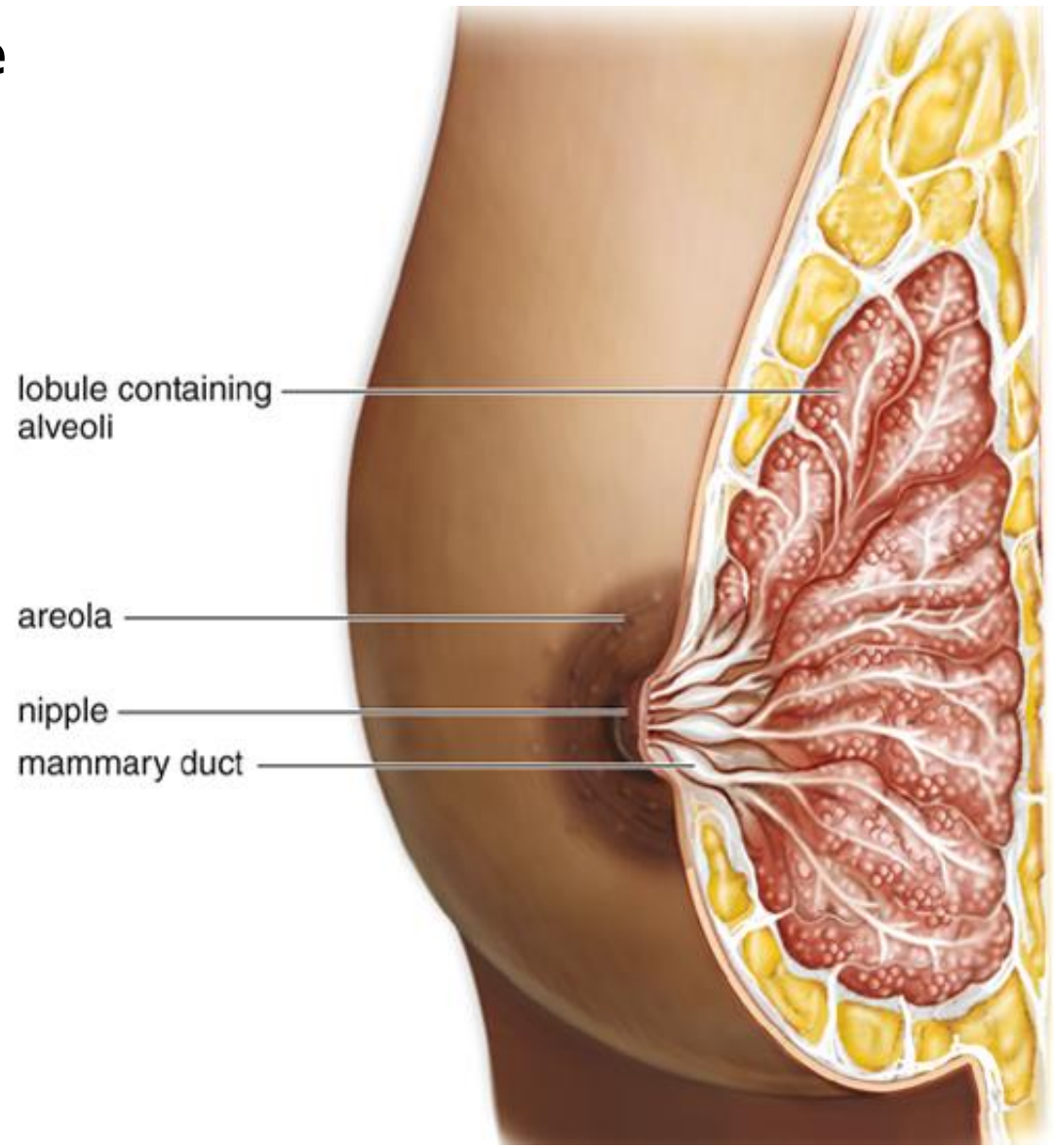
- At the end of 9 months when the fetus has grown very large, it exerts a greater pressure on the cervix
- This sends a signal in the form of action potentials to the hypothalamus
- The hypothalamus produces oxytocin which is secreted out of the posterior pituitary
- Oxytocin causes uterine contractions which squeeze the fetus and causes it to push more on the cervix as it dilates.
- This continues to cause oxytocin to increases which causes increased uterine contractions until the baby and placenta is birthed.

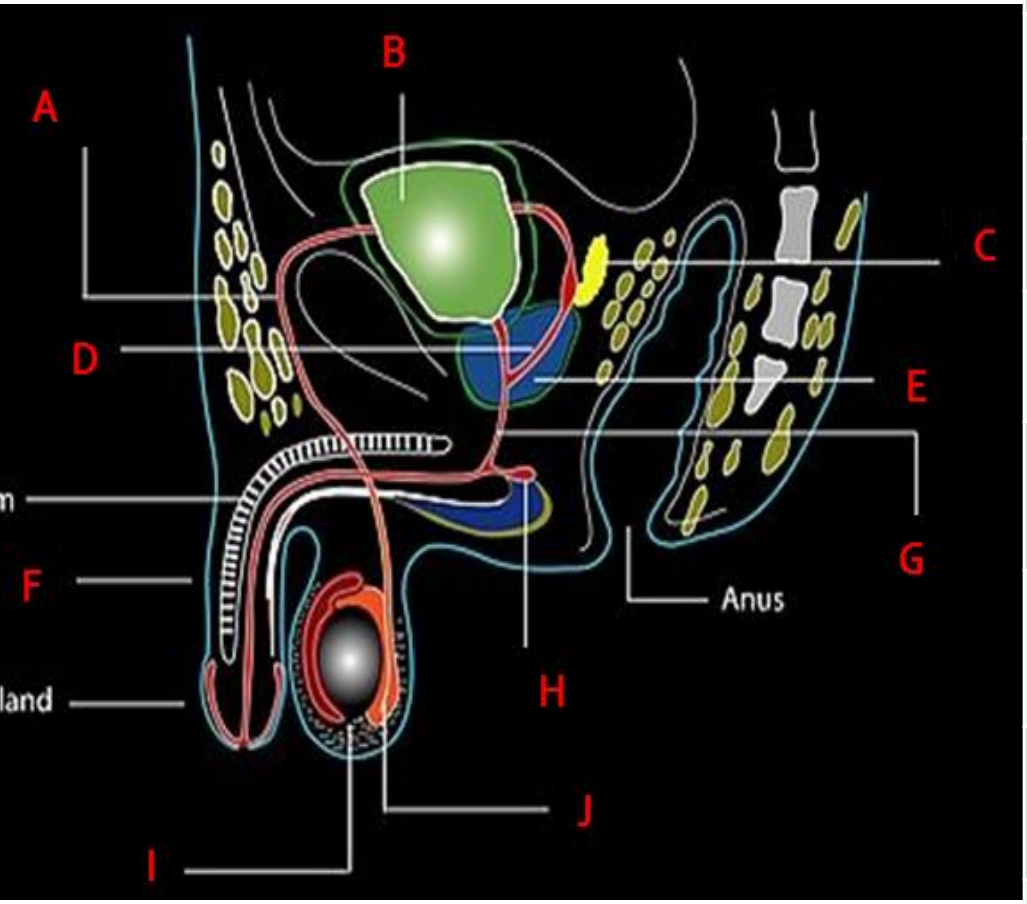


Oxytocin and milk letdown

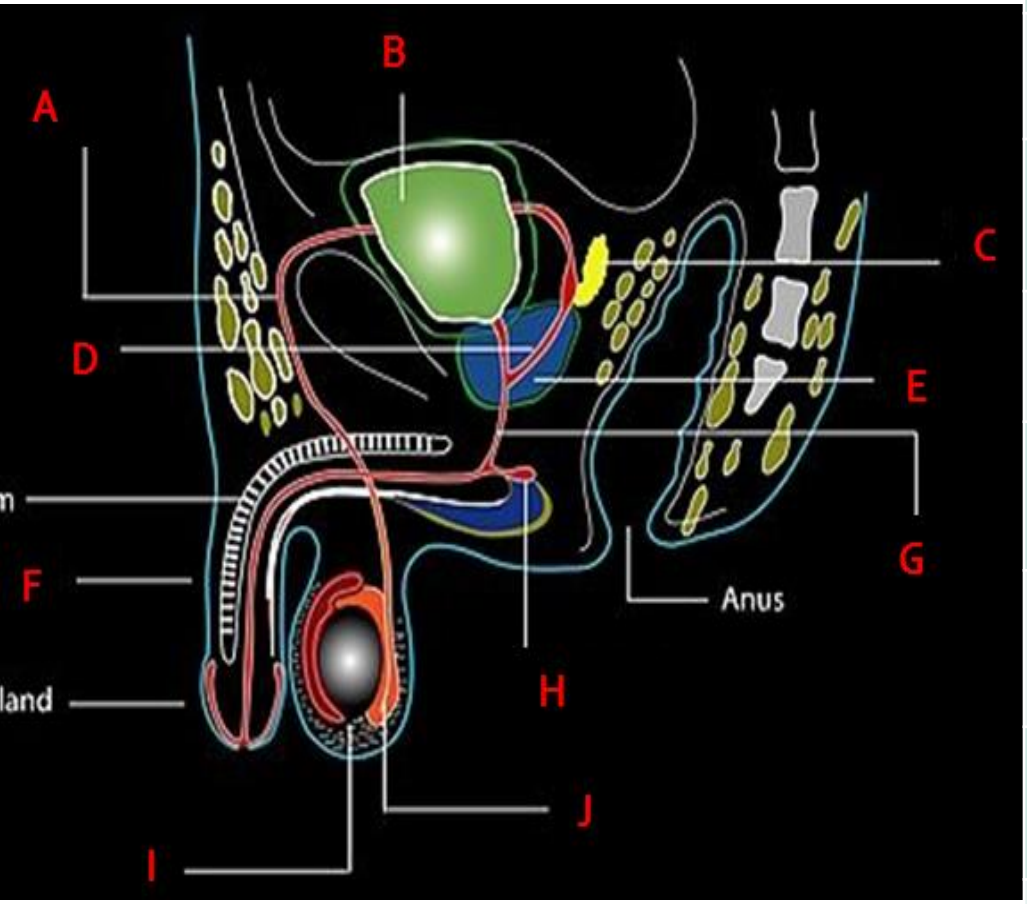
During breast feeding, the suckling of the nipple sends a signal to the hypothalamus to produce and secrete oxytocin which is secreted out of the posterior pituitary.

Oxytocin causes the milk to letdown from the mammary glands in the breast to feed the baby.





	Function
	Organ of sexual intercourse
	Stores urine
	Secretes Fructose into semen
	Provides and alkaline fluid and prostaglandins to semen
	Site of sperm maturation and gain ability to swim
	Site of spermatogenesis and testosterone production
	Secretes mucus for lubrication during intercourse and into semen
	Common passage for semen and urine
	Stores sperm and transports it during ejaculation
	Contractions help add secretions to make semen enter urethra



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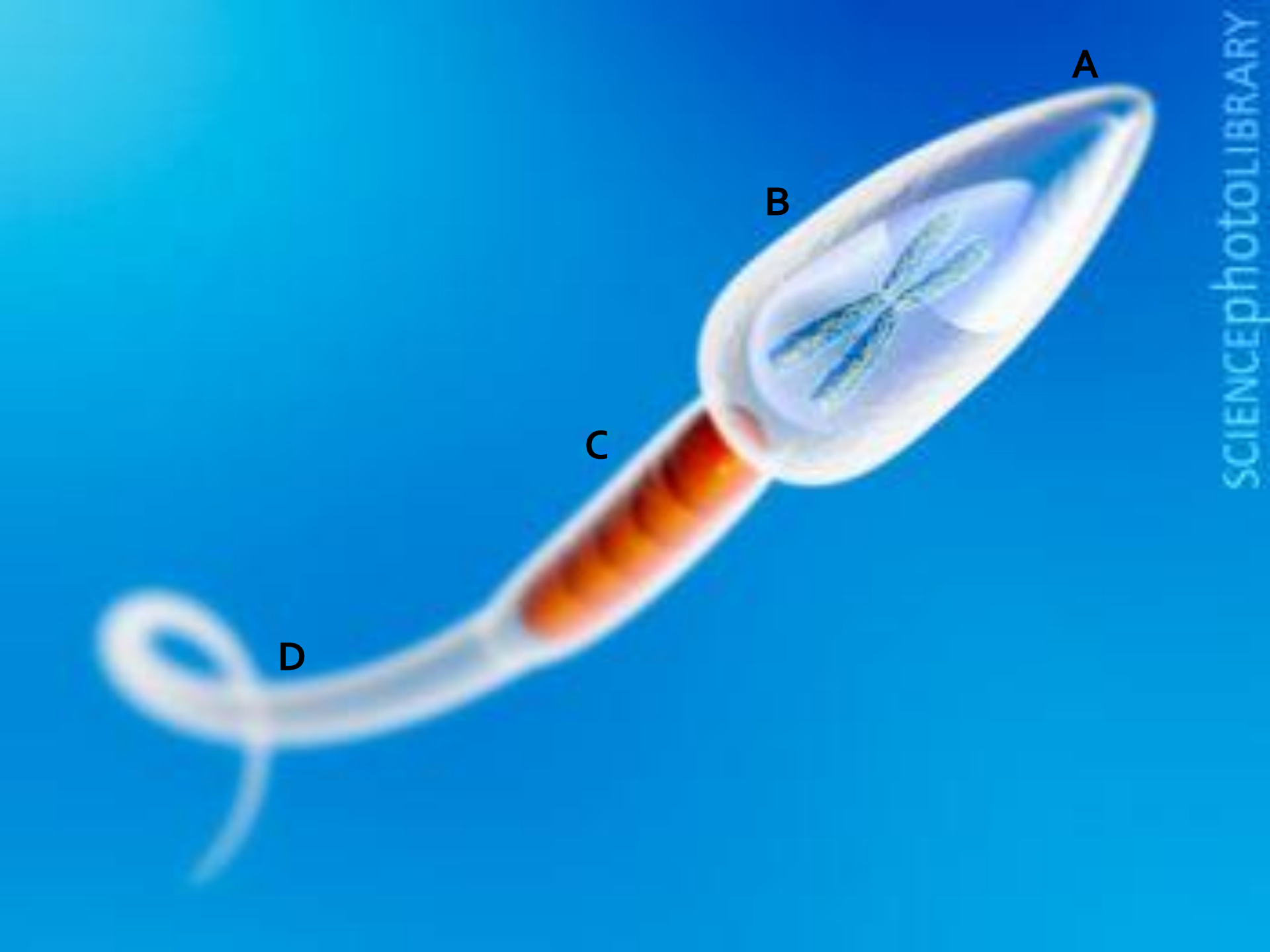
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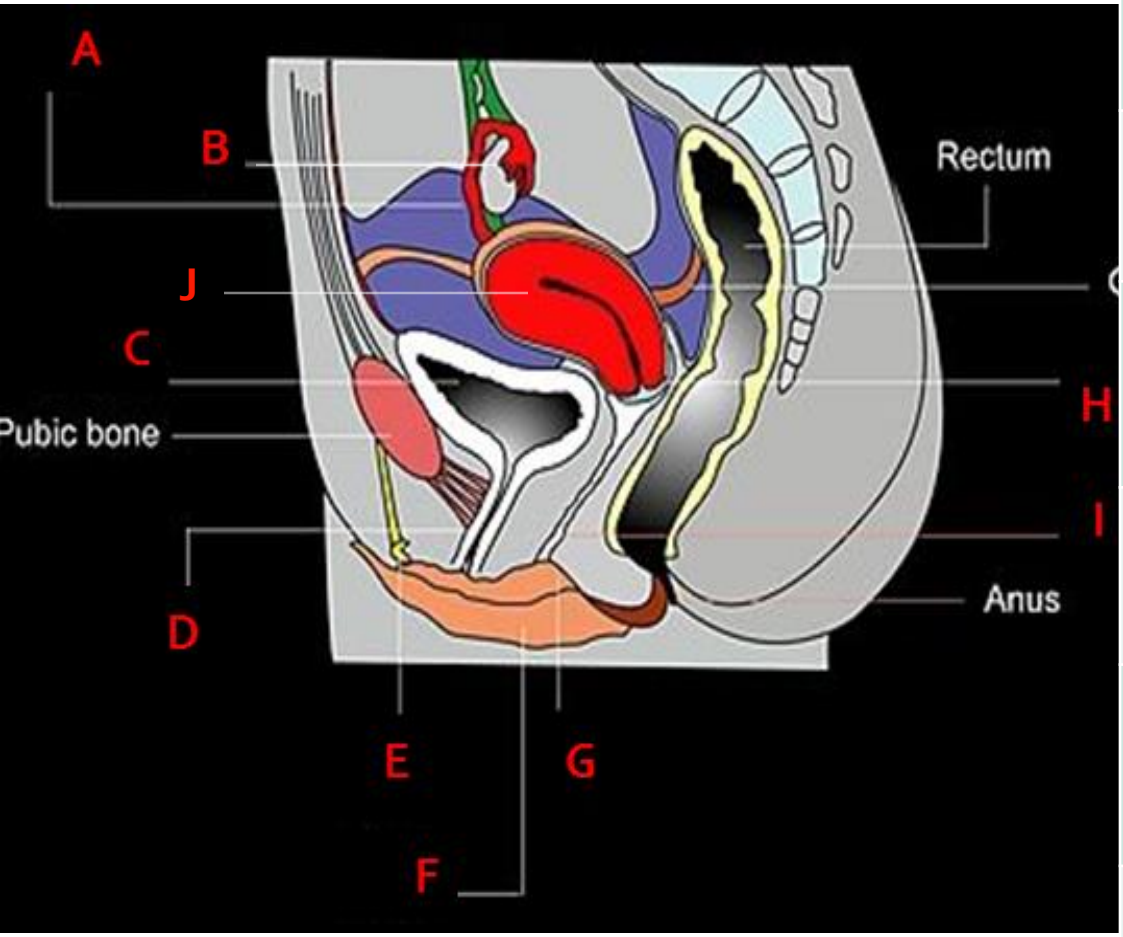
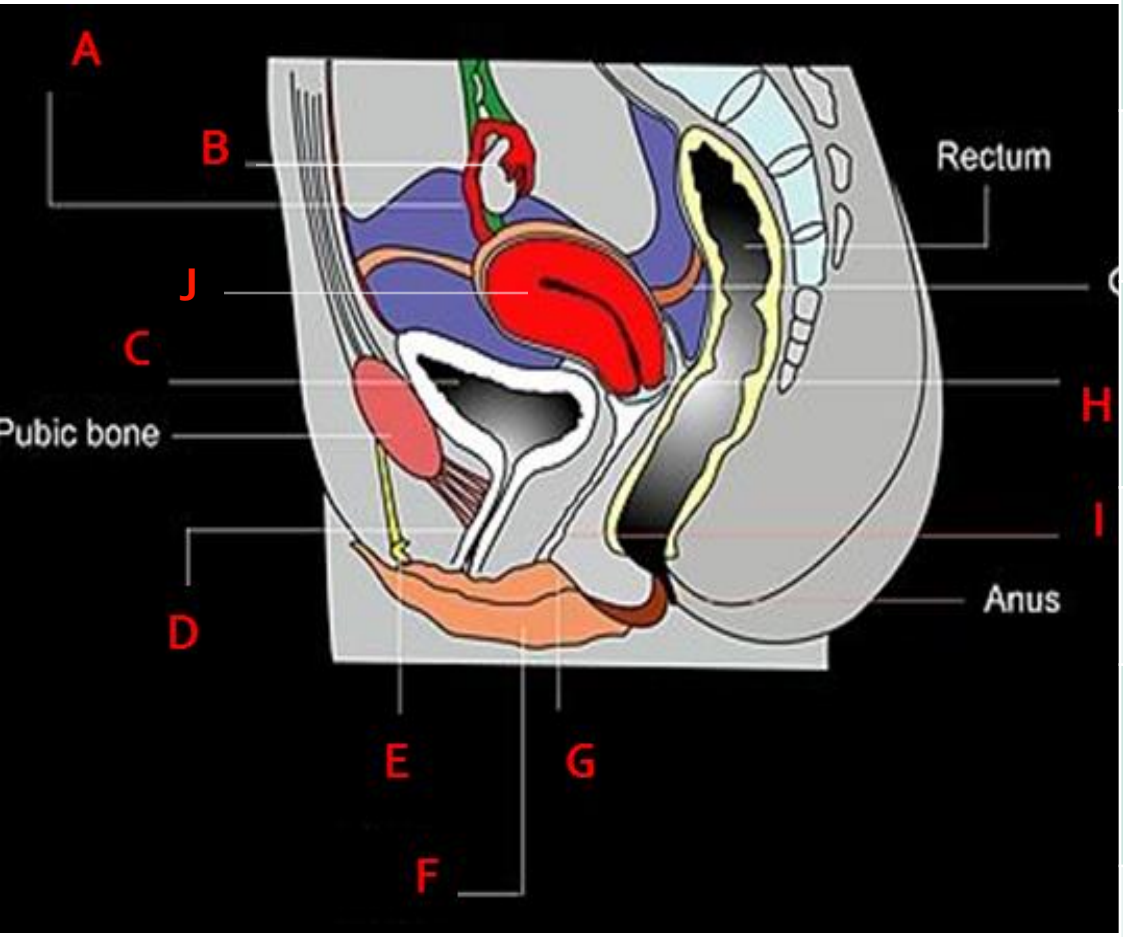
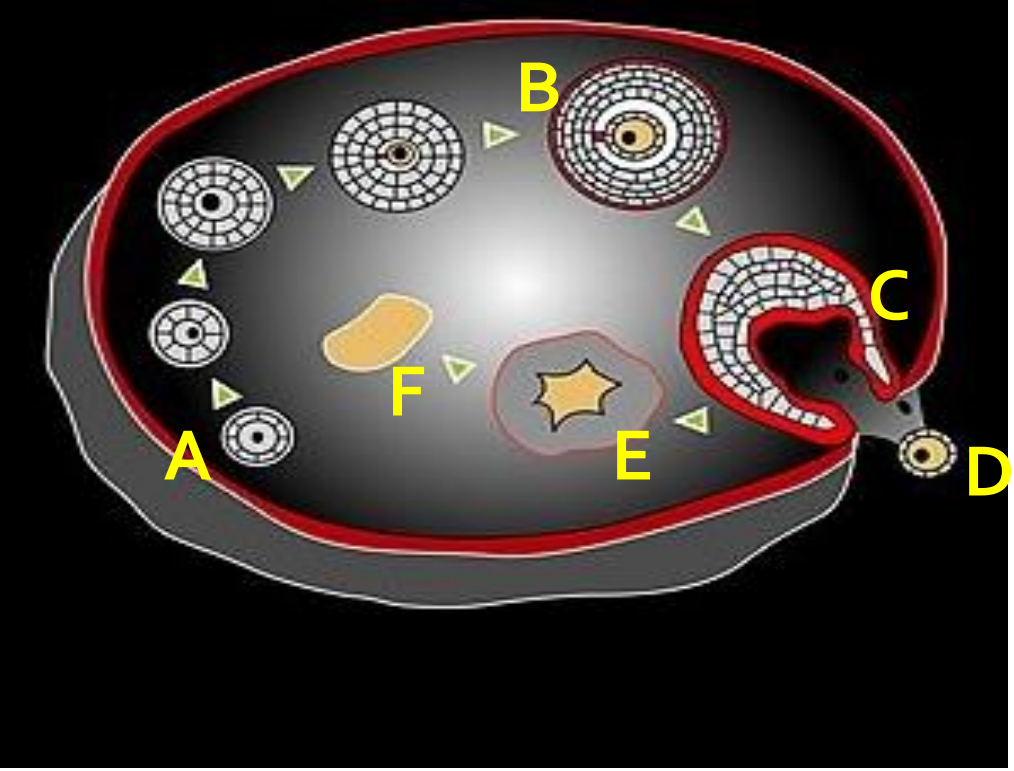


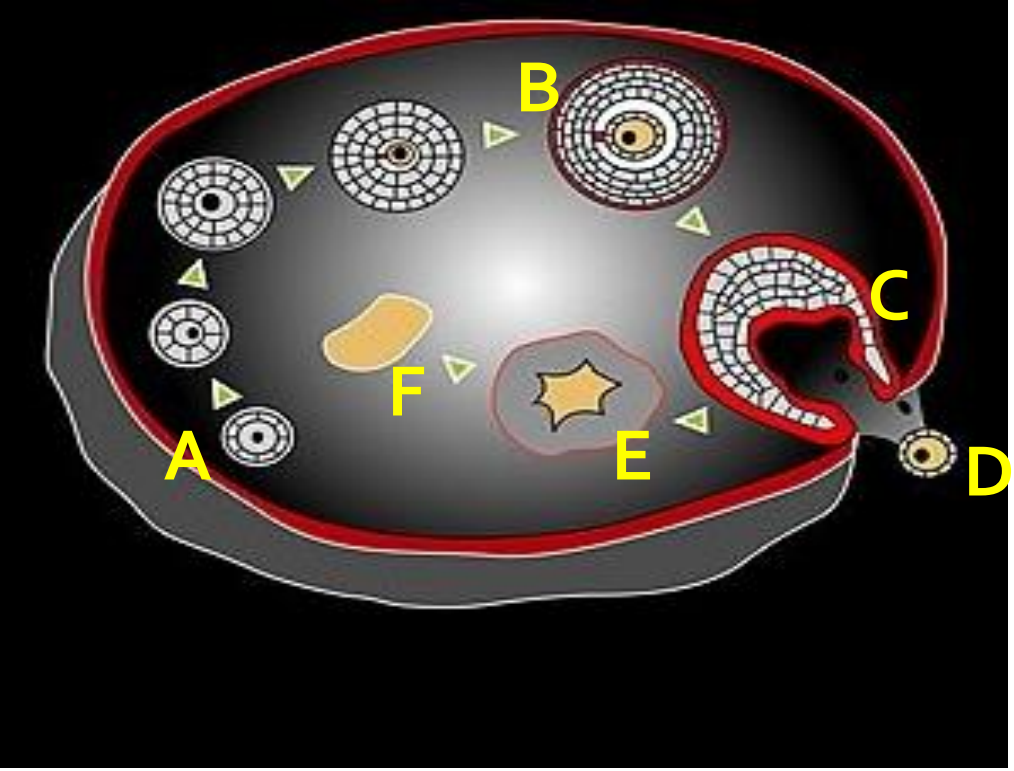
	Function
	Produces estrogen and progesterone along with oocyte
	Opening to uterus and normally plugged with mucus
	Stores urine
	Contains erectile tissue and plays and important role in female orgasm
	Organ of sexual intercourse
	Houses fetus
	Transports urine out of body



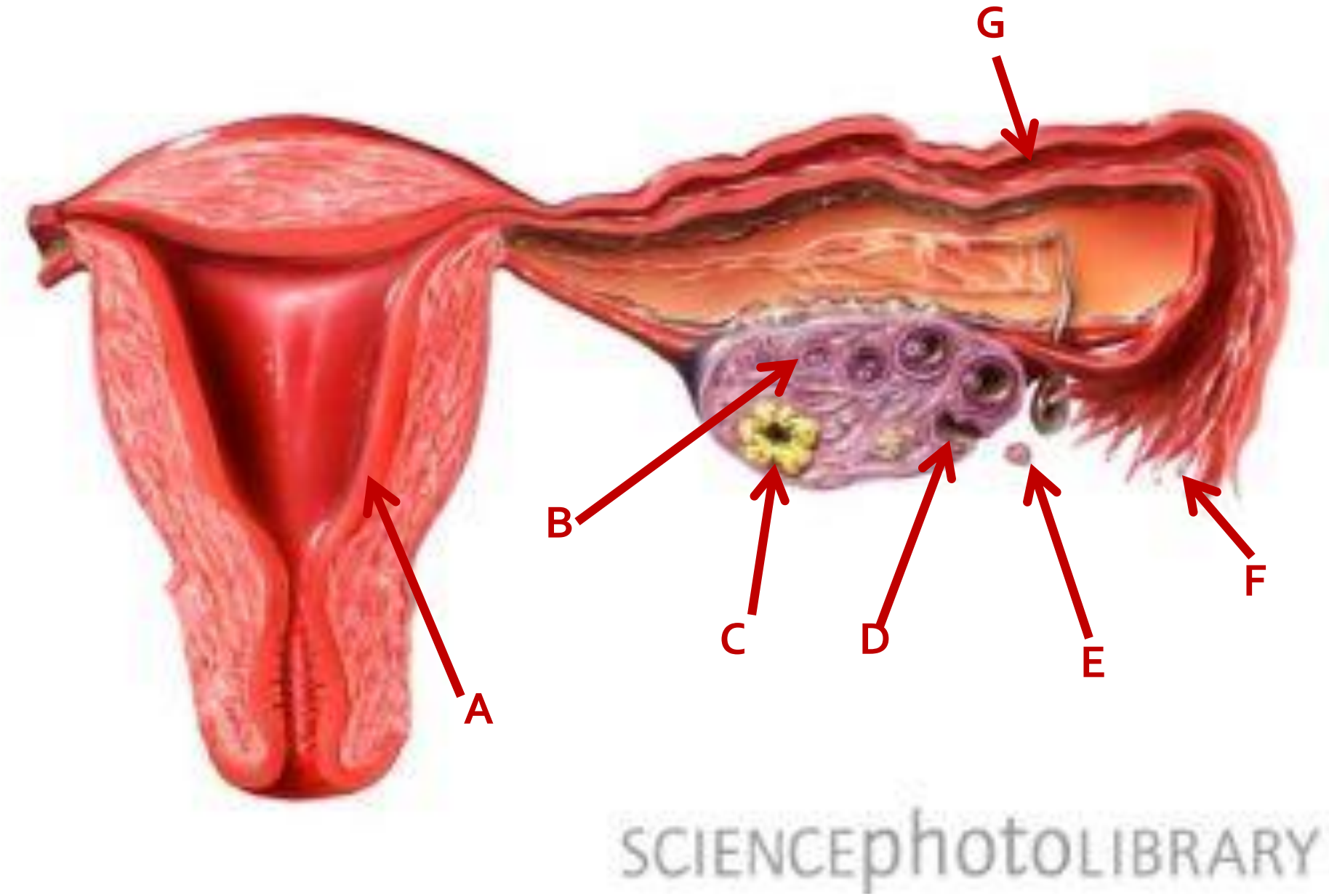
	Function
B	Produces estrogen and progesterone along with oocyte
H	Opening to uterus and normally plugged with mucus
C	Stores urine
E	Contains erectile tissue and plays and important role in female orgasm
I	Organ of sexual intercourse
J	Houses fetus
D	Transports urine out of body



Function
Follicle
Oocyte
Estrogen
Ovulation
Corpus Luteum
Progesterone



Function
Follicle allow egg to mature and produces estrogen
Oocyte Contains DNA/genetic information from the mother
Estrogen Does negative feedback on the brain to reduced FSH, allow for initial thickening of the endometrium, contributes to secondary sexual characteristics
Ovulation When the egg is release at day 14 due to the LH surge
Corpus Luteum Secretes progesterone
Progesterone Does negative feedback to reduce LH, causes triple thickening of endometrium and causes it to become secretory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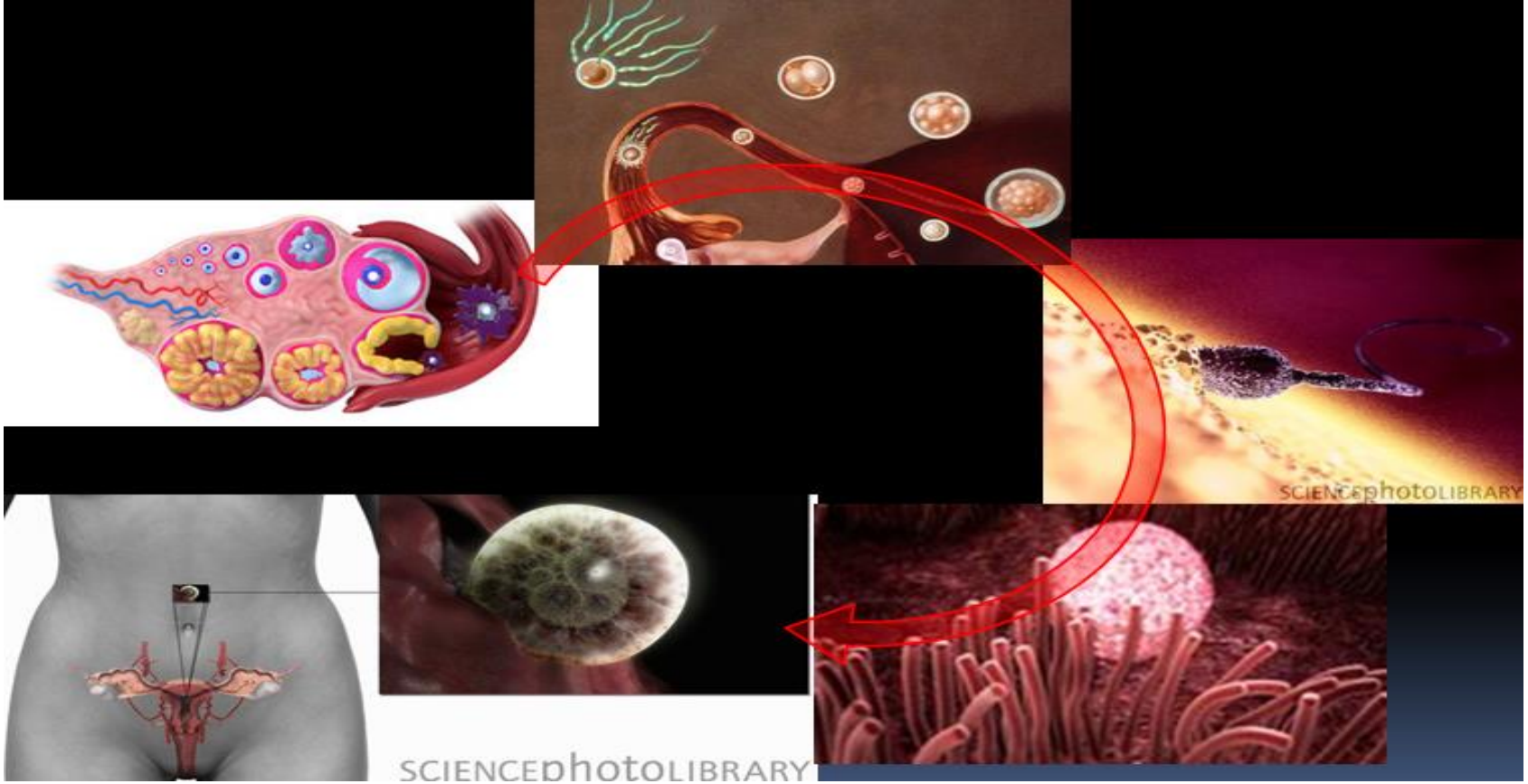
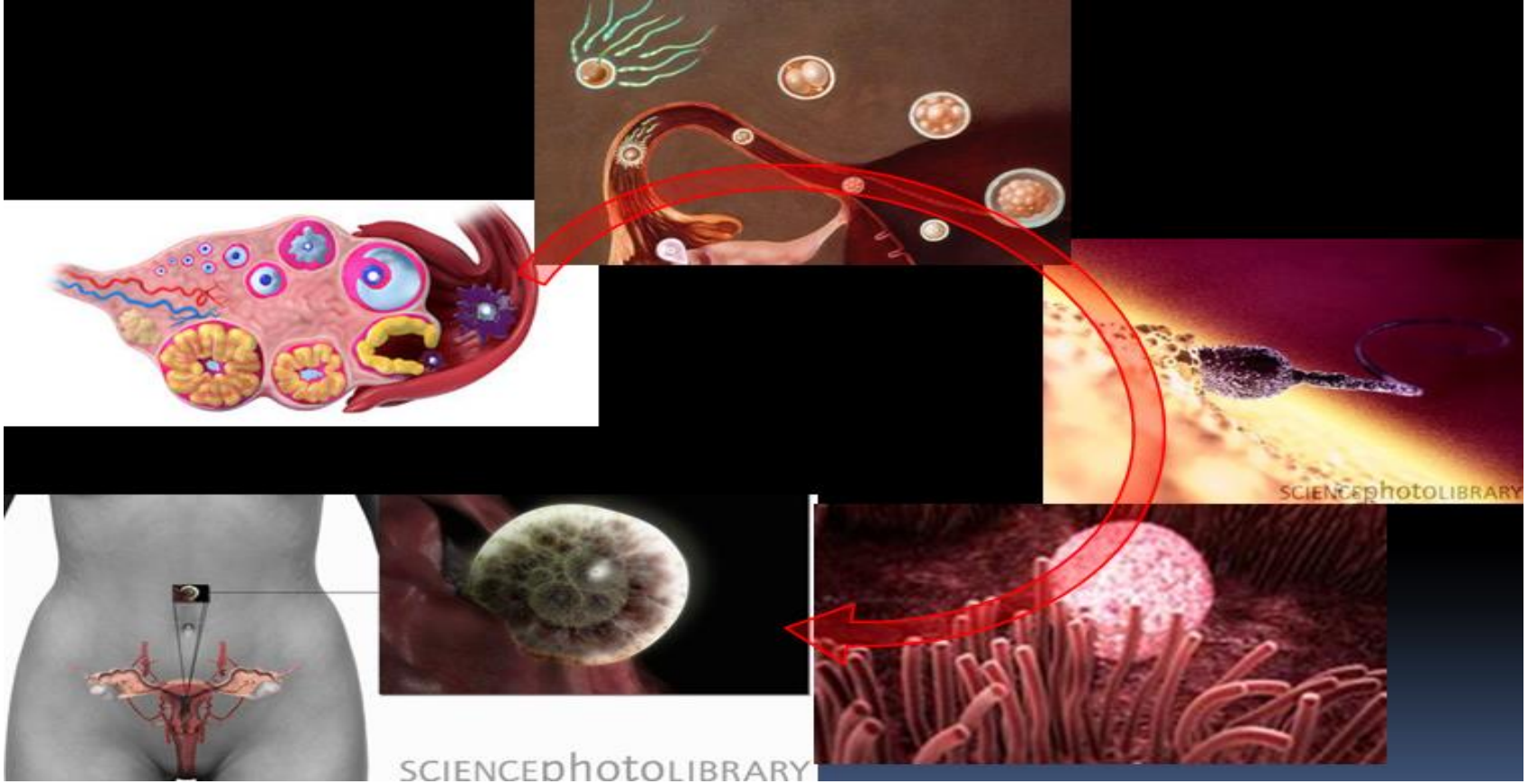
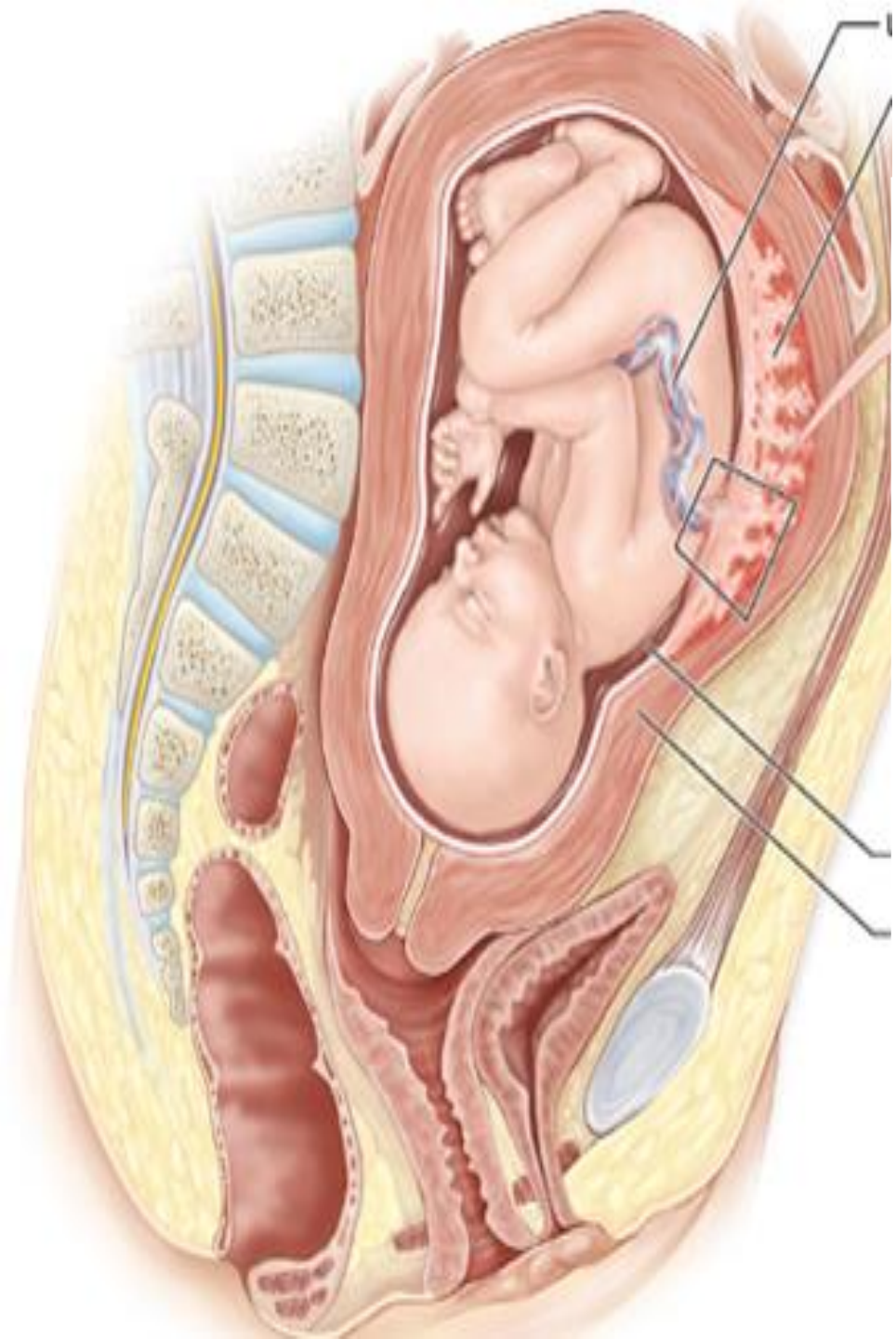


- Ovulation occurs at Day _____.
- _____ must occur within 12-24 hours after ovulation or the egg will disintegrate
- Fertilization occurs in the _____
- The embryo travel to the _____ by movement of _____ and muscle contractions
- The embryo implants in the _____ and secretes the hormone _____
- This hormone prevents the _____ _____ from degenerating so the hormone levels remain high.
- Levels of _____ and _____ remain high to keep endometrium intact and prevent _____



- Ovulation occurs at Day _14__.
- _Fertiliation_ must occur within 12-24 hours after ovulation or the egg will disintegrate
- Fertilization occurs in the __oviduct or Fallopian tube__
- The embryo travel to the _uterus_ by movement of _cillia_ and muscle contractions
- The embryo implants in the _endometrium/uterine wall_ and secretes the hormone _HCG_
- This hormone prevents the __corpus_ _luteum_ from degenerating so the hormone levels remain high.
- Levels of __estrogen_ and _progesterone_ remain high to keep endometrium intact and prevent _menstruation_



Process of Birthing

1 **Fetus' head exerts pressure on the _____**

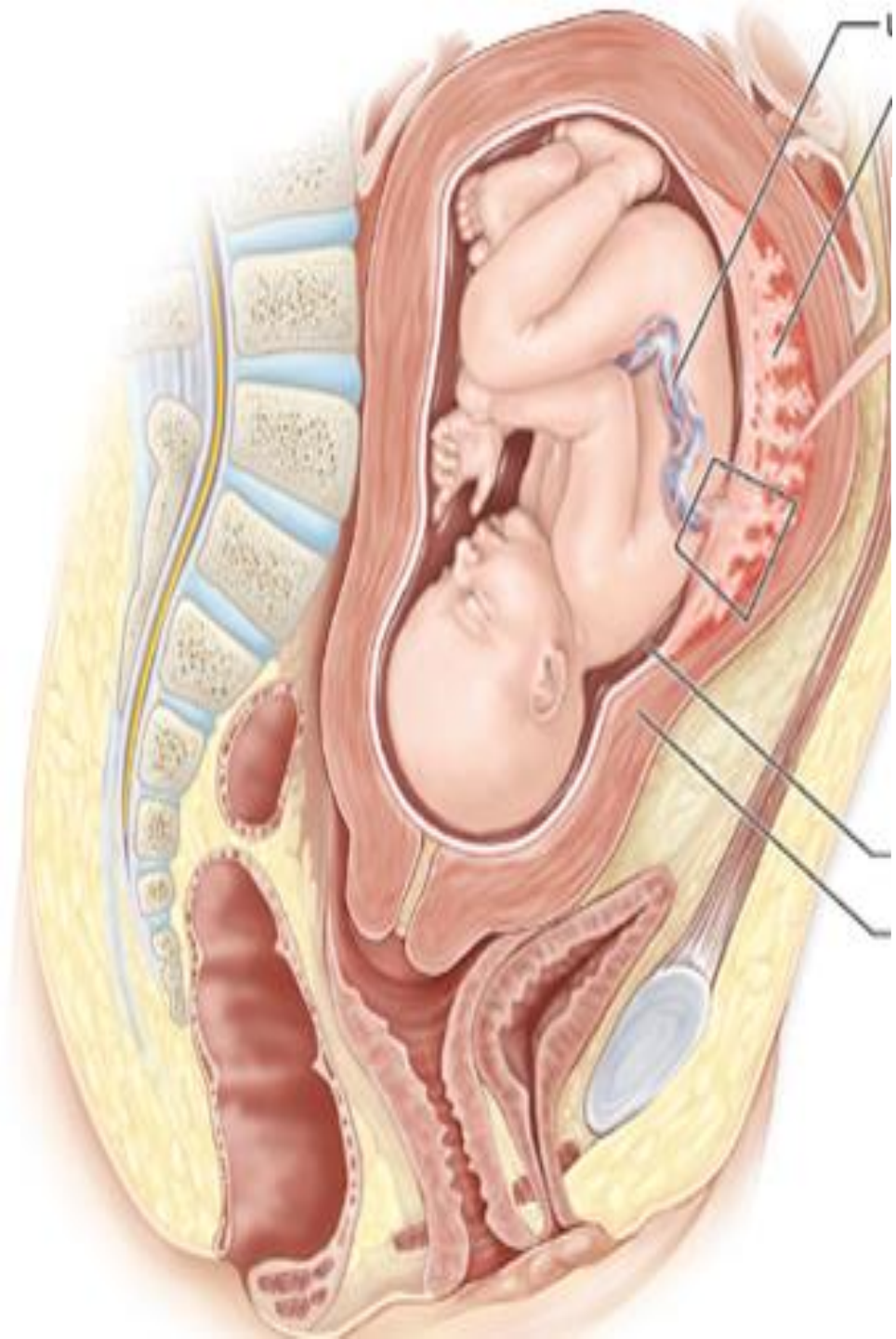
2 **Impulse (_____) is sent to the _____**

3 **Oxytocin is produced and secreted out the _____ _____**

4 **_____ causes uterine contractions**

5 **Increases pressure of fetus on the _____**

6 **_____ _____ produces increased _____ causing increased uterine contractions until fetus birthed**



Process of Birthing

1. **Fetus' head exerts pressure on the _cervix_**
2. **Impulse (_action potential) is sent to the _hypothalamus_**
3. **Oxytocin is produced and secreted out the _posterior_ _pituitary_**
4. **_oxytocin_ causes uterine contractions**
5. **Increases pressure of fetus on the cervix_**
6. **_Increased pressure_ produces increased _oxytocin_ causing increased uterine contractions until fetus birthed**