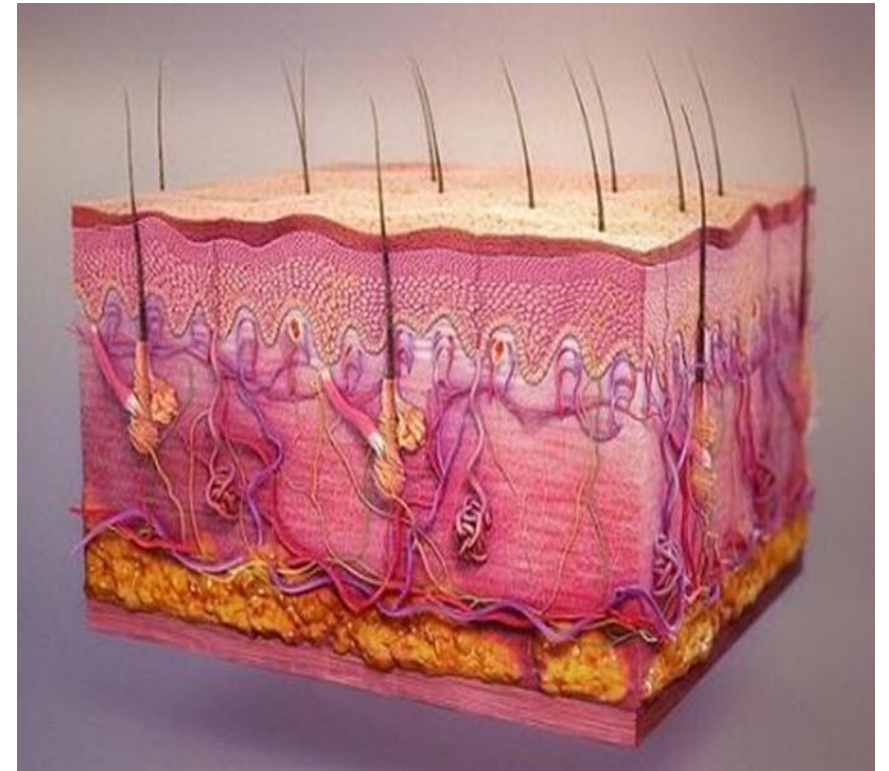


Chapter:1

Protection, Support and Movement.

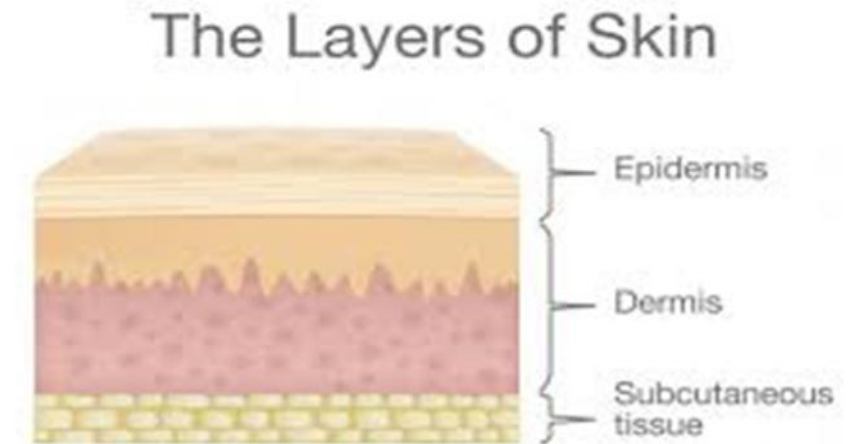
Introduction to integumentary system

- External covering of an animal
- Includes hairs, follicles, hooves, feathers
- Protect body from damage
- Regulates the body temperature
- Excretion of waste materials
- Conversion of sunlight into vitamin D
- Reception of environmental stimuli
- Locomotion and movement



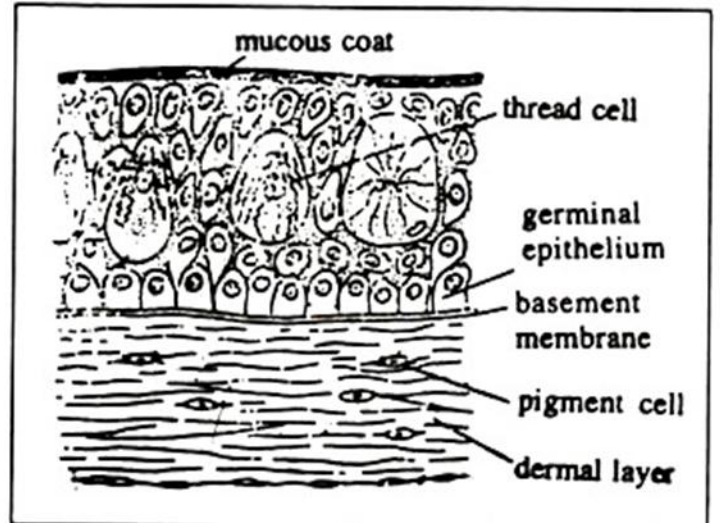
SKIN

- Vertebrate integument
- Largest organ
- Epidermis(epithelial, 1 to several cell thick)
- Dermis(connective tissue, thicker)
- Hypodermis(loose connective, adipose tissue, nerves)
- Protection, regulation, sensation



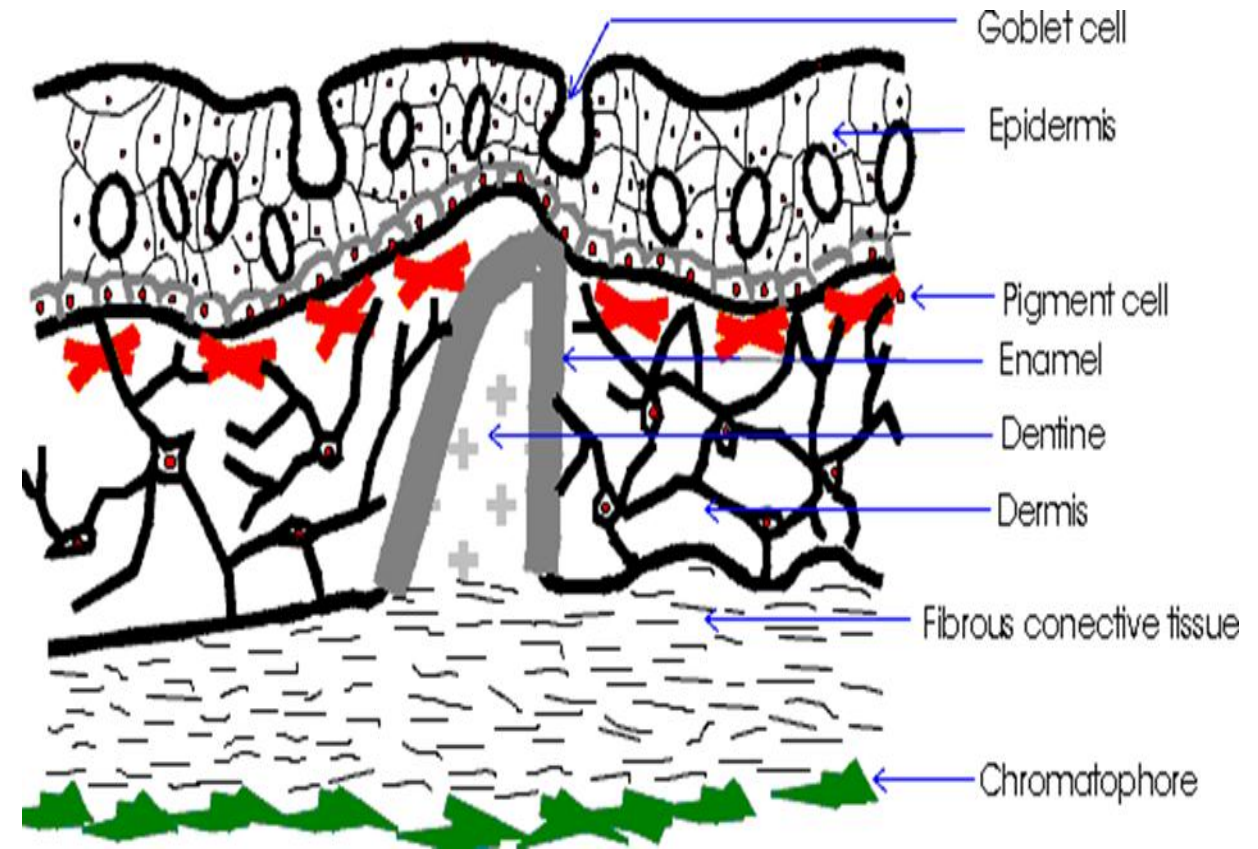
Skin of jawless fishes

- ❑ Thick skin
- ❑ Glandular cells
- ❑ Protective cuticle
- ❑ Slime glands; slime eel
- ❑ Slime protects from parasites, clogs enemy gills
- ❑ Extinct small mineralized scales/dermal armour
- ❑ Examples hagfishes



Skin of cartilaginous fishes

- ❑ Multilayered
- ❑ Mucous and sensory cells
- ❑ Bony placoid scales in dermis
- ❑ Denticles (like teeth)
- ❑ Contains blood vessels nerves
- ❑ Grow throughout life → mature → lost
- ❑ Sandpaper texture, denticles



Skin of bony fishes

- ❑ Covered Scales(dermal bones)
- ❑ At margins and lower surface
- ❑ Growth lines
- ❑ Gas exchange
- ❑ Rich capillaries in dermis
- ❑ Mucous glands(epidermis)
- ❑ Bacterial, fungal infection preventer, reduces friction
- ❑ Granular glands→irritating, poisonous alkaloid
- ❑ photophores→specie recognition, warning signals (teleost)

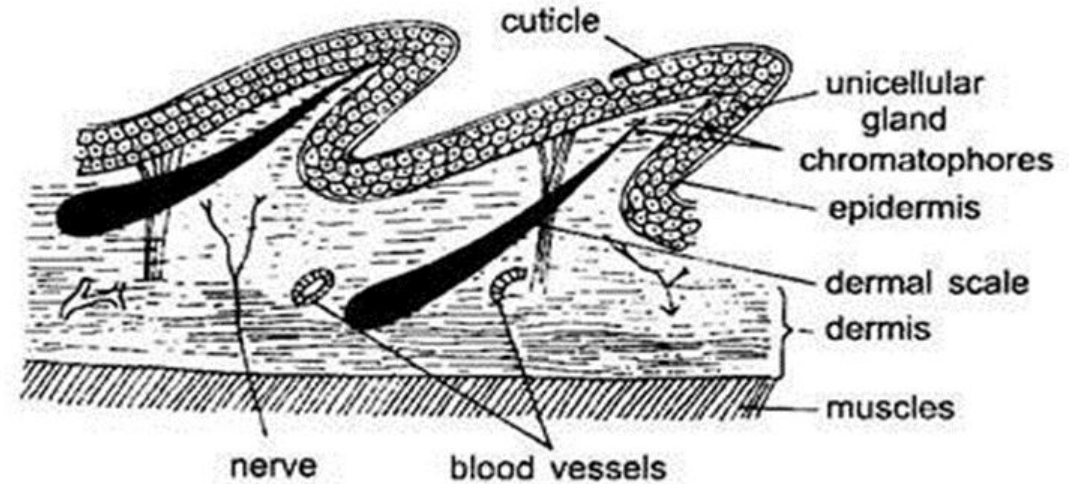
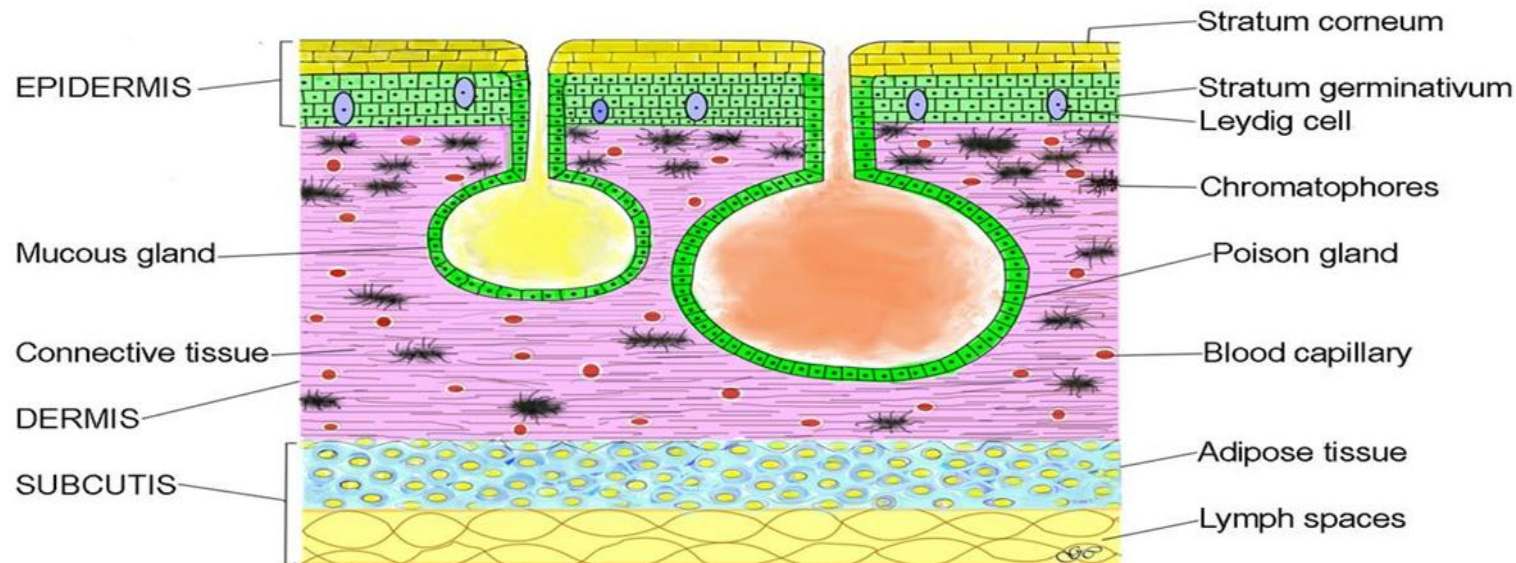


Fig. 41.13. V.S. of skin of bony fish.

Skin of amphibians

- ❑ Stratified epidermis and dermis
- ❑ Mucous gland(desiccation, gas exchange, predator ESCAPE)
- ❑ serous gland, pigmentation cells
- ❑ Earlier had dermal bone scales
- ❑ Terrestrial challenges
- ❑ Keratin production(tough impermeable, protein),protects from UV rays
- ❑ Poison glands, predator deterrent



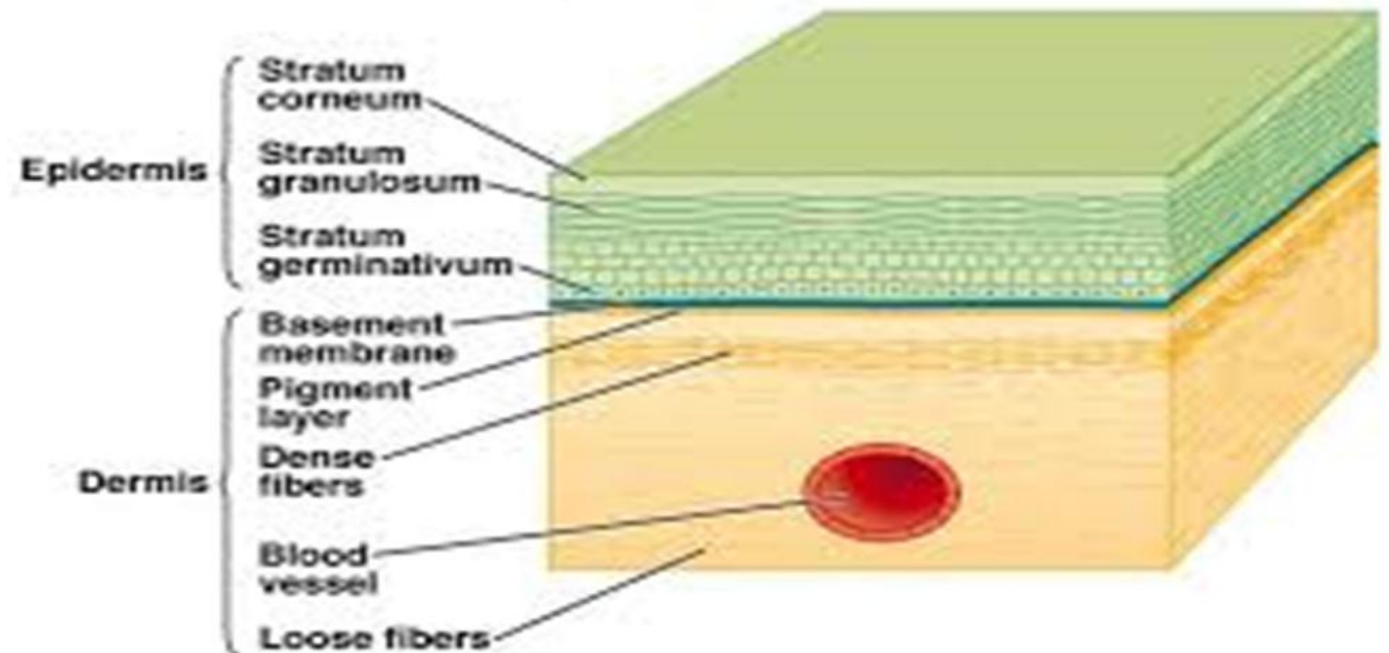
VERTICAL SECTION OF SKIN OF FROG

Skin of reptiles

- Epidermis thick, no glands
- Modified into keratinized scales, cutes in snakes & turtles, beaks in turtles → rattles in snake → claws, plaques & spiny crests
- Inhibits dehydration, abrasion & armour
- Molting by diffusion

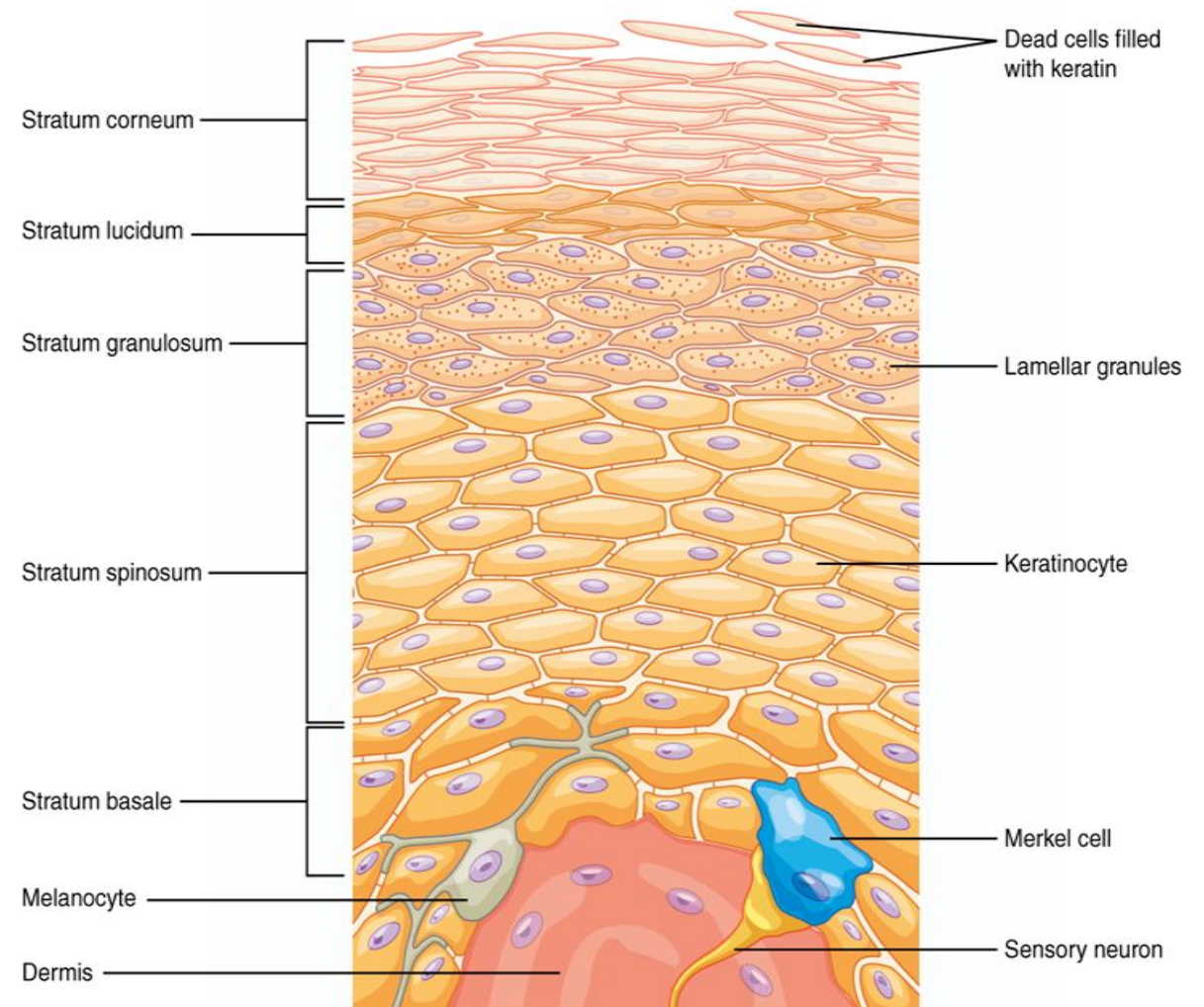
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Reptilian skin



Skin of birds

- ❑ Reptilian features
- ❑ Preen gland
- ❑ 1 or 2 cell thick epidermis,
- ❑ Soft keratinized layer
- ❑ Dermis(blood, lymph vessels, nerves & air spaces thermal regulation)
- ❑ feathers(reptilian scales derived)
- ❑ dermal smooth muscle fibers (behavior, flying & thermal regulation)
- ❑ Fat in epidermis(aquatic)insulation



Skin of mammals

- ▣ Hairs, glands, highly stratified epidermis, thicker dermis

Epidermis: epithelial + other

Cell division+ keratinized cells

Stratum corneum(defense)

Dermis: (thick, blood, lymph

Vessel, nerve, hair, muscle, gland)

Leather formation

Hypodermis:

Adipose : fat, insulation, energy

Skeletal muscles :free skin

Loose connective tissue

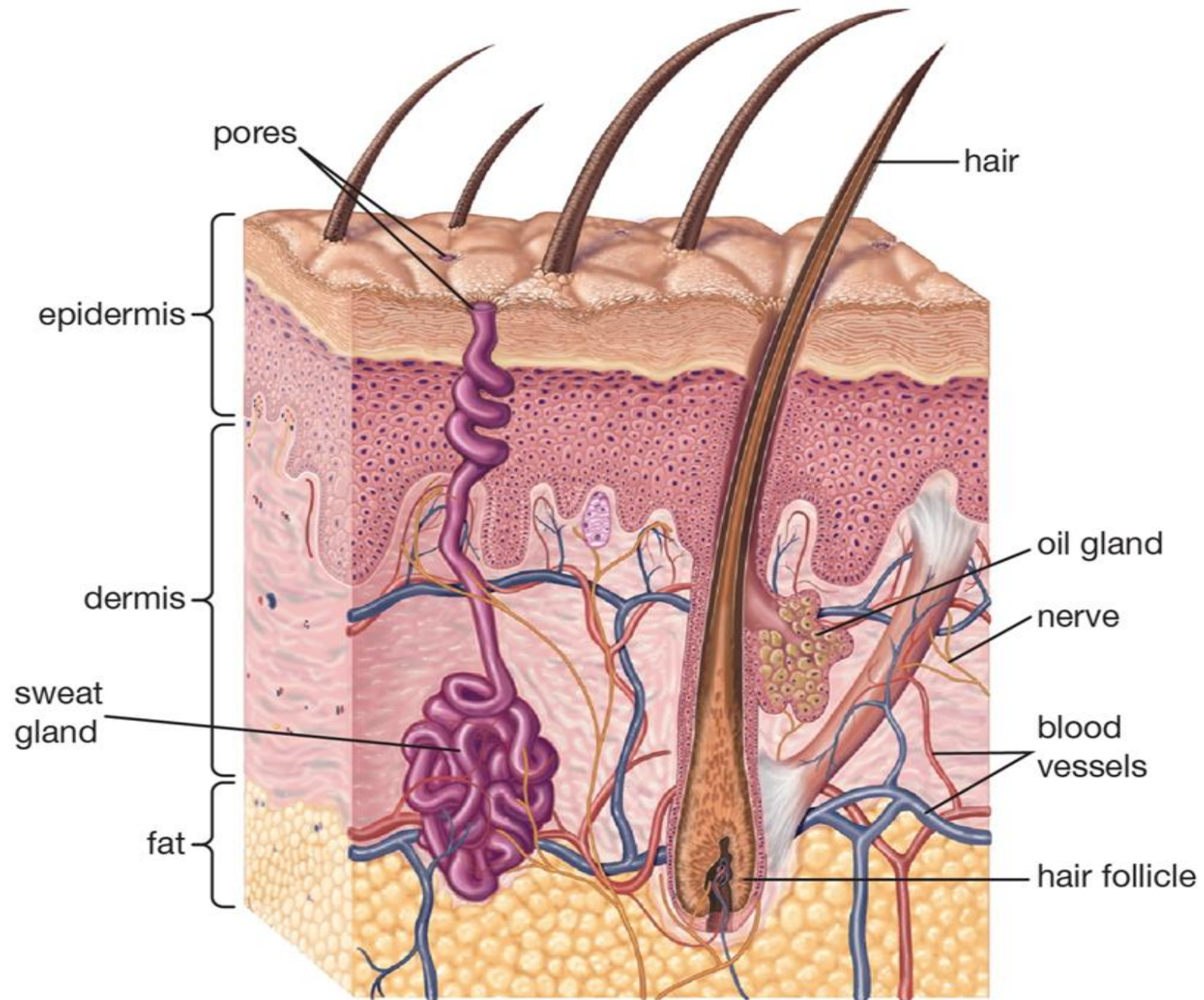
- ▣ Skin:

rays chemical to V-D

Sense organ: heat cold touch

Pressure, pain(nerve endings)

responsive



- ❑ **Sweat pores & glands**: perspiration; cooling effect; homeostasis
- ❑ pheromones;(chemical to communicate with specie members)
- ❑ **sebaceous glands**: sebum(softening & protective agent)
- ❑ pheromone
- ❑ **colour**:
- ❑ (a)pigments(melanin) in chromatophores(cells),epidermis, hair
- ❑ (b)blood
- ❑ Camouflage
- ❑ Social communication
- ❑ **Hair (keratin filled cells)**
- ❑ Shaft + root
- ❑ Arrector Pilli muscles(goose bump) Behavior signs
- ❑
- ❑

The skeleton System of Invertebrate:

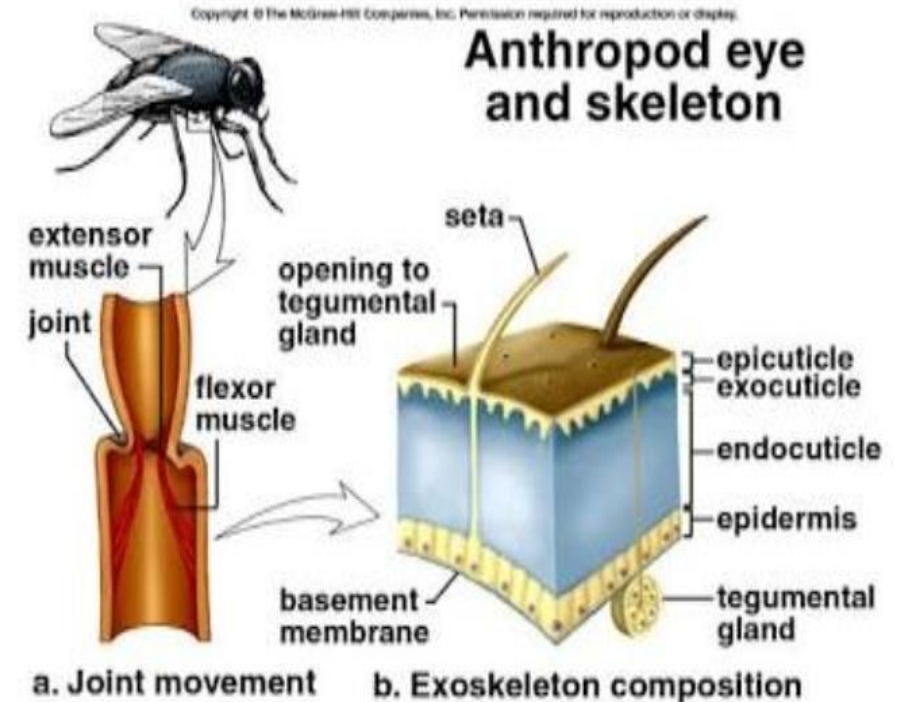
Hydrostatic Skeletons

- Core of liquid surrounded by tension resistant sheath of longitudinal and circular muscles
- Movement and form is controlled by using muscles to change the shape of the fluid filled compartment
- Movement done by creating a rhythm in body of longitudinal and circular muscles
- For example: skeleton of hydra and earthworm



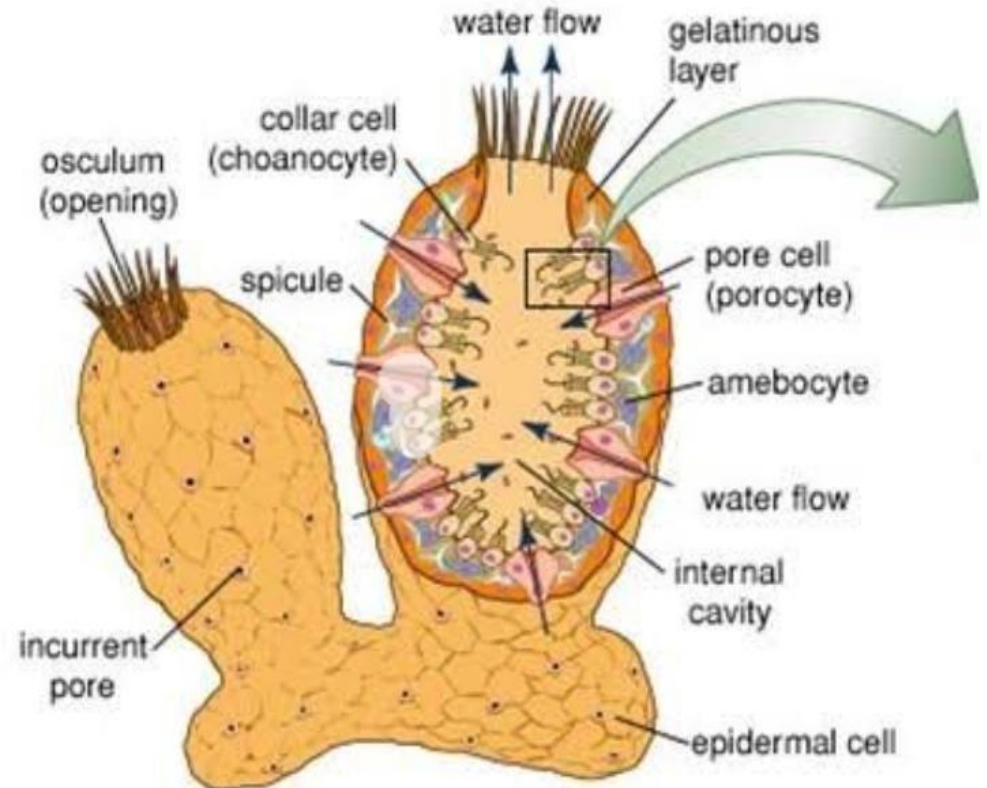
Exoskeleton Of Invertebrate

- Rigid exoskeletons have locomotor functions
- Also support and protect the body
- In arthropods, the epidermis of body wall secretes a thick, hard cuticle that waterproofs the body also protect the soft internal organs
- In arthropods joints e.g (wing joints possess a highly elastic protein called resilin
- In crustaceans, exoskeleton contains calcium carbonate that make it hard



Endoskeletons Of Invertebrate

- Endo means "within"
- Endoskeletons of sponges: It consist of mineral spicules and fibers of spongin that keeps the body from collapsing
- Endoskeletons of echinoderm: consist of small, calcareous plates called ossicles

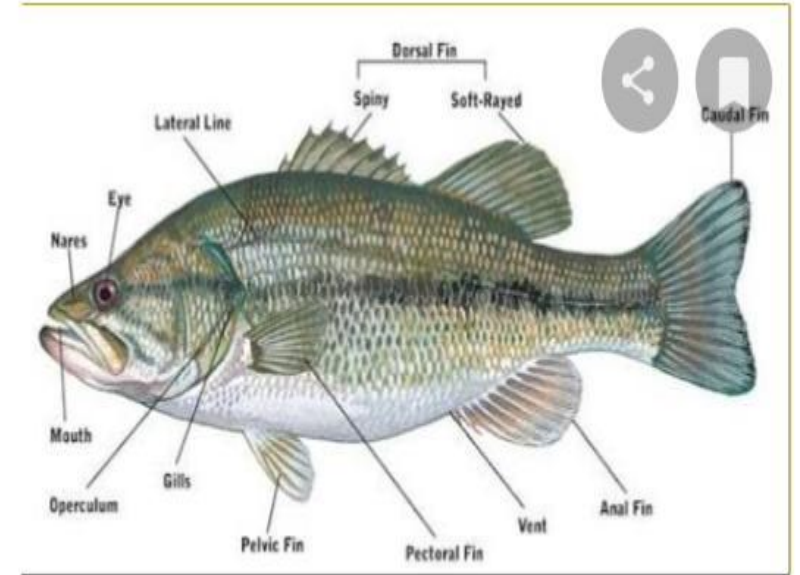


Skeletal System Of Vertebrates

- Vertebrate skeletal system is an endoskeleton that consist of cartilage and bone
- **Cartilage:** Connective tissue provide muscle attachment, aid in movement and provides support
- Consist of cells, fibers and a cellular matrix
- **Bone:** Connective tissue provide attachment for muscles, support internal organs, store calcium and phosphate and manufacture red blood cells
- Rigid and contain inorganic salts mainly calcium phosphate and calcium carbonate
- Bone cells are osteocytes that communicate other cells passing through small channels

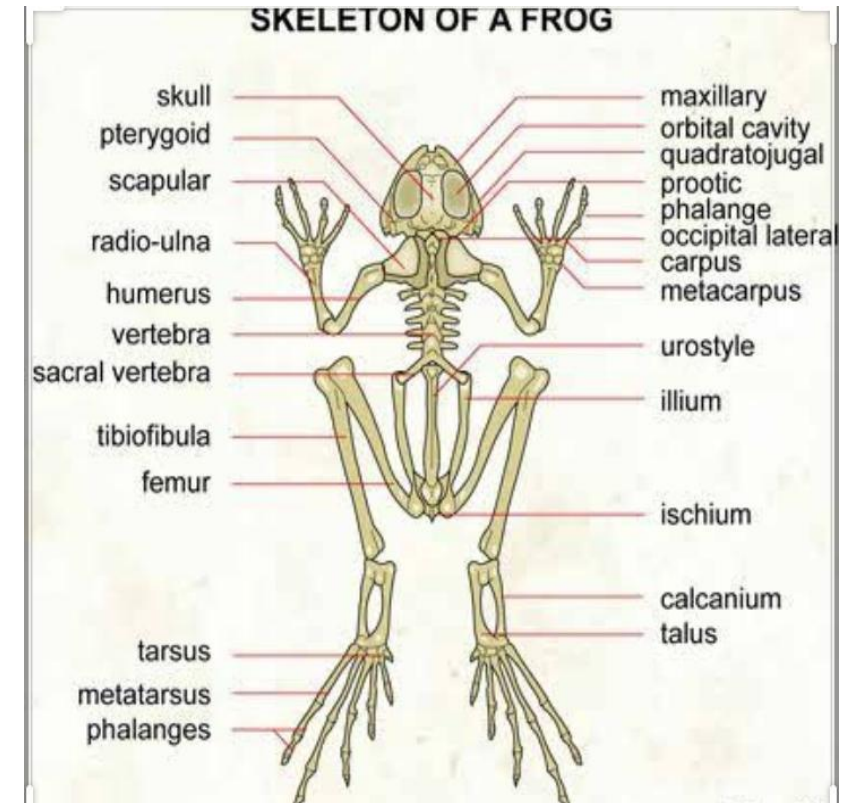
The Skeleton Of Fishes

- Most fishes have well-defined vertebral column, the jawless vertebrate do not e.g lampreys only have isolated cartilaginous blocks along the notochord and hagfish don't even have these
- Most jawed fishes have an axial skeleton that includes a notochord, ribs, and cartilaginous or bony vertebrae
- Muscles used in locomotion attach to axial skeleton



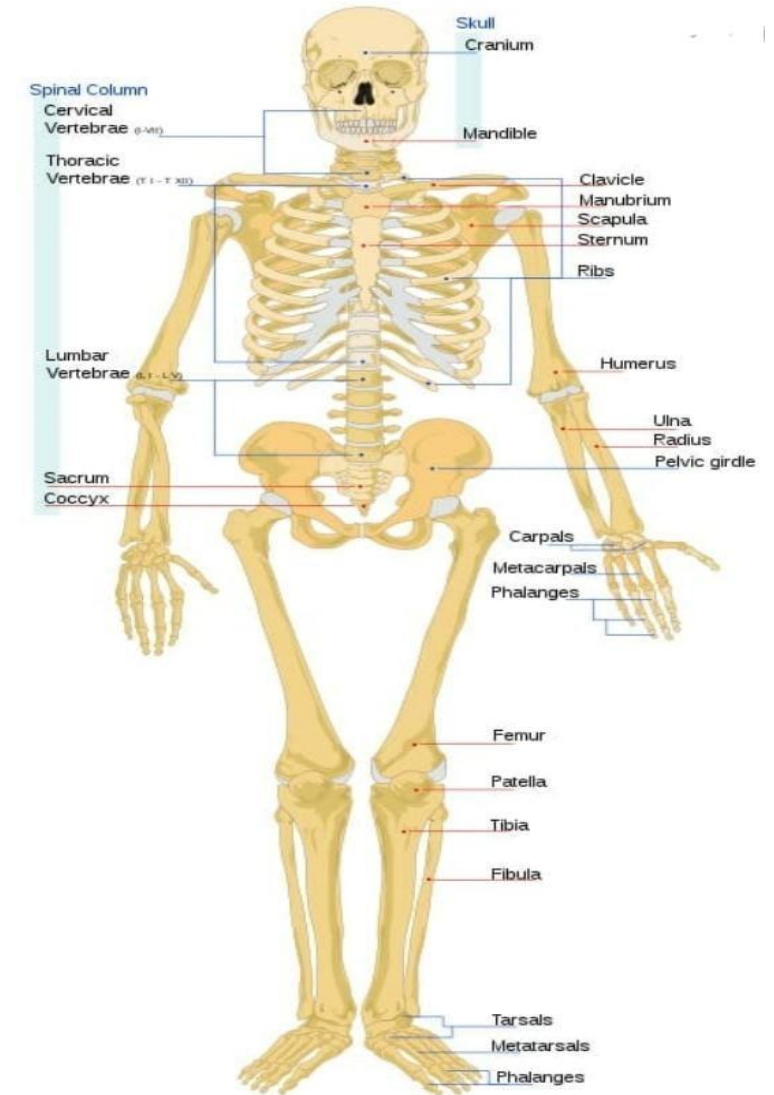
The skeleton of Tetrapods

- During evolution from water to land endoskeleton of tetrapod became modified for support
- This support resulted from intervertebral disks that hold the vertebral column together
- Also absorb shock and provide mobility
- Bone replaced the cartilage and became more rigid
- Appendages became elongated for support



The Human Endoskeleton

- It has two major parts
- **Axial skeleton:** Skull, vertebral column, sternum and ribs
- **Appendicular skeleton:** Appendages, pectoral girdle, and pelvic girdles
- These girdles attach upper and lower appendages to axial skeleton



Movement: Non muscular movement and muscular system

- Movement is one of the things that differentiate a living thing from a nonliving thing.
- All cells have capacity to move and changes shape due to their cytoskeleton

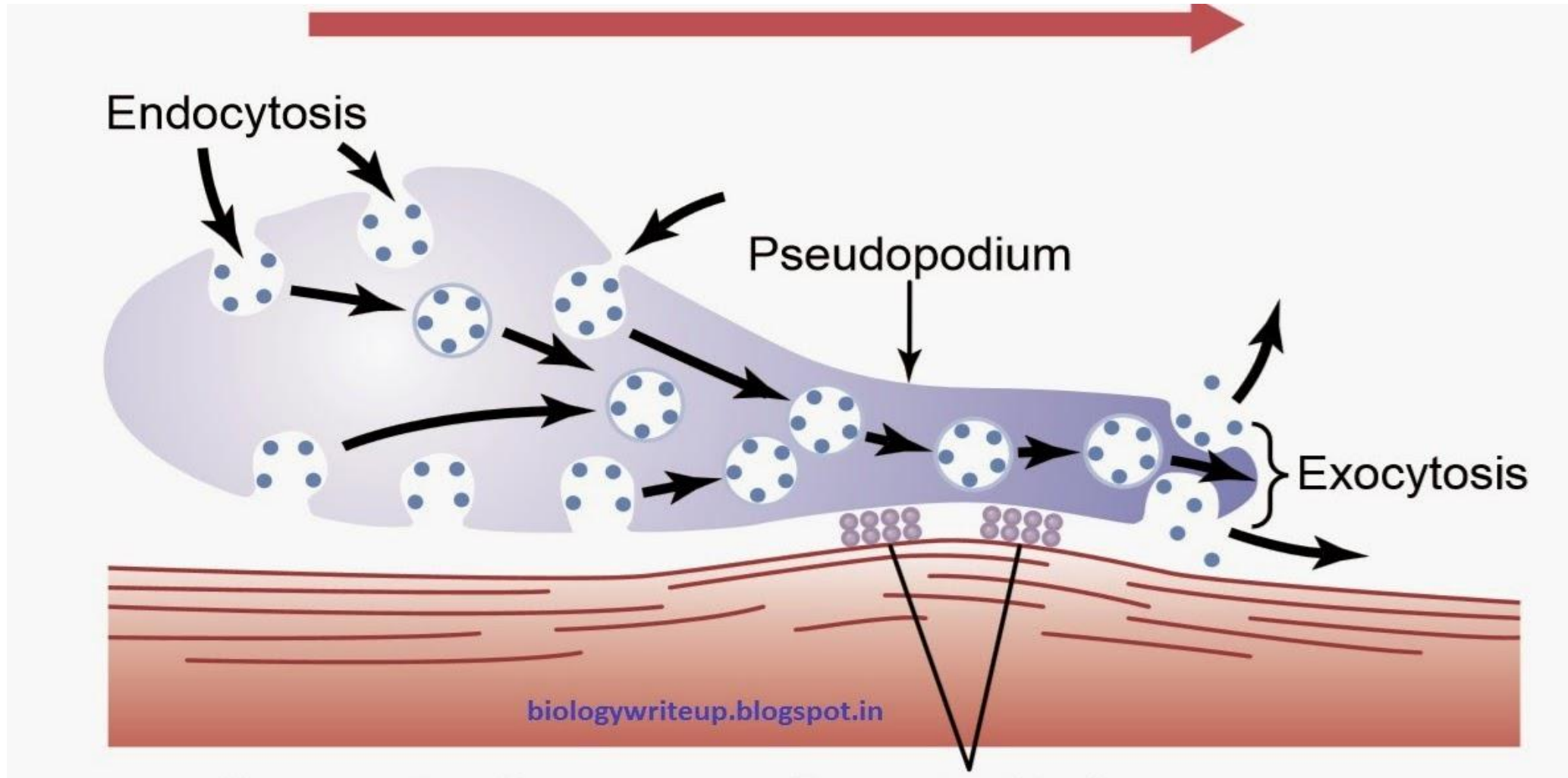
Non muscular movement

- Protozoan protists move by means of specific non muscular(Pseudopodia, flagella or cilia) that move the contractile proteins actin and myosin.
- **Types:**
 - 1- Amoeboid movement
 - 2-Ciliary movement
 - 3-Flagellar movement

Amoeboid movement

- A crawling-like type of movement in which the cell forms pseudopodia towards the front of the cell.
- PM has adhesive properties since new pseudopodia attach to substrate.
- PM slide over underlying layer of cytoplasm.
- PM rolling in a way analogous to a bulldozer track.

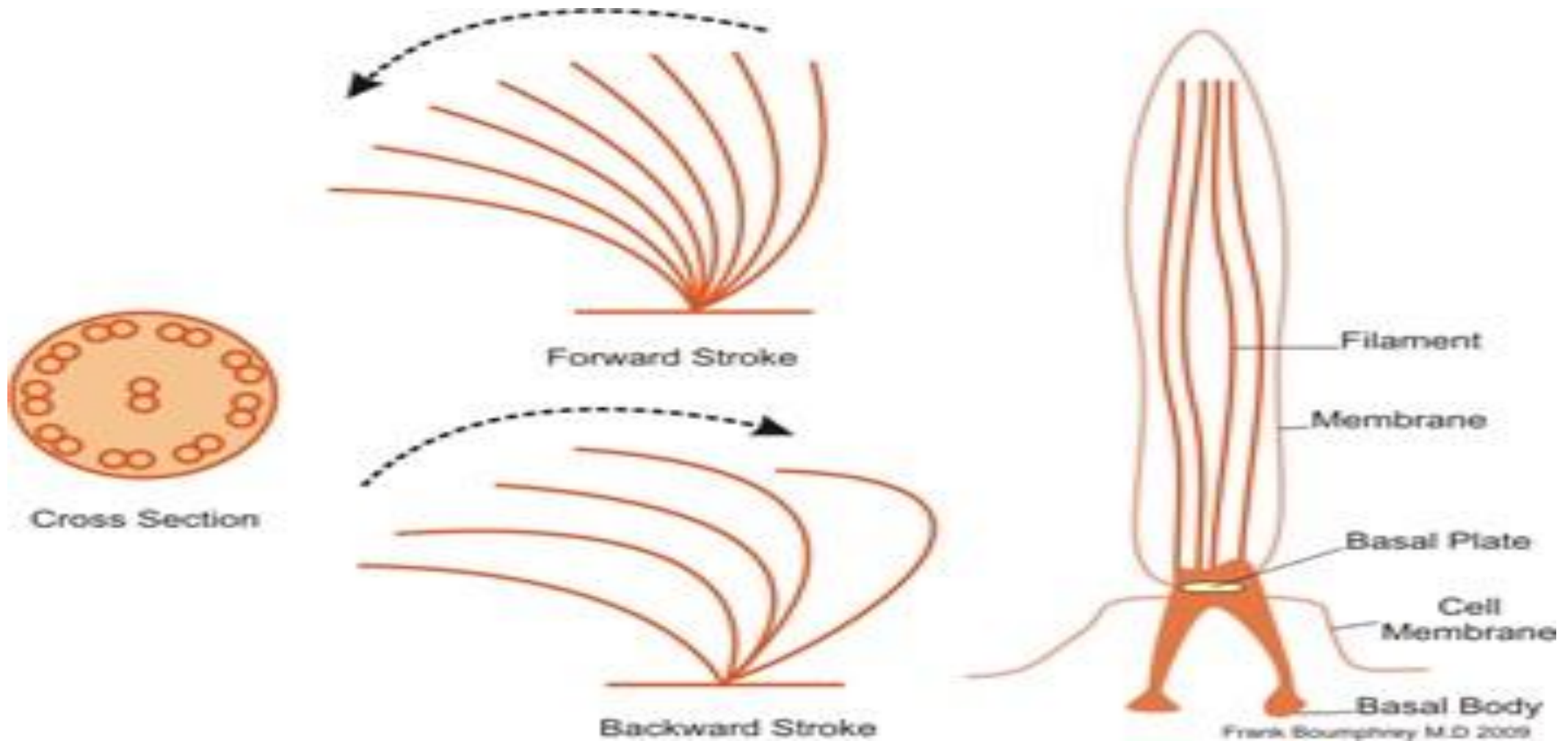
Amoeboid movement



Ciliary And Flagella Movement

- It takes place by the presence of cilia that are hair like structure.
- Cilia are shorter and numerous than flagella and arranged in a longitudinal row.
- Occur throughout the cell surface and beat in co-ordination.
- cilia and flagella help in cell movement.
- Flagella are long and occur singly or in pairs.
- Cilium and flagellum emerge from basal bodies.

Ciliary Movement



Animal Muscle

- Properties:

- 1-Excitability, the capacity to receive and respond to a stimulus.

- 2-Extensibility, the ability to be stretched.

- 3-Elasticity, the ability to return to its original shape after being stretched or contracted

Muscular system of invertebrates

Locomotion of soft bodied invertebrates:

- Move over a firm substratum
- Flatworms and gastropod moluscs exhibit pedal locomotion
- Peristaltic locomotion is common in earthworm, it involves the alternation of circular and longitudinal muscle contraction waves
- Leeches and some insect larvae exhibit looping movement
- Polychaete worms move by the alternate movement of multiple limbs(parapodia)
- Water vascular system of echinoderms provides a unique means of locomotion

Terrestrial locomotion in invertebrates: Walking

- Terrestrial arthropods are much denser than the air
- Require structural support
- That move quickly use joints, tendons and muscles that attach to rigid cuticle
- Walking limbs of crustacea and uniramia are uniform in structure
- Limbs are less massive toward tip
- Joint is articulated to allow movement in one plane
- Limb joints allow extension and flexion of limbs

Flight

- Insects exhibit a wide range of structural adaptations and mechanisms for flight
- Active flight consists in moving through the air by flapping the wings
- Passive flight involves gliding and soaring

Jumping



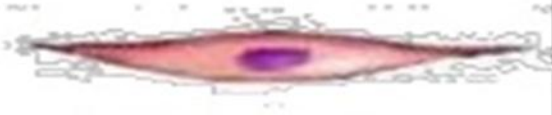


THE MUSCULAR SYSTEM OF VERTEBRATES:

INTRODUCTION:

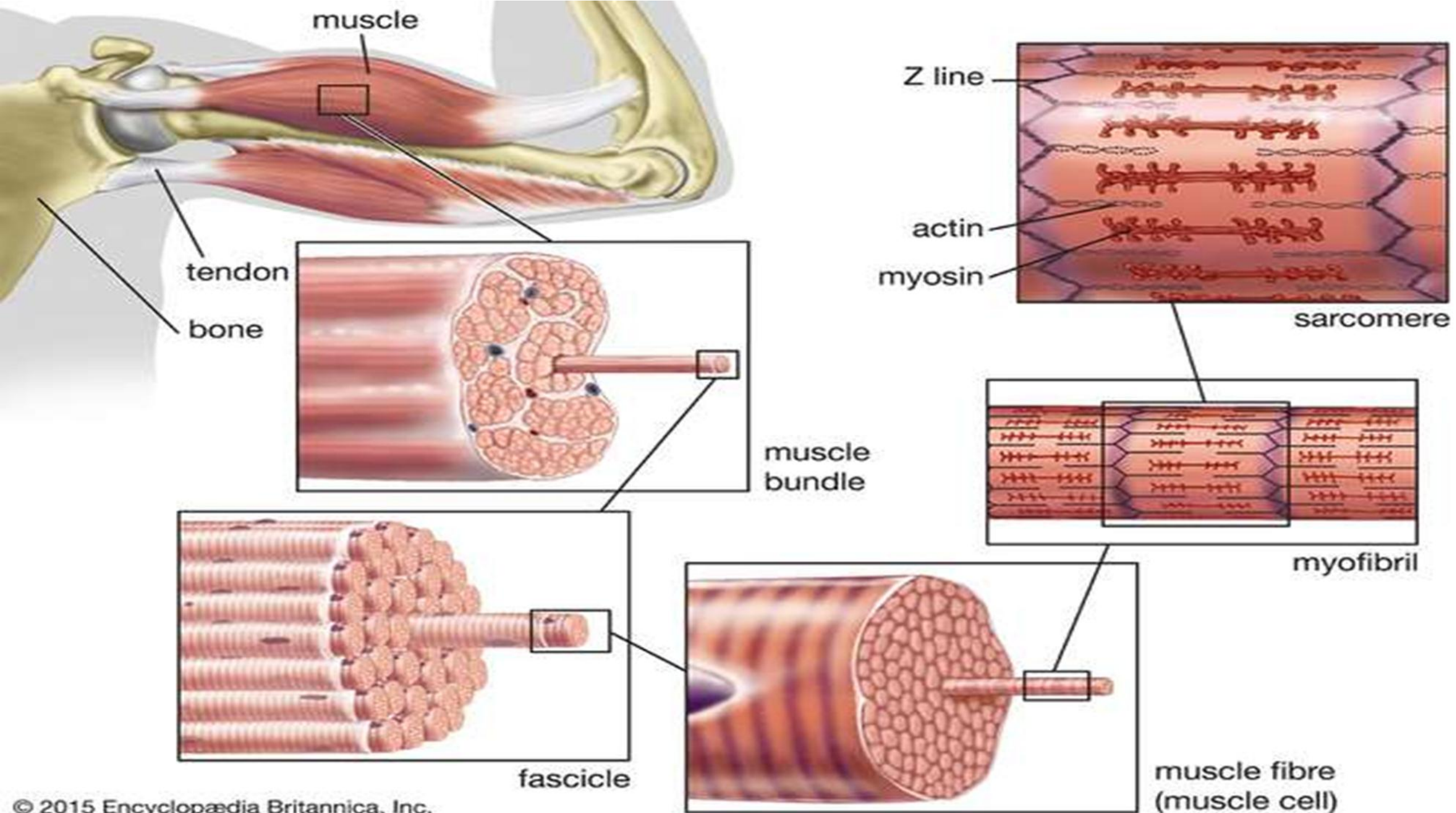
- The **muscular systems** in **vertebrates** are controlled through the nervous **system** although some **muscles** (such as the cardiac **muscle**) can be completely autonomous.
- Together with the skeletal **system**, it forms the **musculoskeletal system**, which is responsible for movement of the human body.
- The two major divisions of the **vertebrate musculature** are the visceral **musculature** and the somatic **musculature** (the striated **muscles** of the body wall).an body.

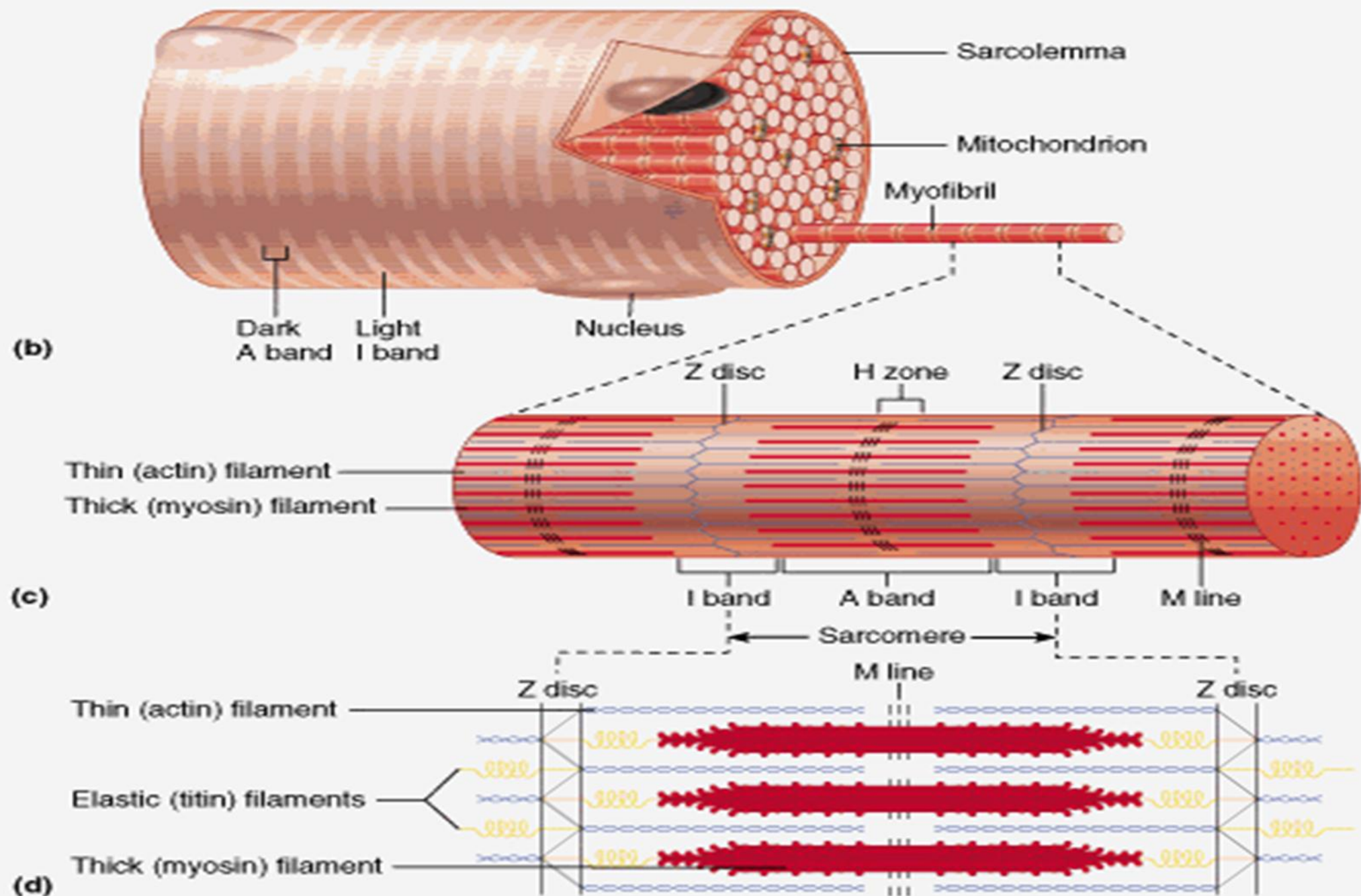
Comparison of Muscle Types

Muscle Type	Skeletal	Cardiac	Smooth
Location	Attached to bone	Heart	Walls of internal organs + in skin
Function	Movement of bone	Beating of heart	Movement of internal organs
Control Mode	Voluntary	Involuntary	Involuntary
Shape	Long + slender 	Branching 	Spindle shape 
Characteristics	Striated- light and dark bands Many nuclei	Striated One or two nuclei	Non-striated One nucleus (visceral)

SKELETAL MUSCLE CONTRACTION

- All skeletal muscles contractions occur as a result of conscious effort originating in the brain.
- The brain sends electrochemical signals through the nervous system to the motor neuron that innervates several muscle fibers.^[16]
- In the case of some reflexes, the signal to contract can originate in the spinal cord through a feedback loop with the grey matter.
- Other actions such as locomotion, breathing, and chewing have a reflex aspect to them: the contractions can be initiated both consciously or unconsciously.



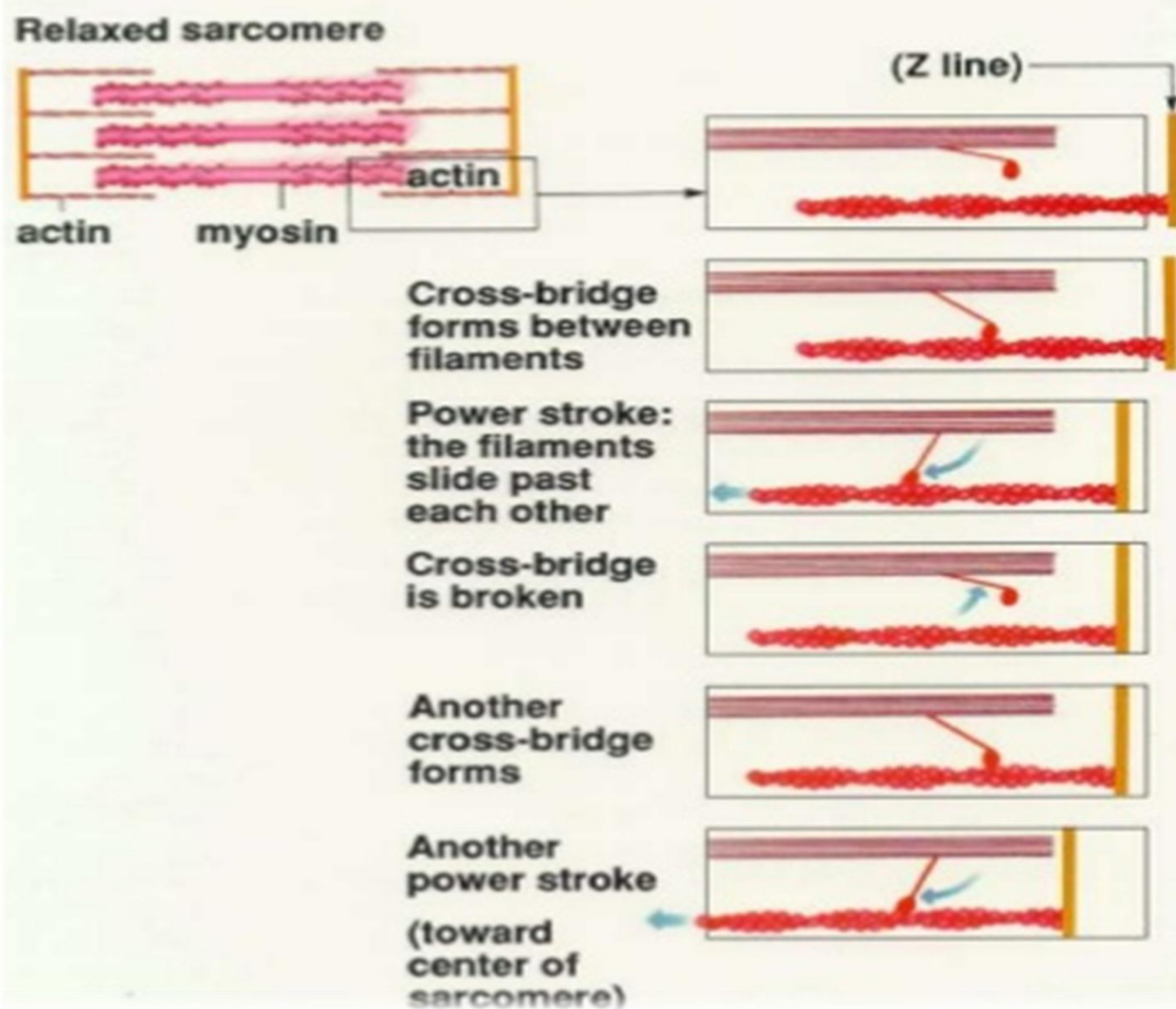


Control Of Skeletal Muscle Contraction

- Vertebrate striated **muscle contraction** is controlled (**regulated**) by the action of the protein's troponin and tropomyosin on the actin filaments.
- Nervous stimulation causes a depolarization of the **muscle** membrane (sarcolemma) which triggers the release of calcium ions from the sarcoplasmic reticulum.
- The acetylcholine molecules then bind to nicotinic ion-channel receptors on the muscle **cell** membrane, causing the ion channels to open.
- Sodium ions then flow into the muscle **cell**, initiating a sequence of steps that finally produce muscle contraction.

Mechanics of a Muscle Contraction

- What causes actin to slide over myosin?
 - **The head of myosin connects to actin and pivots.**
- What is this connection called?
 - **cross-bridge**
- The binding of the myosin heads throughout the sarcomere occur asynchronously...
 - **some myosin heads are binding while other heads are releasing the actin filaments.**
 - This process must be performed repeatedly during a single muscle contraction so that the muscle is able to generate a smooth force.

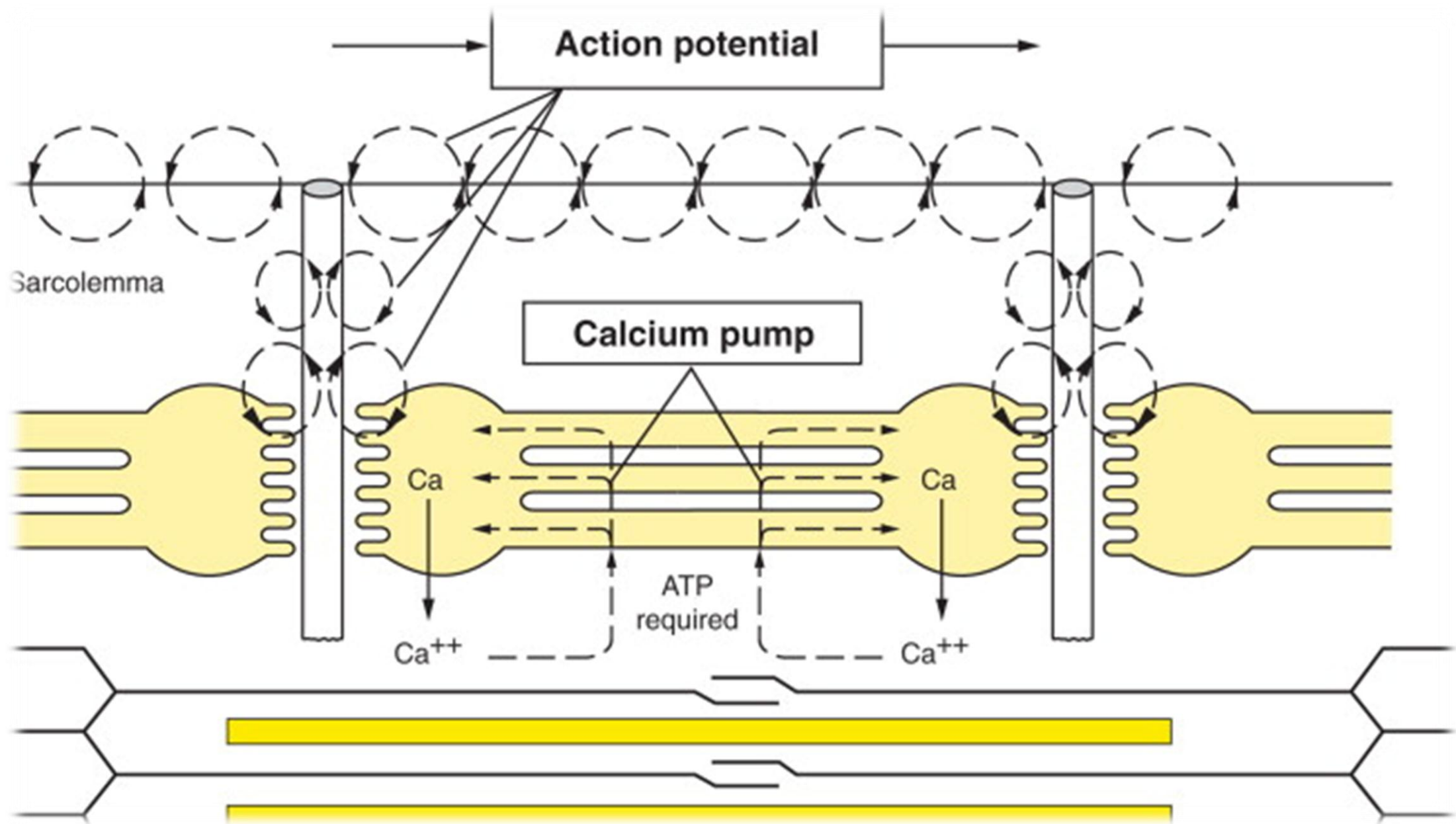


In order for a skeletal muscle contraction to occur;

- There must be a neural stimulus.
- There must be calcium in the muscle cells.
- ATP must be available for energy.

Muscle contraction:

- **Calcium** remains in the sarcoplasmic reticulum until released by a stimulus.
- **Calcium** then binds to troponin, causing the troponin to change shape and remove the tropomyosin from the binding sites.
- Cross-bridge cling continues until the **calcium** ions and ATP are no longer available.



Chapter: 2

Communication 1: Nervous System

Communication In Animal

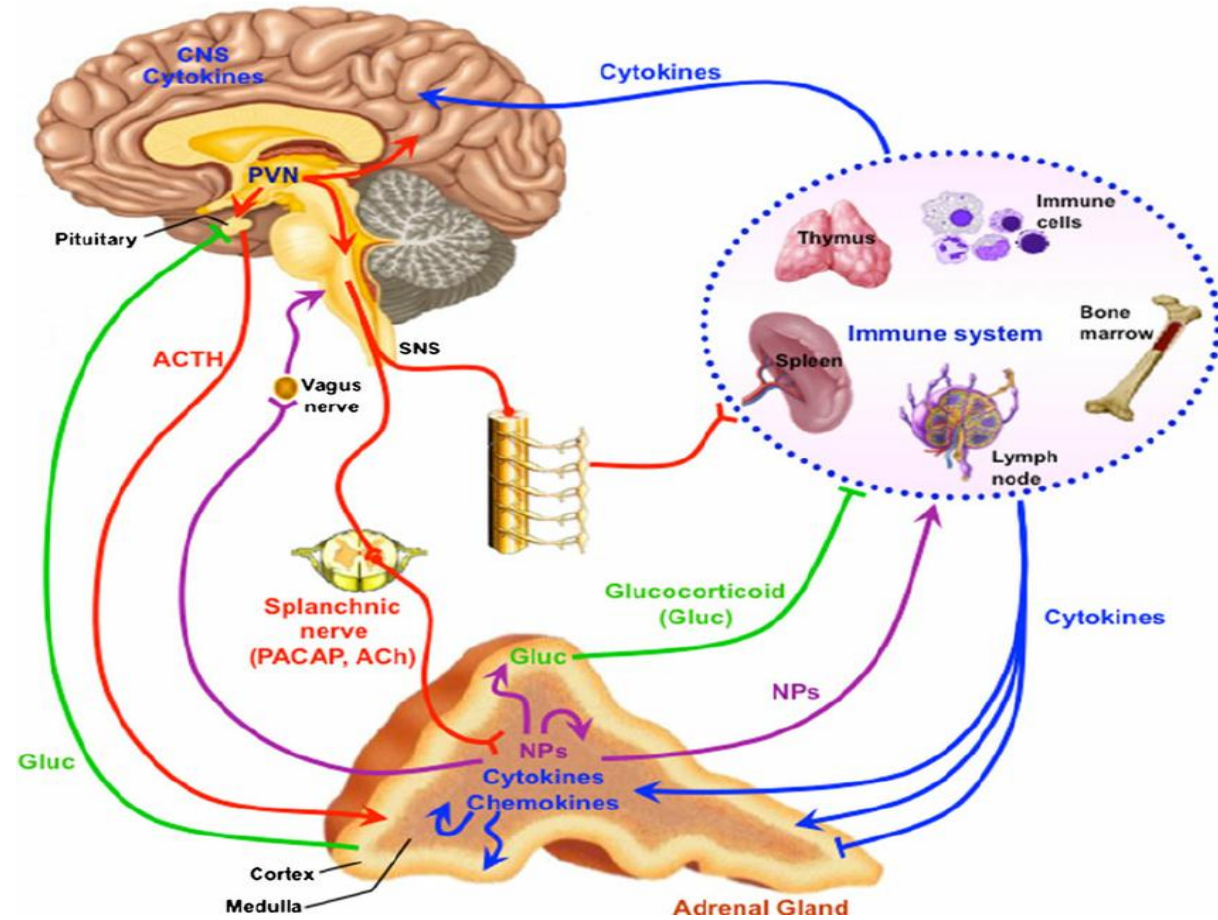
- Communication: when one animal **transmits information to another** ,causing some kind of change in the animal that gets the information.
- **Biological Communication**
- The Study of Animal Communication is called **Zoosemiotics**.

ANIMAL COMMUNICATION



Forms Of Communication

- **Neuronal**
 - Transmit Electrical Signal
- **Hormonal**
 - Initiate a widespread, prolonged response



Functional Types Of Neurons:

1. Sensory Neurons

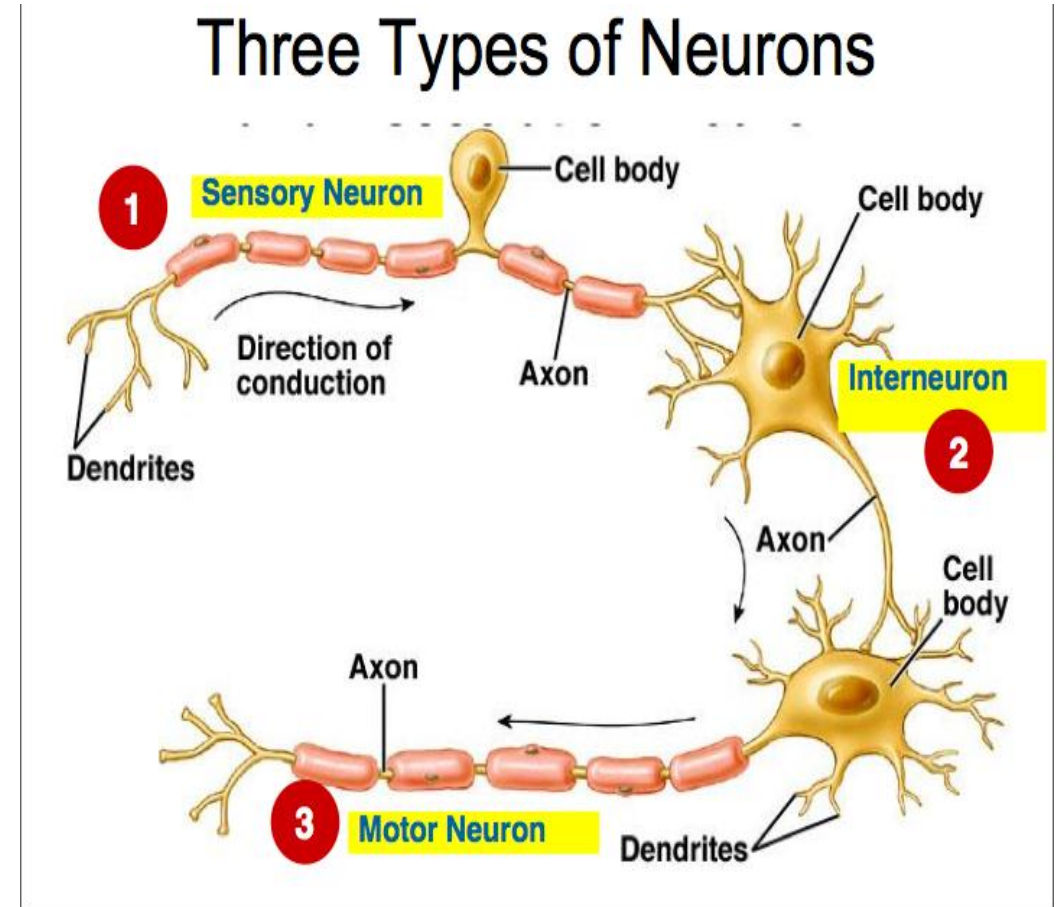
Carry signals from outer parts of body to CNS

2. Motor Neurons

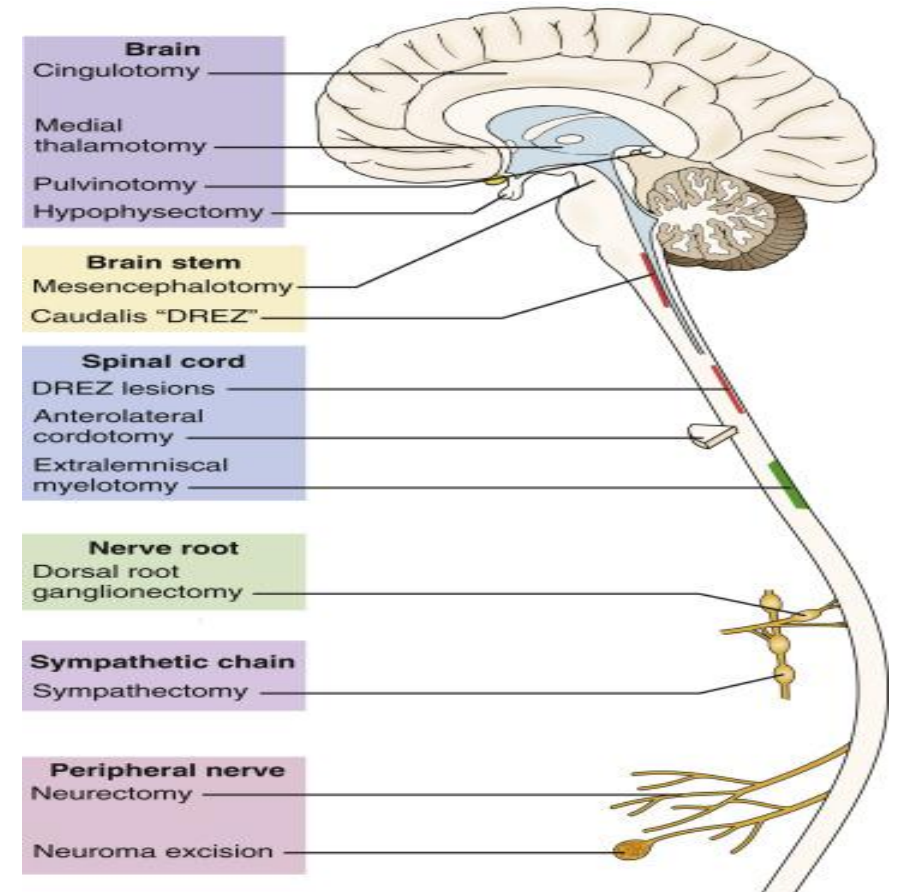
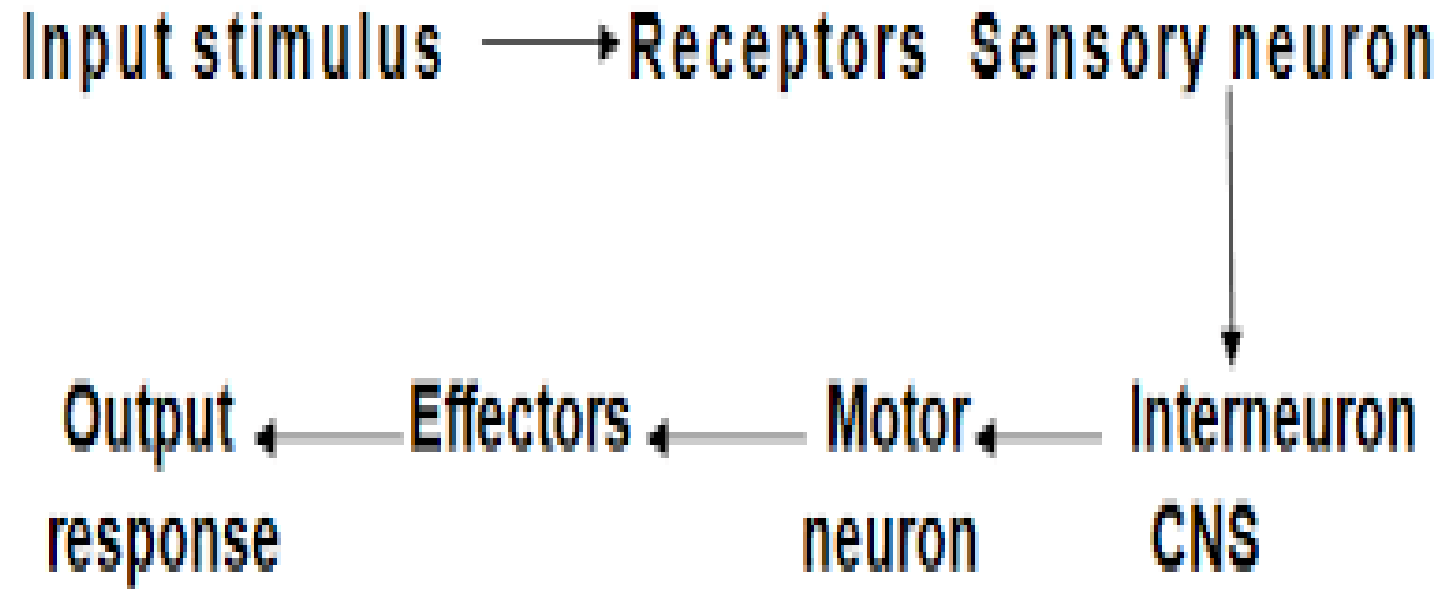
Carry signals from CNS to outer parts of body

3. Inter Neurons

connect various neurons within the brain and spinal cord

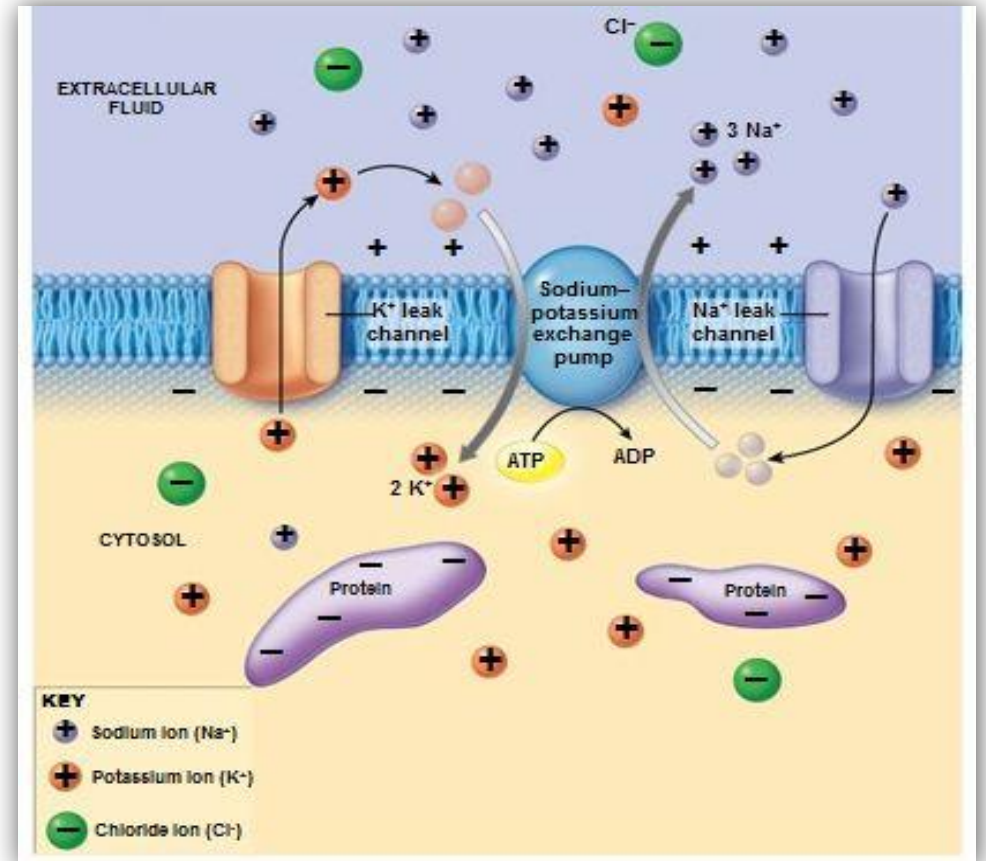


Generalized Pathway For Flow Of Info. In CNS



Resting Membrane Potential

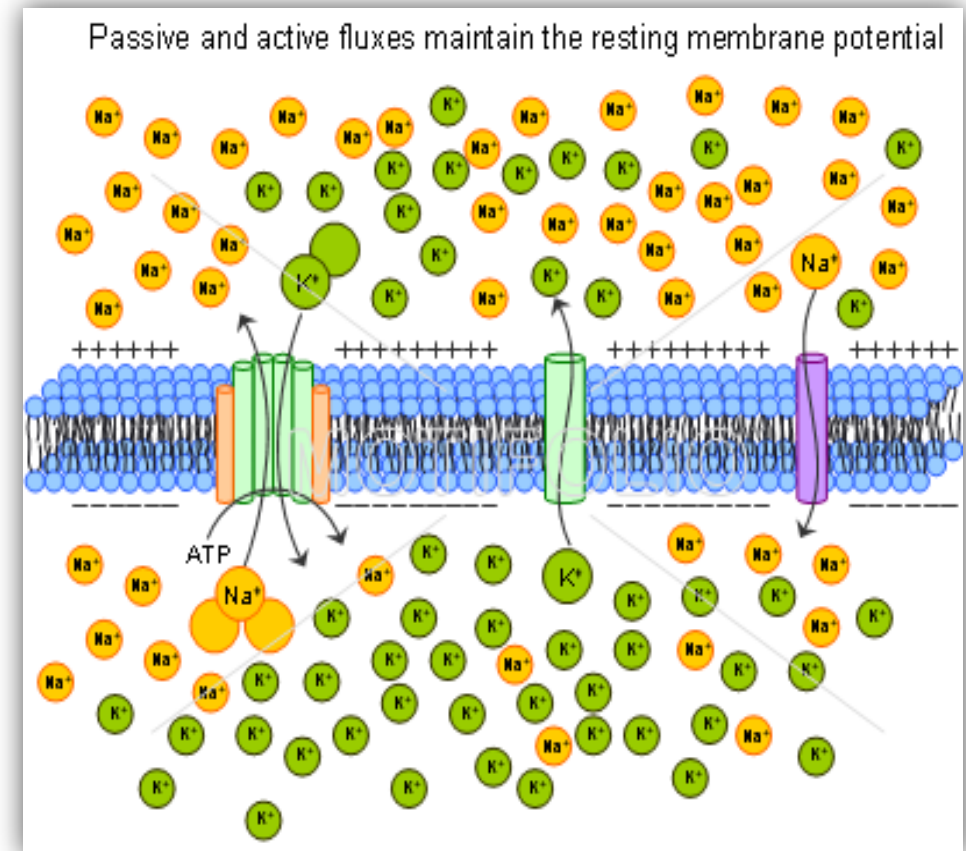
- Neuron is polarized.
- Difference in electric charge is due +ve and -ve ions in fluids on either side.
- Permeability of plasma membrane of these ions.
- All cells have resting membrane potential
- Measured in milivolts(-70mV).



<https://www.google.com.pk/resting-membranepotential>

Mechanism of Resting Membrane Potential

- Na^+ are concentrated outside and potassium(K^+) are concentrated inside.
- Diffusion of ions takes place.
- Membrane remain constant due to **sodium potassium ATPase pump**.
- 3Na^+ moves out and 2K^+ moves in.
- The pump work to establish resting potential across membrane.
- Membrane regain potential of -70mV .



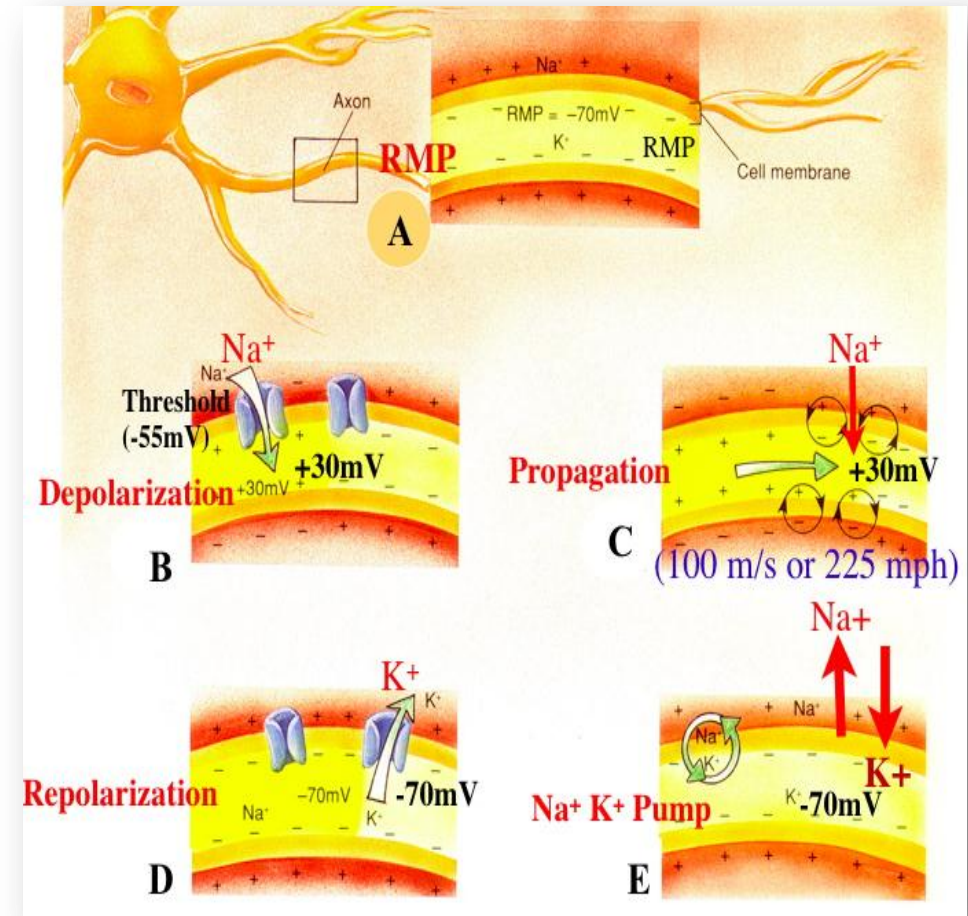
<https://www.google.com.pk/url/restingmembranepotential>

Action Potential

- Series of events occurs in RMP when cell is stimulated with adequate stimulus.
- Threshold stimulus is needed to initiate an impulse.

□ **Events:** The events are as follows;

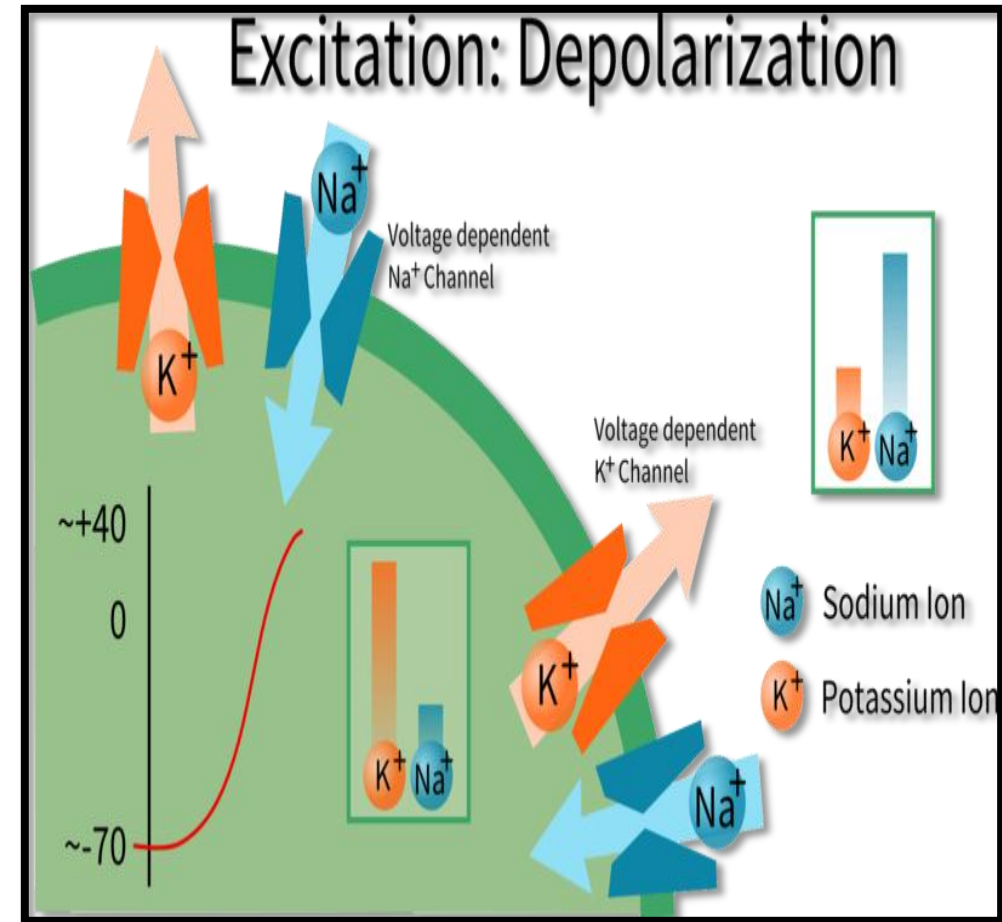
- Depolarization
- Repolarization
- Hyperpolarization



https://www.google.com.pk/url/acton_potential

Depolarization

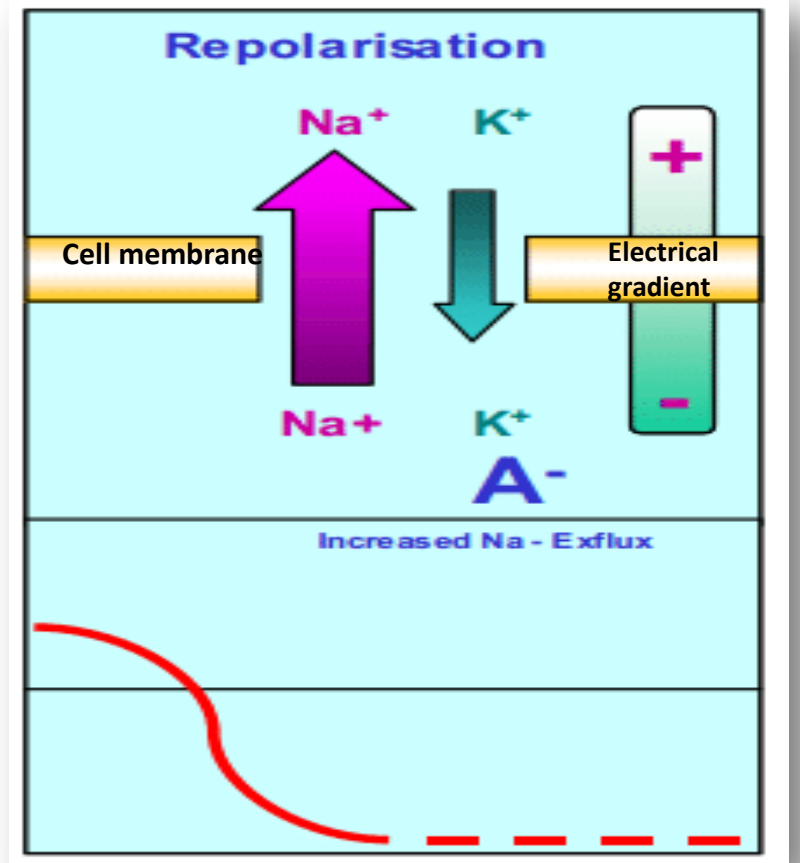
- Threshold increases the permeability of Na^+ .
- Na^+ move inside causes membrane potential fall from -70mV to 0 .
- Inside_ **+vely** charged
- Outside_ **-vely** charged
- Na^+ gate open and it rush inside.
- Decrease the membrane potential.
- After that, K^+ gate open and it rush outside.



[https://www.google.com.pk
/url/depolarization](https://www.google.com.pk/url/depolarization)

Repolarization

- Na^+ gated channels closes, K^+ gated channels open.
- Lead to efflux of K^+ ions.
- Inside **-vely** charged.
- Outside **+vely** charged.
- Then K^+ gate close.
- This lead to repolarization.



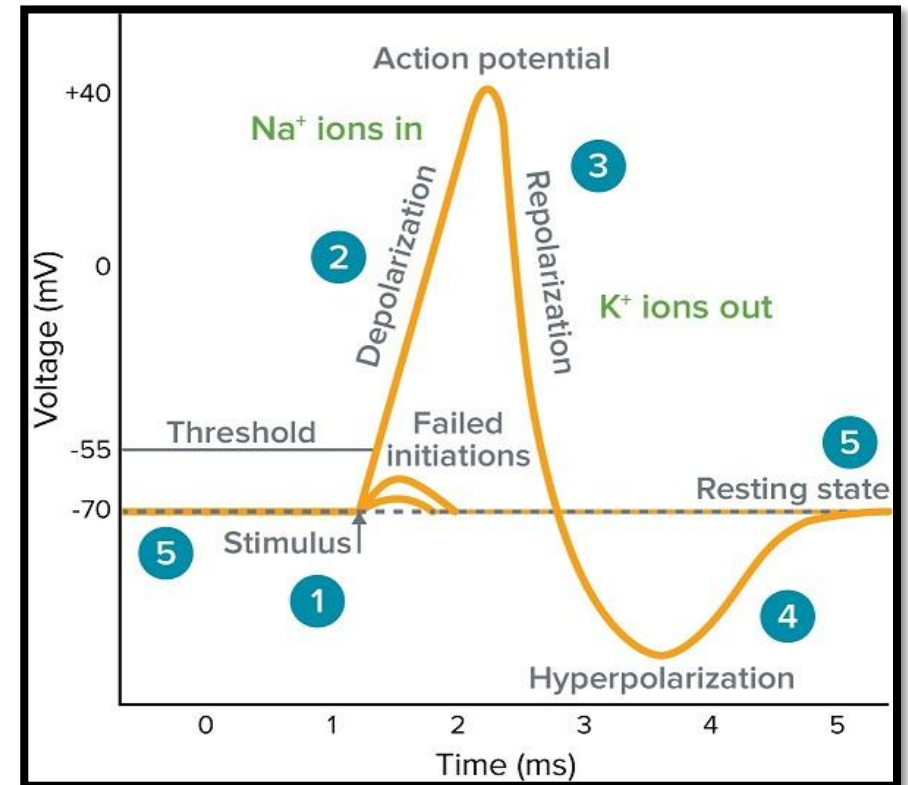
[https://www.google.com.pk/
url/repolarization](https://www.google.com.pk/url/repolarization)

Hyperpolarization

- Action potential stops for an interval of time.
- K^+ rushed out.
- Increase in membrane potential.
- This brief period is **refractory period**.
- Resting potential is stored in membrane.

➤ All-or-none law

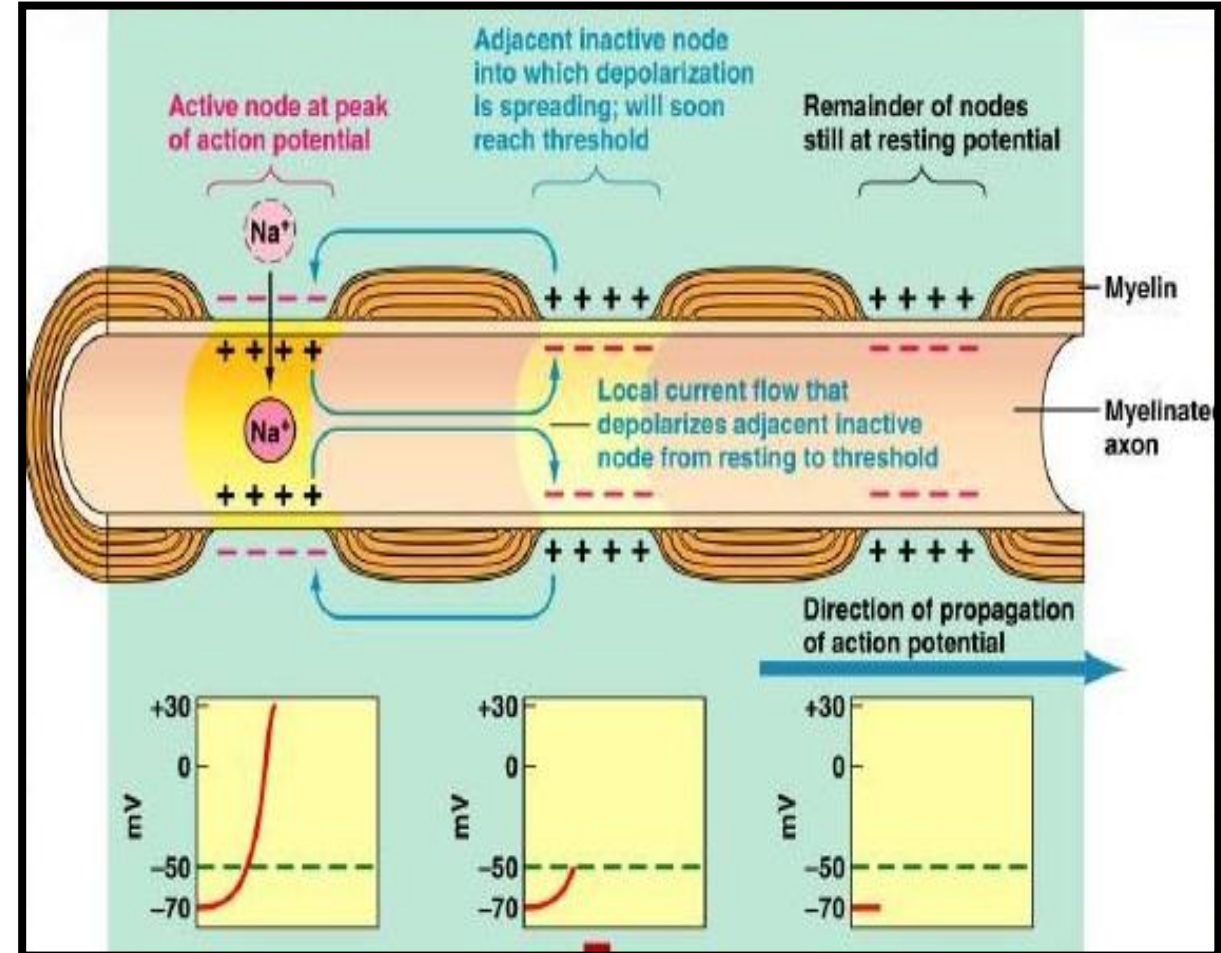
“Axon will fire at full power or not at all”



<https://www.google.com.pk/url/hyperpolarization>

Role of Myelin

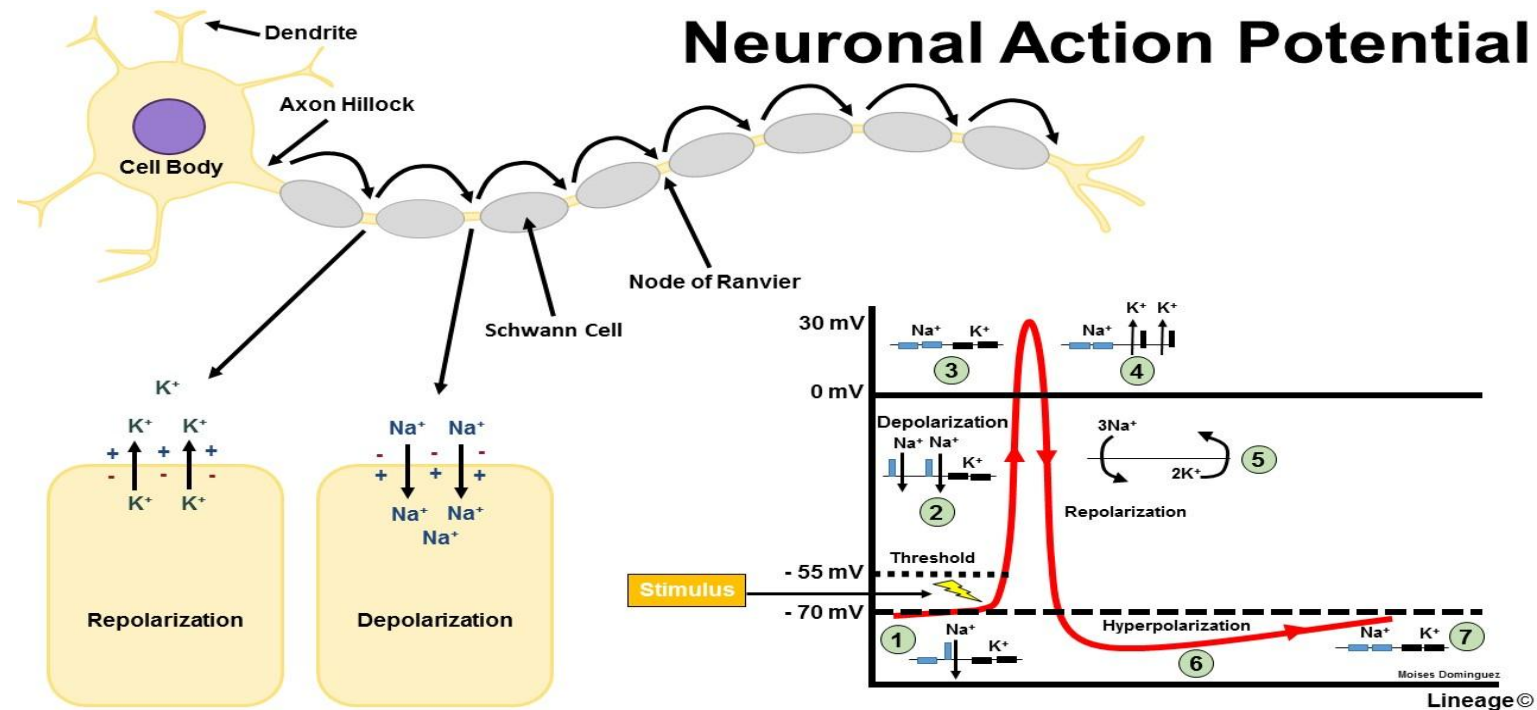
- Action potential jumps from node to node (Saltatory Conduction).
- **Myelination** allow rapid conduction in small neurons.
- Cause increase in conduction velocity.
- Axon diameter is large in invertebrates.



<https://www.google.com.pk/url/saltatoryconduction>

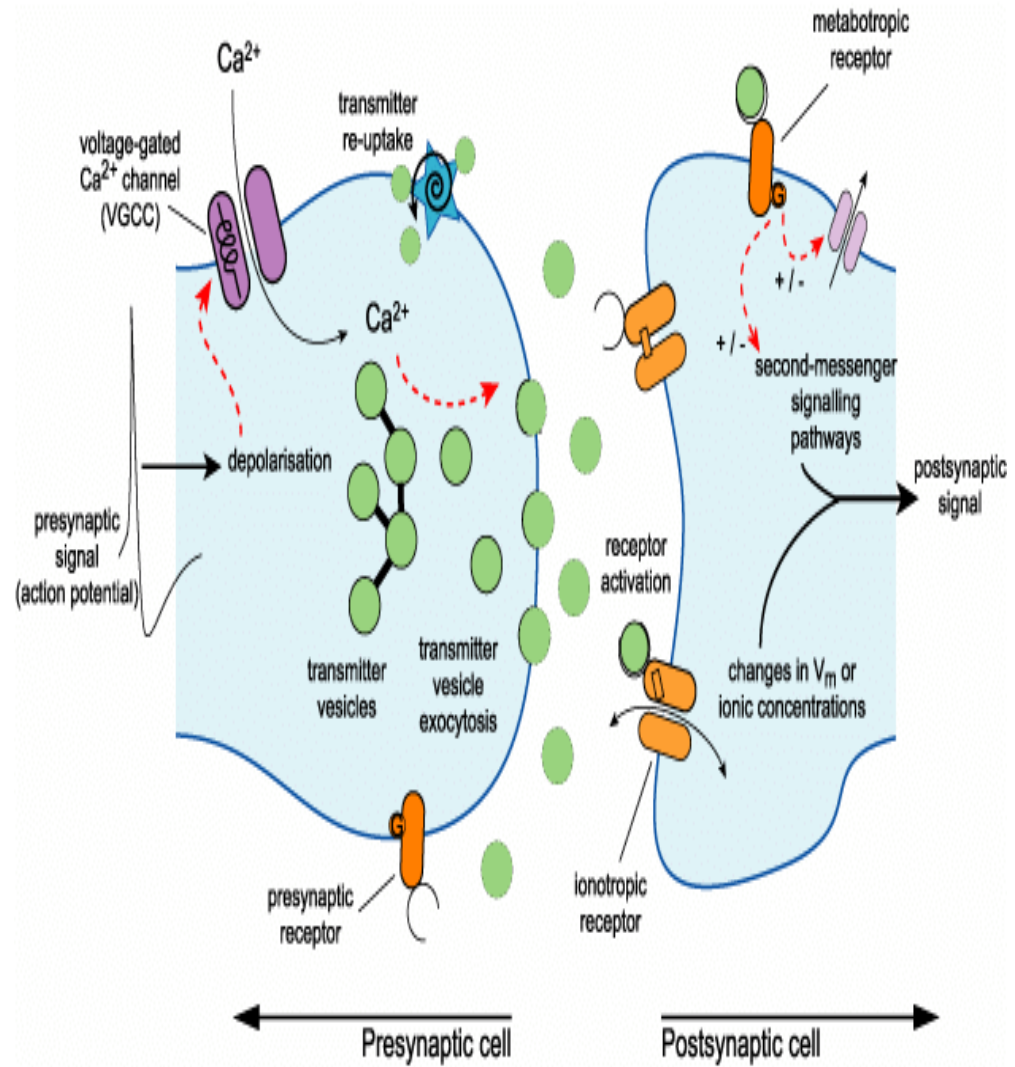
Action potential

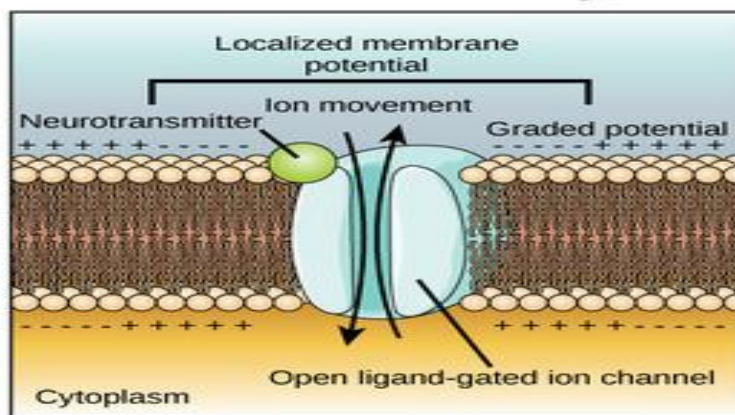
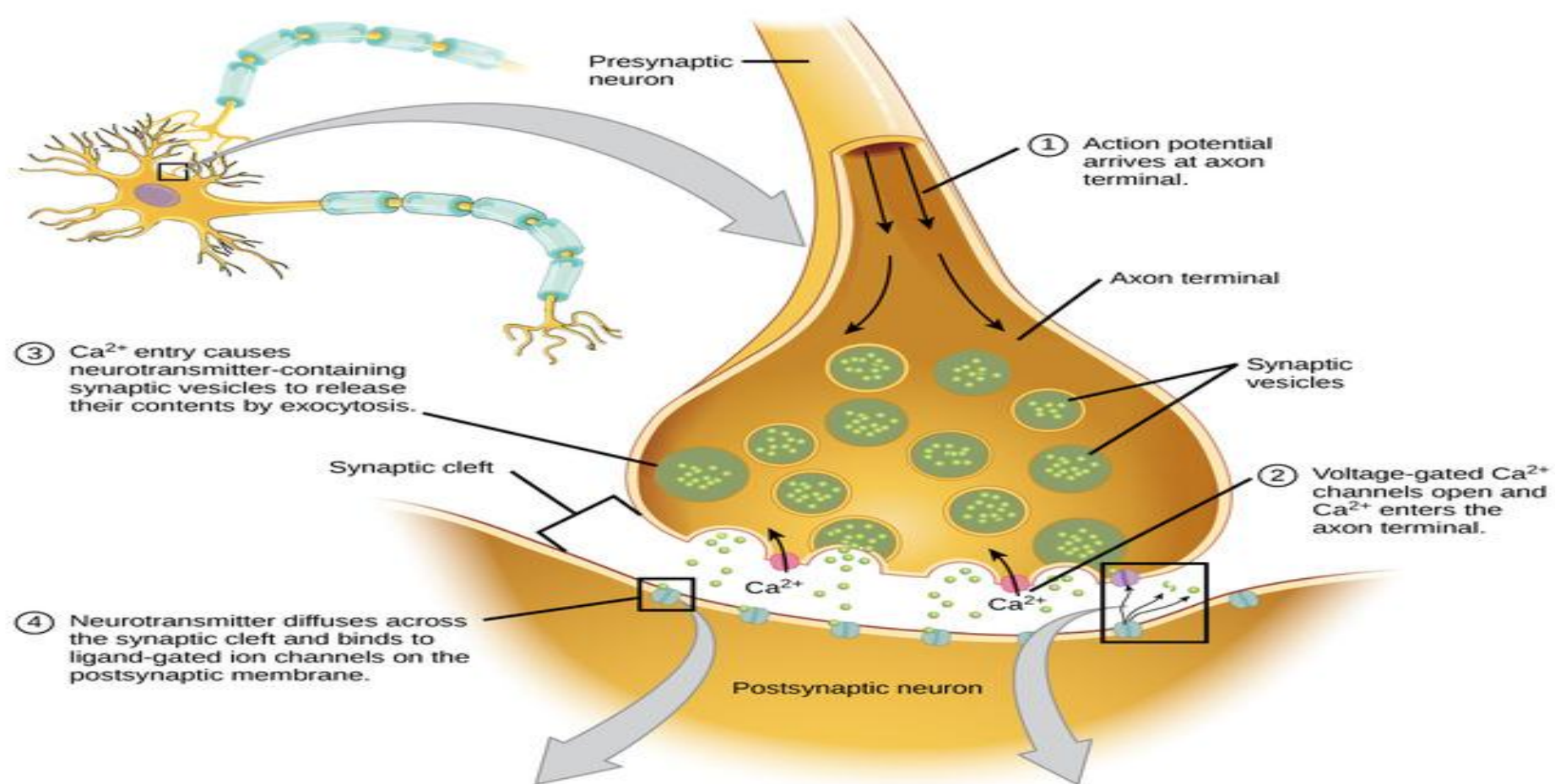
- Neuron receive input.
- Neurotransmitter.
- **Action potential** (the polarity change).
- Signal (stimulates other neurons).
- Generate **nerve impulse** .



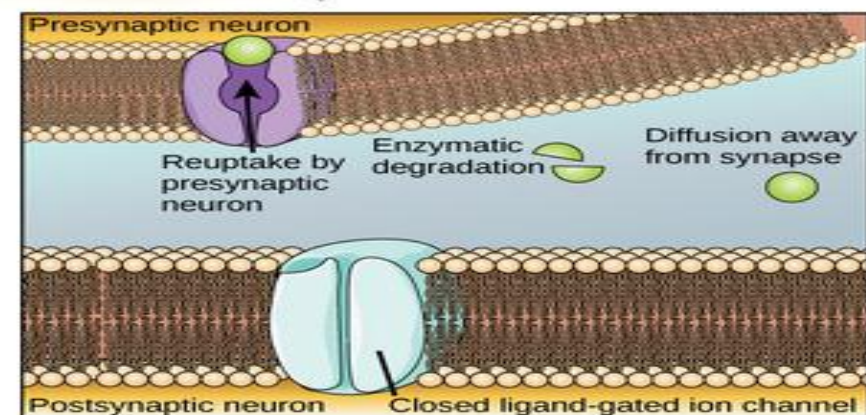
<http://action.potential.hjk>

- **Synapses :**
- Junction (axon of one and dendrite of other neuron).
- **End Bulb :**
- End of the branching axon .
- **Synaptic cleft :**
- Space between end bulb and dendrite of next neuron.
- **Presynaptic neuron(before synapse):**
- Neuron carry the action potential toward synapse.
- **Postsynaptic neuron(after synapse):**
- Neuron carry impulse /action potential away from synapse.



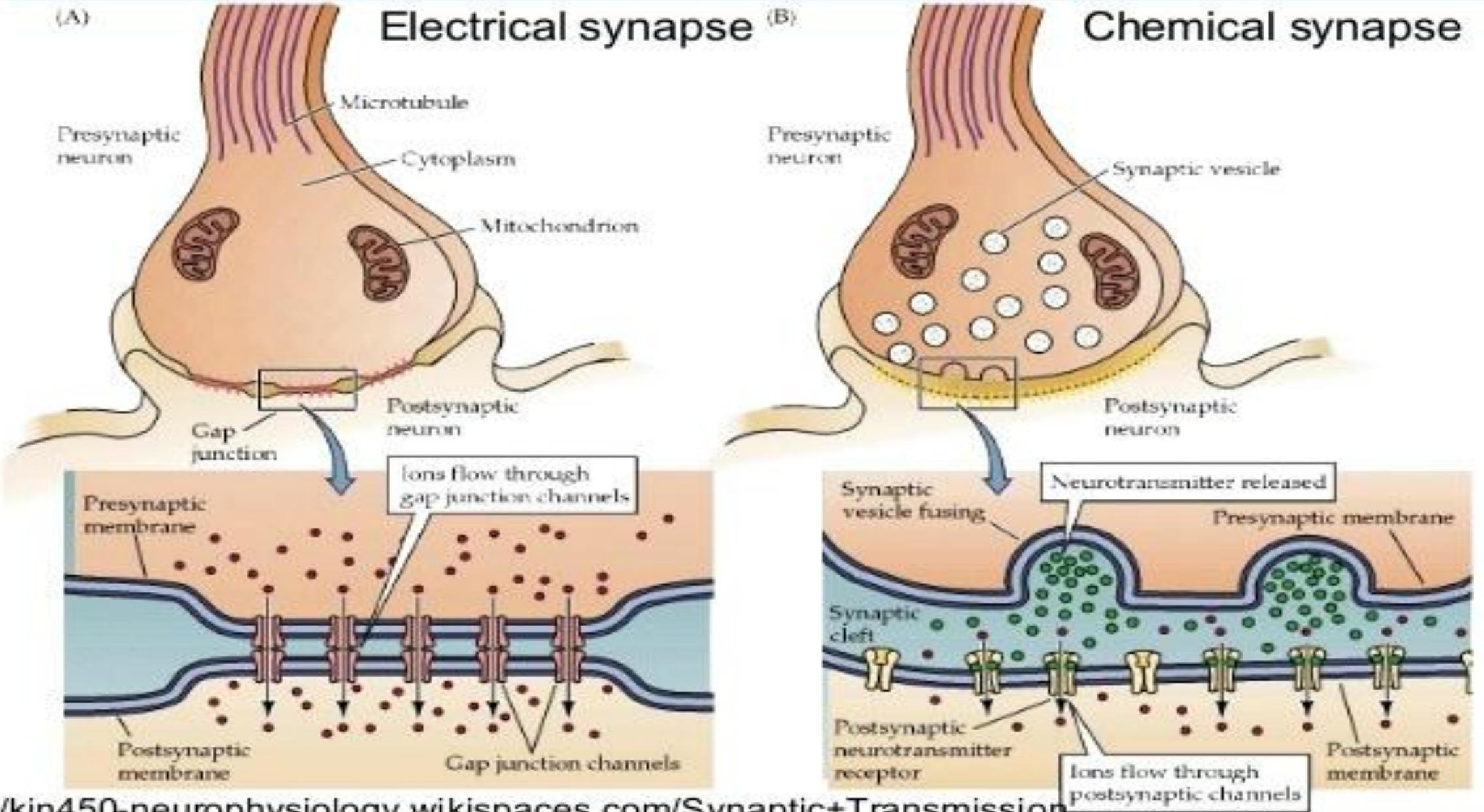


5 Binding of neurotransmitter opens ligand-gated ion channels, resulting in graded potentials.

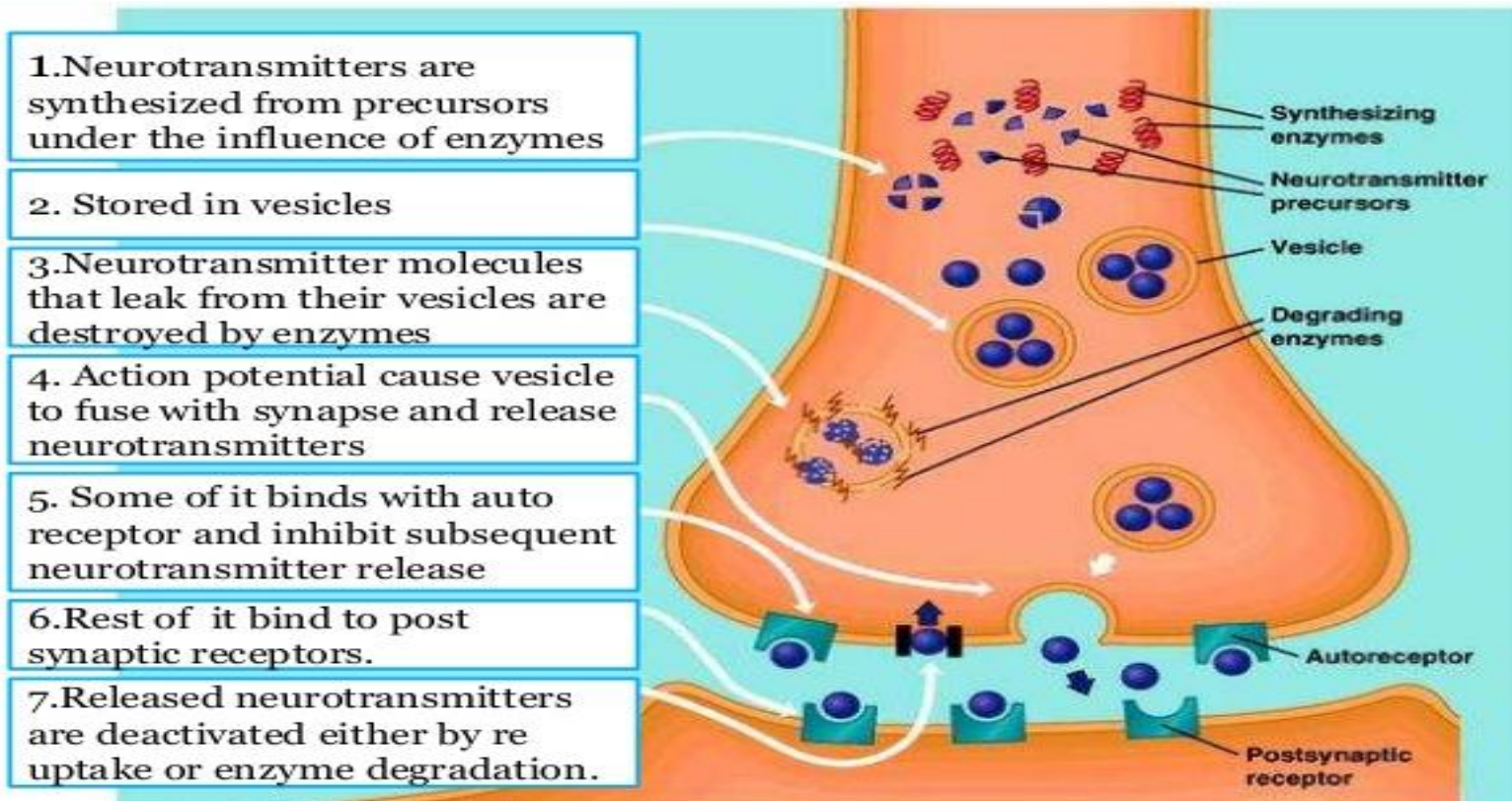


6 Reuptake by the presynaptic neuron, enzymatic degradation, and diffusion reduce neurotransmitter levels, terminating the signal.

Types of synapses



Role of neurotransmitters :



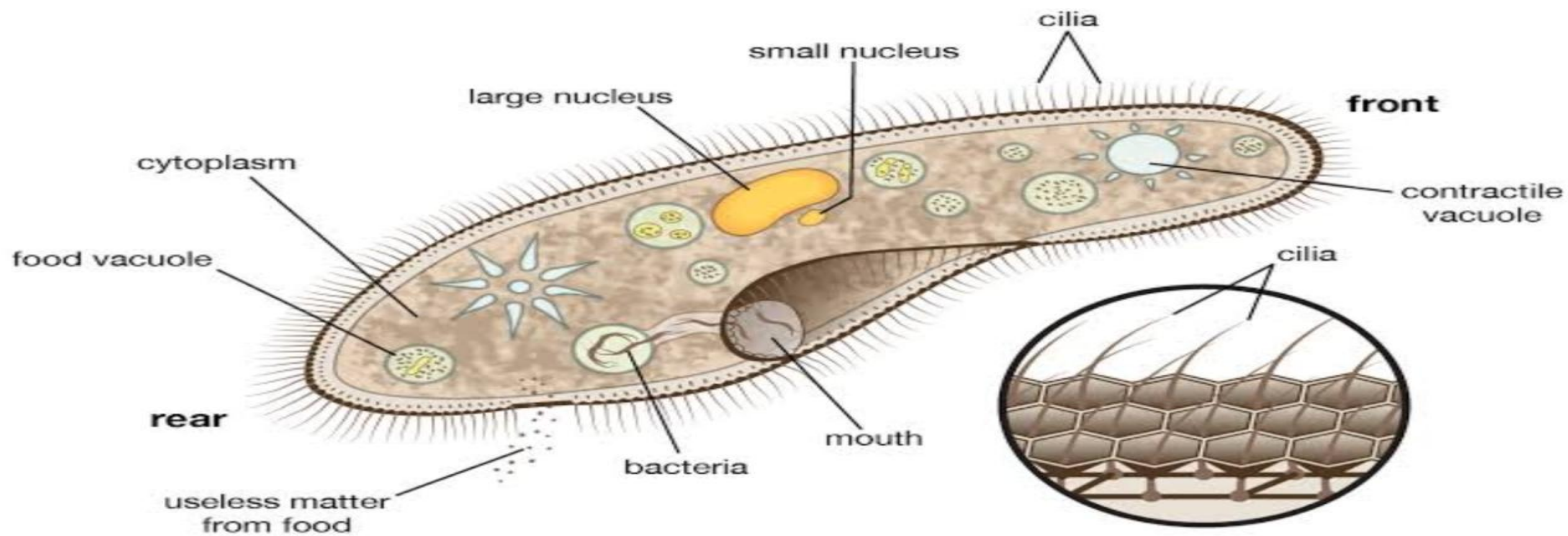
Types of neurotransmitters:

1. Glutamate
2. Oxytocin
3. Epinephrine, Norepinephrine
4. Adenosine triphosphate (ATP)
5. Acetylcholine

<http://neurotransmitters.phytkcgs>

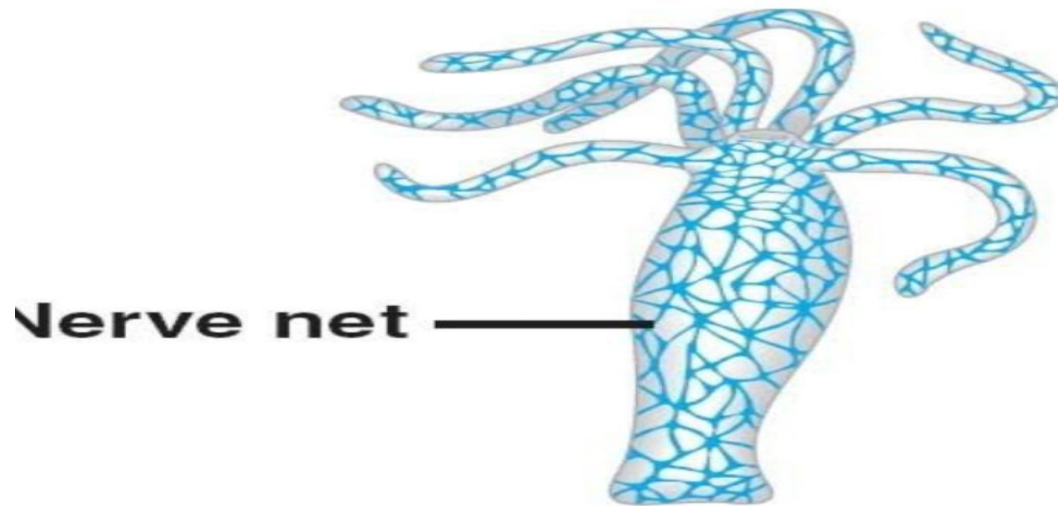
Invertebrate Nervous Systems

- No real nervous system.
- Coordination due to ciliary movements.
- Coordination to external and internal stimuli.

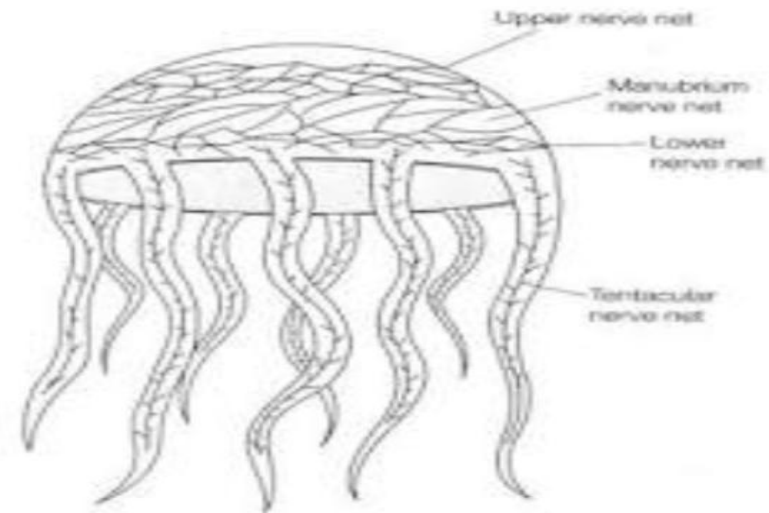


Simplest form of nervous organization

- These animals have a nerve net.
- Latticework that conduct impulse from one area to another.
- Impulse conduction by neuron is bidirectional.
- Involved in slow swimming movements.

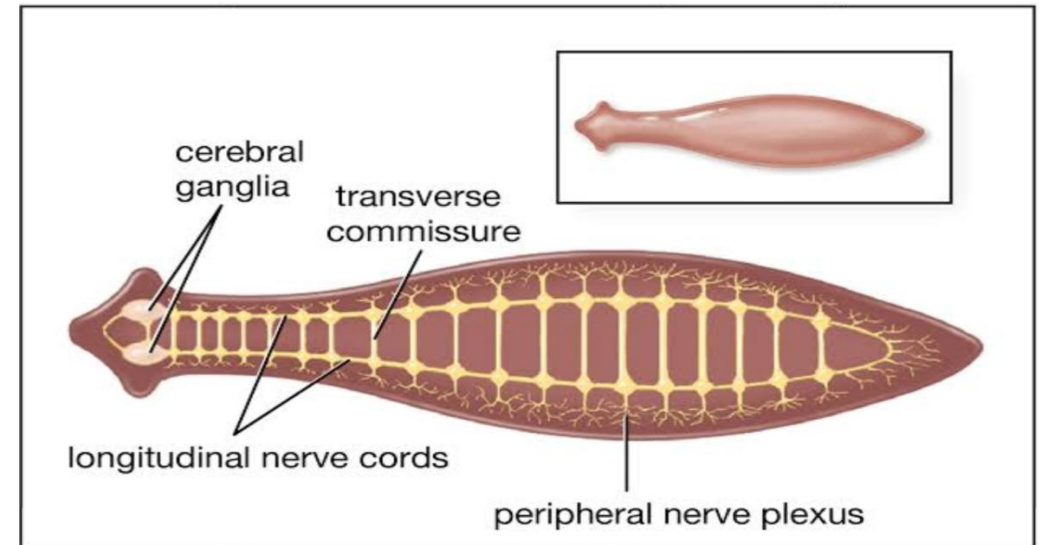


a) Hydra (cnidarian)



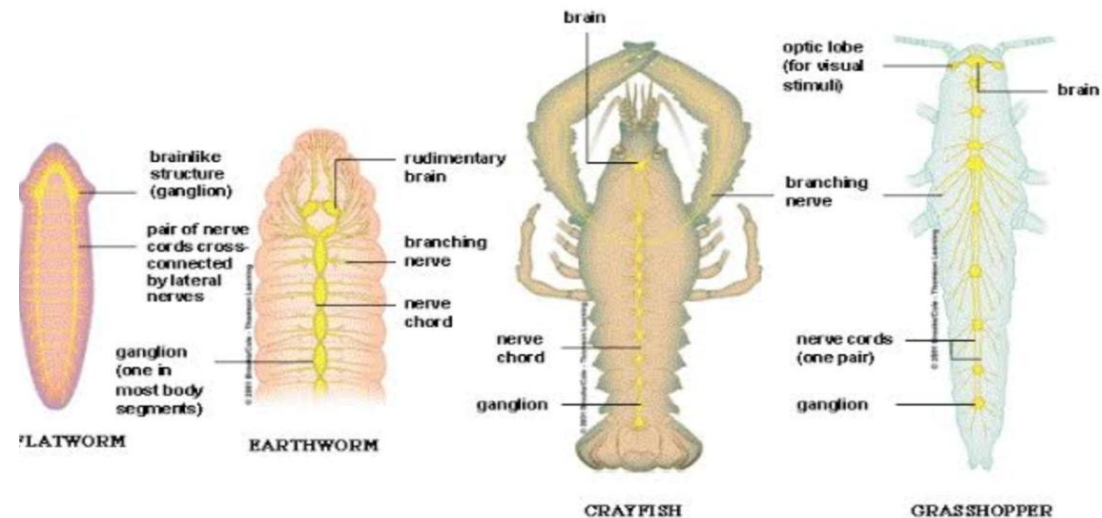
Second trend in nervous organization

- Have sense organs concentrated in the body region.
- Nervous system evolution involves cephalization.
- Concentration of receptors and nervous tissues in animals anterior region.
- Ganglia functions as primitive brain.
- Distinct lateral nerve cords.
- Example: flatworms and roundworms.



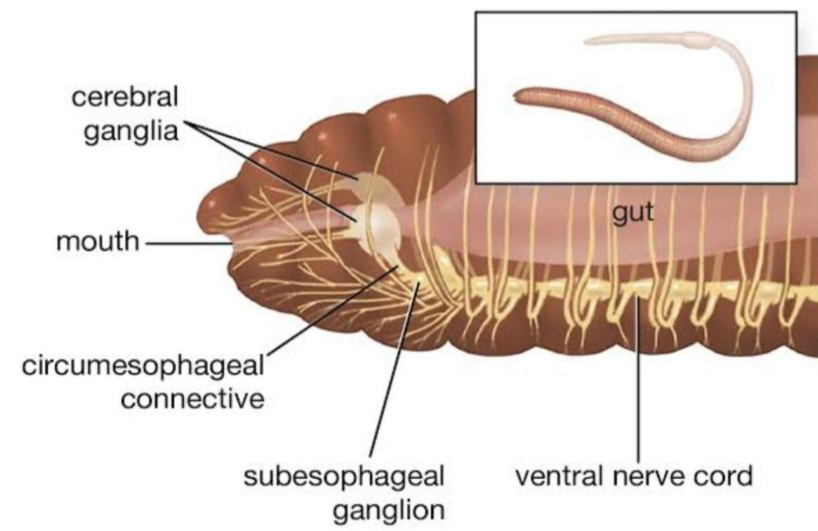
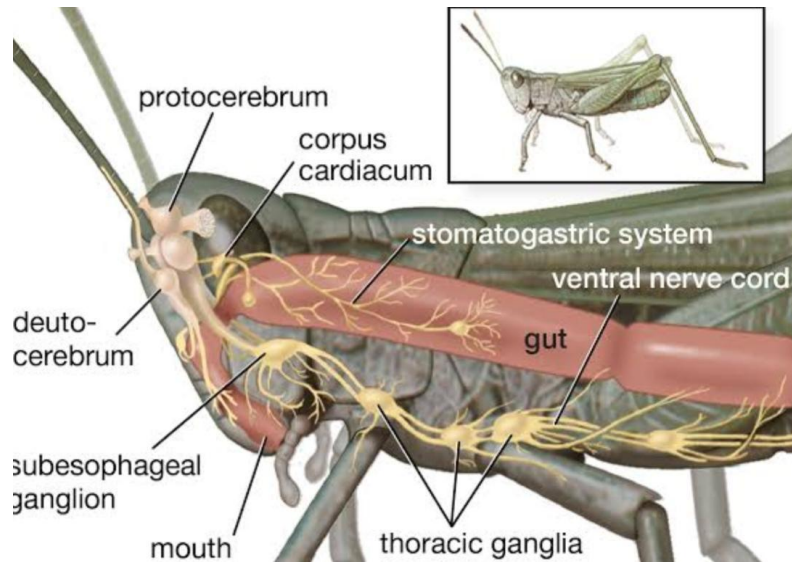
Third trend in nervous organization

- Lateral nerve cords are present.
- Bilateral symmetry have led to paired neurons, sensory structures and brain centers.
- Pairing facilitates ambulatory movements such as climbing, crawling or walking.
- Examples: flatworms



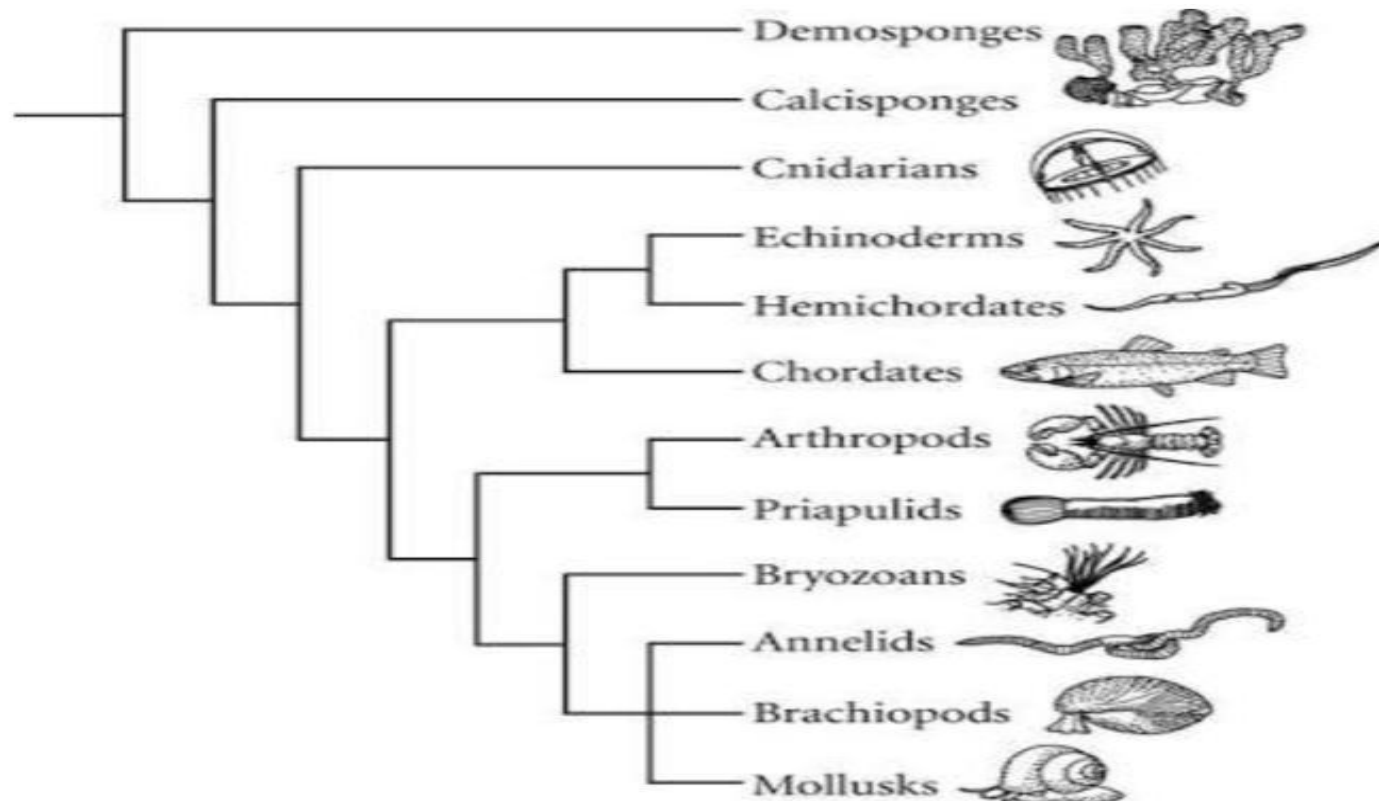
Fourth trend in nervous organization

- Axons join into nerve cords.
- Centralized brain.
- Ganglia can occur in each body segment.
- Ganglia can be scattered throughout the body.
- Example: crustaceans segmented worms and arthropods.



Fifth trend in nervous organization

- It is a consequence of the increasing number of interneurons.
- More complex the animals the more complicated its behaviour.
- More neurons are concentrated in an anterior brain.
- Bilaterally organized ganglia.

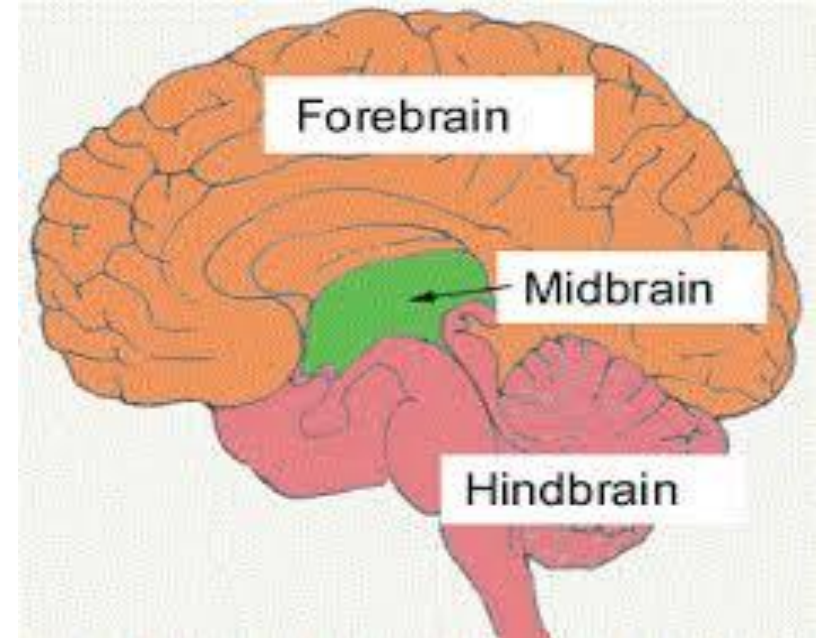


Human brain

- Brain is organ of soft nervous tissue contained in the skull of vertebrates functioning as the coordinating center of the body.

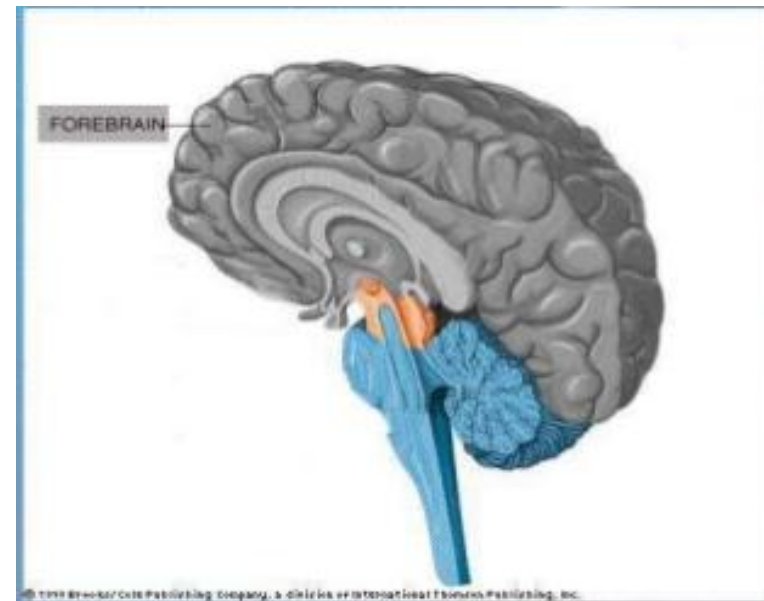
Human brain is divided into 3 main parts.

- Fore brain
- Mid brain
- Hind brain



Fore Brain

- It is the anterior part of the brain.
- It has 3 parts
 1. Thalamus
 2. Hypothalamus
 3. Cerebrum
 4. Pineal and pituitary gland



1. Thalamus:

It relays all sensory information to higher brain center

2. Hypothalamus:

lies below the thalamus and regulate many functions such as

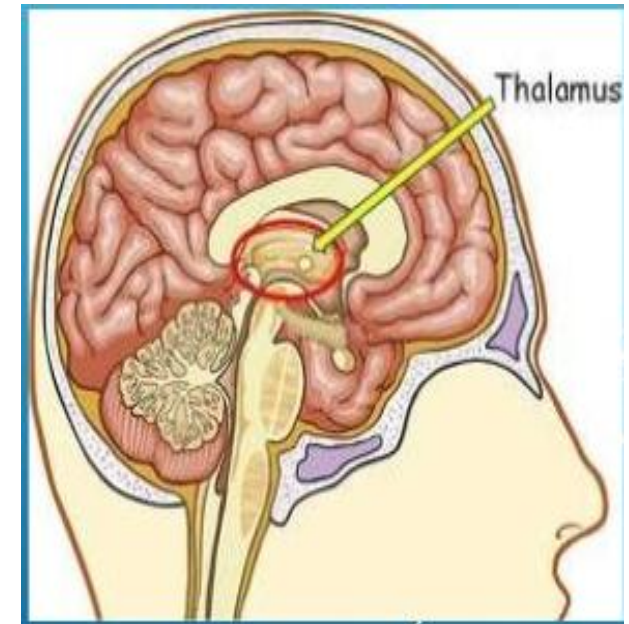
- Body temperature
- Sexual drive Carbohydrate metabolism
- Hunger
- Thirst

3. Pineal glands:

Control body rhythms

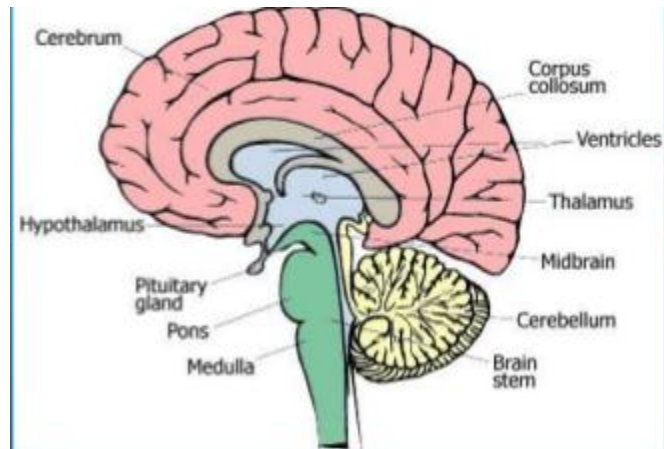
4. Pituitary gland

major endocrine gland



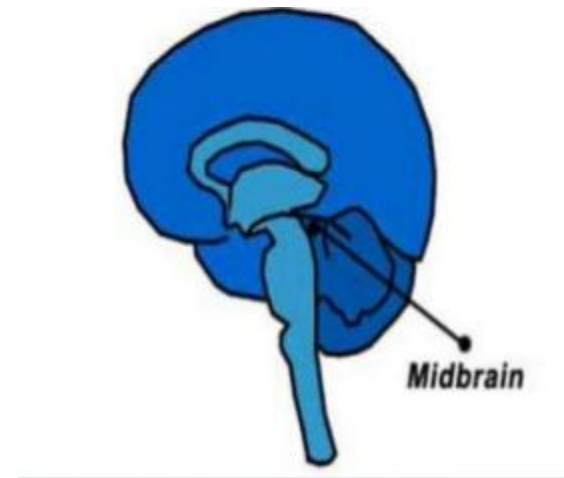
Cerebrum

- The cerebrum is the biggest part of the brain.
- This part we associate with higher brain functions such as thinking and action.
- It contains the cerebral cortex and other subcortical structures.



Mid Brain

- It is located below the cerebral cortex and above hindbrain
- It controls:
- Reflex movement of body
 - Hearing reflexes

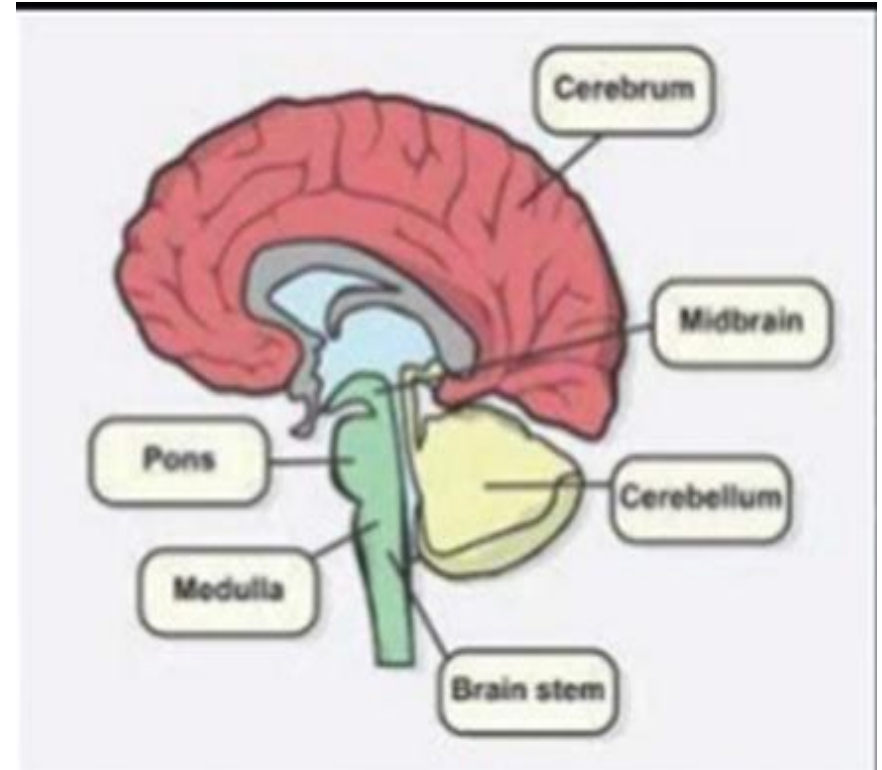


Hind brain

- Located at the backside of brain

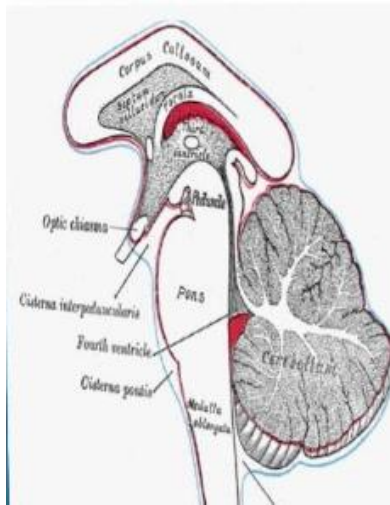
Parts:

- Cerebellum
- Pons
- Medulla oblongata
- **Cerebellum:**
 - Located at back side of head
 - Controls balance of body
 - Voluntary movement of body



Pons:

- Located above medulla
- Controls sleep
- Pattern of breathing



• Medulla oblongata:

- Posterior part of brain

Controls:

- Breathing
- Heart rate
- Swallowing
- Blood circulation

