VIJAYABHERI

MALAPPURAM DISTRICT PANCHAYATH EDUCATIONAL

PROJECT 2021-22

STEP-UP ZOOLOGY

1st Year

(Supporting Material for Higher secondary/VHSE)



വിദ്യാഭ്യാസപരമായി ഏറ്റവും പുറകിൽ നിന്നിരുന്ന മലപ്പുറം ജില്ല കഴിഞ്ഞ കുറച്ചു വർഷങ്ങൾ കൊണ്ടുണ്ടാക്കിയ നേട്ടങ്ങൾ അഭൂതപൂർവമാണ്. എസ്.എസ്.എൽ.സി, പ്ലസ്ടു, വി.എച്ച്.എസ്.ഇ ഫലത്തിന്റെ കാര്യത്തിൽ മാത്രമല്ല എ പ്ലസ്റ്റ് ലഭിച്ച വിദ്യാർത്ഥികളുടെ എണ്ണത്തിലും വിവിധ മത്സരപരീക്ഷകളിലും നമ്മൾ ഏറെ മുന്നേറി. പൊതുവിദ്യാഭ്യാസ സംരക്ഷണത്തിന്റെ കാര്യത്തിൽ മറ്റു ജില്ലകൾക്ക് നമ്മൾമാതൃകയാണ്. മലപ്പുറം ജില്ലാ പഞ്ചായത്ത് ആവിഷ്കരിച്ചു നടപ്പിലാക്കി കൊണ്ടിരിക്കുന്ന വിജയഭേരി വിദ്യാഭ്യാസ പദ്ധതി, തദ്ദേശ സ്വയംഭരണ സ്ഥാപനങ്ങളുടെ ഇടപെടലുകൾ, ജനപ്രതിനിധികൾ, എസ്. എസ്. കെ, ഡയറ്റ്, വിദ്യാഭ്യാസ ഓഫീസർമാർ ഒപ്പം എല്ലാ നല്ല പ്രവർത്തനങ്ങൾക്കും കൂടെ നിൽക്കുന്ന അധ്യാപകർ എന്നിവരാണ് ഈ നേട്ടങ്ങൾക്കു പിന്നിൽ.

നേട്ടങ്ങൾ ആഘോഷിക്കുന്നതിനോടൊപ്പം അടിയന്തിര ശ്രദ്ധ പതിയേണ്ടുന്ന മേഖലകൾ ഇനിയും ഏറെയുണ്ട്. 10-ാം ക്ലാസ്റ്റിൽ നിന്നും വിജയം നേടി പ്ലസ്റ്റ് 1, വി.എച്ച്.എസ്.ഇ ക്ലാസ്റ്റുകളിൽ എത്തുന്ന വിദ്യാർത്ഥികളിൽ നല്ലൊരു ശതമാനം വിദ്യാർത്ഥികൾ ഹയർ സെക്കണ്ടറി സിലബസ് പിന്തുടരുന്നതിന് ഏറെ പ്രയാസം അനുഭവിക്കുന്നവരാണ്. കോവിഡ് കാരണം സ്കൂൾ പ്രവർത്തി ദിനങ്ങൾ നഷ്ടപ്പെട്ടതോടെ ഭൂരിപക്ഷം വിദ്യാർത്ഥികളും പഠന പ്രയാസങ്ങൾ അനുഭവിക്കുന്നു ഈയൊരു പശ്ചാത്തലത്തിൽ പ്ലസ്ടു , വി. എച്ച്. എസ്. ഇ തലത്തിൽ വിവിധ വിഷയങ്ങൾ അനായാസകരമായി പഠിക്കുന്നതിനും എല്ലാ വിദ്യാത്ഥികളും പ്ലസ്ടു, വി. എച്ച്.എസ്.ഇ പരീക്ഷകളിൽ മികച്ച വിജയം ഉറപ്പു വരുത്തുന്നതിനായി സ്റ്റെഷ് - അഷ് 22 എന്ന പേരിൽ പ്രത്യേക മെറ്റീരിയൽ വിജയഭേരി പദ്ധതിയുടെ ഭാഗമായി തയ്യാറാക്കി സ്കൂളുകളിലെത്തിക്കുകയാണ്. തീർച്ചയായും ഈ മെറ്റീരിയൽ അധ്യാപകർക്കും വിദ്യാർത്ഥികൾക്കും ഏറെ സഹായകരമാകുമെന്ന് പ്രതീക്ഷിക്കുന്നു.

ഈ പഠനസഹായി സമയബന്ധിതമായി പൂർത്തീകരിക്കുന്നതിന് നേതൃത്വം നൽകിയ മലപ്പുറം ഡയറ്റ്, ഹയർ സെക്കണ്ടറി ജില്ലാ കോർഡിനേറ്റർ / അസിസ്റ്റന്റ് കോർഡിനേറ്റർ, ശില്പശാലയിൽ പങ്കെടുത്ത അധ്യാപകർ എന്നിവർക്കുള്ള നന്ദിയും കടപ്പാടും പ്രത്യേകം അറിയിക്കുന്നു.

സ്കൂൾതലത്തിൽ അനുയോജ്യമായ സമയം കണ്ടെത്തി രക്ഷിതാക്കളുടെ സഹകര ണത്തോടെ ഈ പഠനപ്രവർത്തനങ്ങൾ വിദ്യാർത്ഥികൾക്ക് നൽകണം. അതിനായി എല്ലാ അധ്യാപകരുടെയും സഹകരണം പ്രതീക്ഷിക്കുന്നു.

പ്രസിഡണ്ട് ചെയർപേഴ്സൺ അസി: ഡയറക്ടർ ആർ.ഡി.ഡി പ്രിൻസിപ്പാൾ ജില്ലാ പഞ്ചായത്ത് ആരോഗ്യ വിദ്യാഭ്യാസ വി.എച്ച്. എസ്.ഇ മലसുറം ഡയറ്റ് മലसുറം സ്ഥിരം സമിതി മലसുറം മലപ്പുറം

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1. LIVING WORLD

PROPERTIES OF LIVING ORGANISMS

- 1. **Growth:** Increase in number & mass of cells by cell division.
- 2. **Reproduction:** Production of progeny having features similar to those of parents.
- 3. **Metabolism:** All biochemical reactions taking place inside a living system.
- 4. **Cellular organization:** Organisms are made up of one or more cells.
- 5. **Consciousness:** Ability to sense their environment and respond to environmental stimuli.

DIVERSITY IN THE LIVING WORLD

Taxonomy: Study of identification, classification & nomenclature of organisms.

Basic processes of taxonomy: Characterization, Identification, Classification & Nomenclature.

Binomial nomenclature: Proposed by Carl Linnaeus.

Botanical names are based on International Code for Botanical Nomenclature (ICBN). Zoological names are based on International Code for Zoological Nomenclature (ICZN).

Universal rules of Binomial nomenclature

- Scientific names are in *Latin* or Latinised and written in *italics*. When handwritten, they are underlined.
- Genus name (**Generic name**) starts with capital letter and species name (**specific epithet**) starts with small letter. E.g. *Homo sapiens- Homo* is the genus name and *sapiens* is the species name.
- Name of the author (in abbreviated form) appears at the end of the biological name. E.g., *Mangifera indica* Linn. (Linn. = Linnaeus).

TAXONOMIC CATEGORIES

Taxonomic category (Rank)	Taxon (E.g.)	
Kingdom	Animalia	
1		
Phylum/Division	Chordata	
\uparrow		
Class	Mammalia	
1		
Order	Primata	 Taxon: A unit of classification. Kingdom: Highest category.
↑		• Species: Lowest category.
Family	Hominidae	
↑		
Genus	Homo	
↑		
Species	sapiens	

Organisms with their taxonomic categories

Common Name	Biological Name	Genus	Family	Order	Class	Phylum/ Division
Man	Homo sapiens	Homo	Hominidae	Primata	Mammalia	Chordata
Housefly	Musca domestica	Musca	Muscidae	Diptera	Insecta	Arthropoda
Mango	Mangifera indica	Mangifera	Anacardiaceae	Sapindales	Dicotyledonae	Angiospermae
Wheat	Triticum aestivum	Triticum	Poaceae	Poales	Monocotyledonae	Angiospermae

TAXONOMICAL AIDS

a. Herbarium: Store house of dried plants on sheets.

b. Botanical gardens: Collection of living plants.

c. Museum: Collection of dead plants and animals.

d. Zoological Parks (Zoos): Live wild animals.

e. Key: Analytical method of identification of organisms.

f. Flora: Account of plant species of a given area.

g. Manuals: Information for identification of names of species found in an area.

h. Monographs: Information on any one taxon.





SLIDES OF THIS CHAPTER







2. ANIMAL KINGDOM

BASIS OF CLASSIFICATION

	• Cellular level: Loose cell aggregates. E.g. Porifera.		
1. Levels of	• Tissue level: Cells to tissues. E.g. Cnidarians and Ctenophores.		
organization	• Organ level: Tissues to organs. E.g. Platyhelminthes to chordates.		
	Organ system level: Organs to organ systems E.g. higher animals.		
2. Body	Asymmetrical: No symmetry. E.g. Most Poriferans, Snails etc.		
symmetry	• Radial symmetry: Body can be cut into 2 equal halves in any plane		
(arrangement of	along central axis. E.g. some Poriferans, Cnidarians, Ctenophores &		
similar parts on	adult Echinoderms.		
either side of	• Bilateral symmetry: Body can be cut into right & left halves in only one		
body)	plane. E.g. Flatworms to Chordata (except adult Echinodermata).		
3. Embryonic • Diploblastic: Ectoderm & endoderm. E.g. Cnidaria & Ctenophora			
	• Triploblastic: Ectoderm, mesoderm & endoderm. E.g. Flatworms to		
layers	Chordata.		
4. Coelom	Acoelomate: No coelom. E.g. Porifera to Platyhelminthes.		
(cavity b/w body	Pseudocoelomate: False coelom. E.g. Aschelminthes.		
wall & gut wall)	Coelomate: True coelom. E.g. Annelida to Chordata.		
5. Metamerism	Segmentation. E.g. Annelids (earthworm etc.), Arthropods.		
6. Notochord	Mesodermally derived rod on the dorsal side of embryo. Only in Chordata.		

GENERAL CHARACTERS OF DIFFERENT PHYLA

Phyla	Unique features & Examples	
Porifera (Sponges)	Water canal system (water → ostia → spongocoel → osculum). Spongocoel & canals are lined with choanocytes (collar cells). Body is supported by spicules and spongin fibres. Examples: Sycon (Scypha), Spongilla (fresh water sponge), Euspongia (Bath sponge).	
Cnidaria (Coelenterata)	Tentacles with cnidoblasts (stinging cells). Gastro-vascular cavity (coelenteron) with mouth on hypostome. Polyp & Medusa forms. Some shows alternation of generation (metagenesis). Examples: Hydra, Obelia, Aurelia, Physalia (Portuguese man of war), Adamsia (Sea-anemone).	
Ctenophora (Comb jellies)	Locomotion is by ciliated comb plates . Shows Bioluminescence (ability to emit light). Examples: Ctenoplana, Pleurobrachia	
Platyhelminthes (Flatworms)	Unsegmented, dorso-ventrally flattened body. Excretion by Flame cells. Parasites have Hooks & suckers. Examples: Taenia solium (Tape worm), Fasciola (Liver fluke), Planaria.	

Phyla	Unique features & Examples	
Aschelminthes (Roundworms) Pseudocoelomate. Body is circular in cross section. An excretory tube remove waste through excretory pore. Sexual dimorphism (females a than males). Examples: Ascaris (Roundworm), Ancylostoma (Hookworm), Wuche (Filarial worm).		
Annelida (Segmented or Ringed worms)		
Arthropoda (Joint-legged animals)	Jointed appendages. Body has 3 regions: head, thorax & abdomen. Body is covered by chitinous cuticle (exoskeleton). Excretion by Malpighian tubules. Examples: Economically important insects: Apis, Bombyx, Laccifer. Vectors: Mosquitoes, Housefly. Gregarious pest: Locusta. Living fossil: Limulus (King crab)	
Mollusca (Soft-bodied animals)	Body has head, visceral mass & muscular foot. Head has sensory tentacles. Calcareous shell. Feather-like gills for respiration & excretion. Mantle & radula (rasping organ) are seen. Examples: Pila (Apple Snail), Pinctada (Pearl Oyster), Sepia (Cuttlefish), Loligo (Squid), Octopus (Devil fish). Adults radial. Larvae bilateral. Endoskeleton of calcareous ossicles (Spiny bodied).	
Echinodermata (Spiny-skinned animals)	Water vascular system present. Excretory system absent. Examples: Asterias (Starfish), Echinus (Sea Urchin), Echinocardium, Antedon (Sea Lily), Cucumaria (Sea Cucumber), Ophiura (Brittle Star).	
Hemichordata	Body is formed of proboscis , collar & trunk . Collar bears stomochord . Excretion by Proboscis gland . Examples: Balanoglossus (Tongue worm), Saccoglossus	

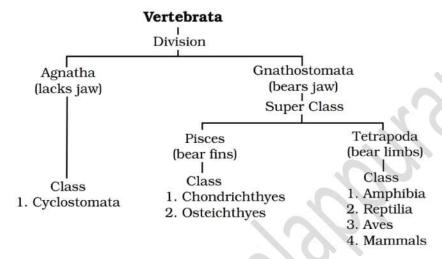
PHYLUM CHORDATA

Differences between Chordata &	Chordata	Non-Chordata
Non-Chordata	1. Notochord	Absent
Nerve cord Notochord	2. Central nervous system is dorsal.	Ventral
	3. Pharyngeal gill slits	Absent
Post-anal part	4. A post-anal part (tail)	Absent
Gill slits	5. Ventral heart	Dorsal heart

Phylum Chordata is classified into 3 subphyla: Urochordata, Cephalochordata & Vertebrata.

UROCHORDATA	CEPHALOCHORDATA	VERTEBRATA
• Notochord present only	• Notochord from head to tail	• Notochord in embryo.
in larval tail.	region and is persistent	• It is replaced by cartilaginous
• E.g. Ascidia, Salpa,	throughout life.	or bony vertebral column.
Doliolum.	• E.g. Branchiostoma	• Paired appendages (fins or
	(Amphioxus or Lancelet).	limbs).

CLASSIFICATION OF VERTEBRATA



CLASS CYCLOSTOMATA

- All are *ectoparasites* on some fishes.
- Elongated body without scales and paired fins.
- Sucking and circular mouth without jaws.
- Cartilaginous cranium and vertebral column.
- Marine, but migrate for *spawning* to fresh water.
- E.g. *Petromyzon* (Lamprey) and *Myxine* (Hagfish).

SUPERCLASS PISCES (FISHES)

Class Chondricthyes (Cartilaginous fishes)	Class Osteichthyes (Bony fishes)
Cartilaginous endoskeleton.	Bony endoskeleton.
Ventral mouth.	Terminal mouth.
Gill slits without operculum.	Gills covered by operculum.
Skin with placoid scales.	Scales are Cycloid, ctenoid etc.
No air bladder. So, needs to swim to avoid sinking.	Air bladder for buoyancy.
In males, pelvic fins bear claspers . Internal fertilization. Many are viviparous .	External fertilisation. Mostly oviparous.
Examples: Scoliodon (Dogfish), Pristis (Saw fish), Carcharodon (Great white shark), Trygon (Sting ray), Torpedo (Electric ray).	Examples: Marine: Exocoetus (flying fish), Hippocampus (seahorse). Fresh water: Labeo (Rohu), Catla (Katla), Clarias (Magur). Aquarium: Betta (Fighting fish), Pterophyllum (Angel fish).

SUPERCLASS TETRAPODA

Class Amphibia	Class Reptilia	Class Aves (Birds)	Class Mammalia
Live in aquatic &	Dry & cornified skin,	Feathers, beak &	Mammary glands.
terrestrial habitats.	epidermal scales or	wings.	Skin with <i>hair</i> . Teeth
Need water for	scutes.	Dry skin without	different types.
breeding. Moist skin	Crawling locomotion.	glands except oil	Viviparous.
without scales.	Cold-blooded.	gland at tail base.	Warm-blooded.
Cloaca.	Examples:	Hind limbs have	Examples:
Cold-blooded.	Chelone, Testudo,	scales.	Ornithorhynchus,
Examples:	Chameleon, Calotes,	Pneumatic bones.	Macropus, Pteropus,
Bufo, Rana, Hyla,	Crocodilus, Alligator,	Digestive tract has	Camelus, Macaca,
Salamandra,	Hemidactylus, Naja,	crop & gizzard.	Rattus, Canis, Felis,
Ichthyophis (Limbless	Bangarus, Vipera.	Warm-blooded.	Elephas, Equus.
amphibia).		Examples: Corvus,	
		Columba, Psittacula,	
		Struthio.	





SLIDES OF THIS CHAPTER



QUESTION BANK

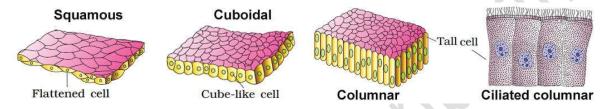


3. STRUCTURAL ORGANISATION IN ANIMALS

ANIMAL TISSUES (Epithelial, Connective, Muscle & Neural Tissues)

1. Epithelial tissues (Epithelium)

	Types	Location	Function
a. Simple	Squamous	Walls of blood vessels & alveoli.	Diffusion.
(single	Cubical (cuboidal)	Ducts of glands and nephrons.	Secretion & absorption
layered) Columnar		Lining of stomach and intestine.	Secretion & absorption
b. Compour	nd (Multi-layered)	Skin, buccal cavity, pharynx etc.	Protection.



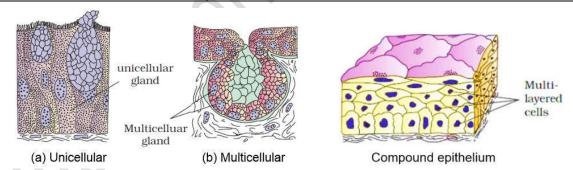
Modification of columnar or cuboidal cells Ciliated epithelium Glandular epithelium: For secretion.

- Bear cilia.
- Seen in bronchioles & fallopian tubes.
- **Function:** move substances over epithelium.

2 types: **Unicellular** (E.g. Goblet cells) & **Multicellular** (E.g. salivary glands).

Based on mode of secretion, glands are 2 types:

- Exocrine glands: have ducts. E.g. Salivary gland.
- Endocrine glands: Ductless. Produce hormones.



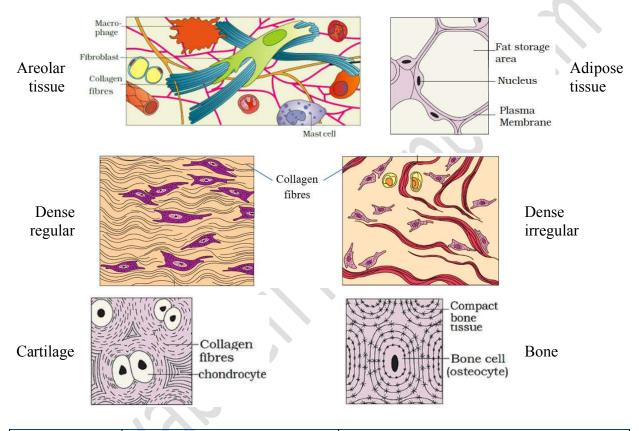
Cell junctions: The junctions that provide link between adjacent cells. 3 types:

- a. Tight junction: Stop substances from leaking across a tissue.
- **b.** Adhering junction: Perform cementing to keep neighbouring cells together.
- **c. Gap junction:** For communication b/w adjoining cells by connecting cytoplasm for rapid transfer of ions, molecules etc.

2. Connective tissues

Types		Location/ Features/ Function
Loose CT	Areolar	Under skin. Support for epithelium.
Loosely packed Fibres and fibroblasts.	Adipose	Under skin. Its cells (adipocytes) store fats.

Dense CT Compactly packed Fibres and fibroblasts.	Dense regular (Tendon & Ligament)	Collagen fibres are regular. Tendon: Attach muscles to bones. Ligament: Attach bone to bone.	
Tibles and holoblasts.	Dense irregular	Fibroblasts & fibres are irregular. Present in skin.	
	Cartilage	Pliable due to <i>chondroitin salts</i> . Cartilage cells → chondrocytes .	
Specialized CT	Bone	Non-pliable. Rich in calcium salts. Bone cells → osteocytes. Function: Protection, support, locomotion.	
	Blood	Fluid CT. Circulation.	



	Skeletal (striated or voluntary)	Attached to bones. Striations present.	
	Visceral (Non-striated/ smooth)	Involuntary & fusiform. No striations.	
3. Muscle		Found in blood vessels, stomach, intestine.	
tissues		Involuntary. Seen in heart.	
	Cardiac	Communication junctions (intercalated	
		discs).	

Muscle tissues:

a. Skeletal
b. Smooth
c. Cardiac

Striations

Striations

Nucleus

Nucleus

Nucleus

Nucleus

4. Neural tissue: Neural system. Made up of neurons & Neuroglia.

MORPHOLOGY OF COCKROACH (Periplaneta americana)

Chitinous exoskeleton (cuticle).

Body has 3 regions – **head, thorax** and **abdomen.**

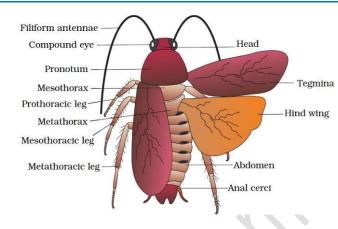
• **Head:** Antennae, compound eyes. Biting & chewing mouth parts.

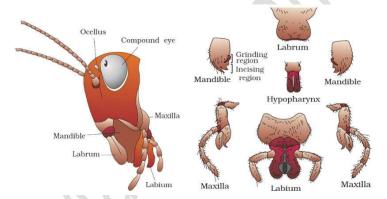
Mouthparts: labrum (upper lip), 2 mandibles, 2 maxillae, hypopharynx (tongue) & a labium (lower lip).

• Thorax: 3 parts: prothorax, mesothorax & metathorax.

2 pairs of wings:

- Forewings (mesothoracic) or tegmina: Opaque, dark.
- Hind wings (metathoracic):
 Transparent, used in flight.
- **Abdomen:** 10 segments.





Mouth parts

Differences between male & female cockroaches (Sexual dimorphism)

Male	Female
i. Wings beyond the tip of the abdomen.	Wings up to the tip of abdomen.
ii. Anal styles present	Absent

ANATOMY OF COCKROACH

<u>Digestive system:</u> Alimentary canal has 3 parts: **foregut, mid gut & hindgut.**

- Foregut: Mouth → pharynx →
 oesophagus → crop (to store food)
 → gizzard (proventriculus- for
 grinding food).
- Mid gut (Mesenteron): 6-8 tubules (hepatic or gastric caecae) are seen at the junction of foregut & mid gut. They secrete digestive juice.
- Salivary gland Anterior aorta Salivary Alary muscles Oesophagus Crop Gizzard Hepatic Mesentron Chambers or midgut of heart Malpighian tubules Ileum

• Hindgut: It includes ileum, colon & rectum.

Excretory system: Uricotelic. Excretory organ is Malpighian tubules.

<u>Respiratory system:</u> Trachea with 10 pairs spiracles. Branches of tracheal tubes are tracheoles. They carry oxygen from the air to all parts.

Circulatory system: Open type.

Haemolymph (blood)= colourless plasma + haemocytes.

Blood from sinuses (haemocoel) \rightarrow ostia \rightarrow heart \rightarrow anterior aorta \rightarrow sinuses.

Nervous system: 3 ganglia in thorax and 6 in the abdomen.

- The head holds only a bit of nervous system. So, if the head of cockroach is cut off, it will still live for one week.
- Supra-oesophageal ganglion (brain).
- Sense organs: Antennae, eyes, maxillary palps, labial palps, anal cerci etc.
- Each compound eye has 2000 **ommatidia**. Cockroach can receive several images of an object (**mosaic vision**).

Reproductive system

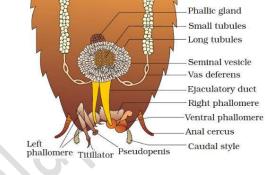
<u>Male reproductive system:</u> 2 testes, seminal vesicles, accessory glands & external genitalia (male gonapophysis or phallomeres).

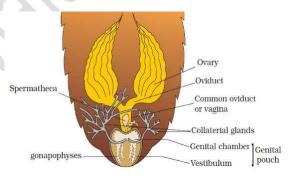
Testis \rightarrow vas deferens \rightarrow seminal vesicle \rightarrow ejaculatory duct \rightarrow male gonopore.

- Seminal vesicles: To store sperms. Sperms → spermatophores.
- Accessory glands: mushroom gland & phallic gland. They nourish the sperms.

<u>Female reproductive system:</u> 2 large ovaries, oviducts, spermatheca, genital chamber, Colleterial glands etc.

- Each ovary has 8 ovarian tubules (ovarioles) containing developing ova.
- Oviducts unite into a median oviduct (vagina)
 → genital chamber.
- A pair of **spermatheca** is present. Fertilised eggs are encased in **oothecae**.





Development is paurometabolous (nymphal stage- 13 times moulting).













4. BIOMOLECULES

BIOMICROMOLECULES (BIOMOLECULES)

Molecular weight: 18 to 800 Dalton (Da). Include amino acids, sugars, nitrogen bases, lipids etc.

1. AMINO ACIDS

- Acidic amino acids: e.g. Glutamic acid, Aspartic acid.
- COOH COOH COOH $H-C-NH_2 H-C-NH_2 H-C-$

Alanine

Serine

- Basic amino acids: e.g. Lysine, Arginine.
- Neutral amino acids: e.g. Valine.

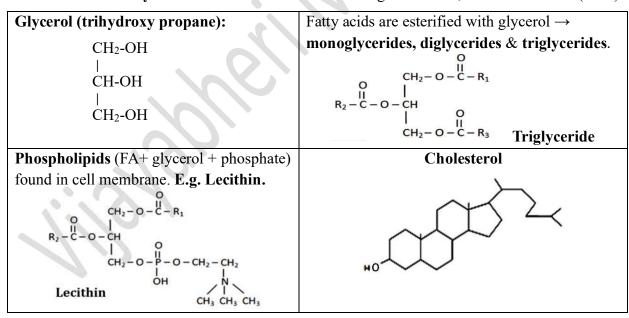
If both –NH₂ & –COOH are ionized, it is called **Zwitterion**.

$$H_{3}^{\dagger}N-CH-COOH \rightleftharpoons H_{3}^{\dagger}N-CH-COO \rightleftharpoons H_{2}N-CH-COO$$
Zwitterionic form

2. LIPIDS

E.g. Fatty acids (R-COOH).

- Saturated fatty acids: No double bond b/w carbon atoms. E.g. Palmitic acid (CH₃ (CH₂)₁₄ COOH), Stearic acid.
- Unsaturated Fatty acids: One or more C=C bonds. E.g. Oleic acid, Arachidonic acid (20 C).



3. SUGARS (CARBOHYDRATES)

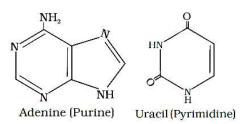
4. NITROGEN BASES

a. Purines: Adenine (A) & Guanine (G).

b. Pyrimidines: Cytosine (C), Thymine (T) & Uracil (U).

Nitrogen base + Sugar → Nucleoside

E.g. Adenosine, Guanosine, Cytidine, Thymidine, Uridine.



N. base + Sugar + Phosphate \rightarrow Nucleotide

E.g. Adenylic acid,

Guanylic acid,

Cytidylic acid,

Thymidylic acid,

Uridylic acid.

Adenosine (A + Sugar)

Uridine (U + Sugar)

Adenylic acid

BIOMACROMOLECULES (MACROMOLECULES)

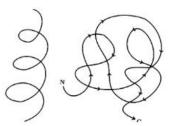
1. PROTEINS

They are heteropolymer of amino acids to form polypeptides. i.e., amino acids linked by **peptide bonds.**

Structural levels of protein

- o **Primary structure:** Sequence of amino acids, i.e. the positional information in a protein.
- o Secondary structure: Polypeptide folded as helix.
- o **Tertiary structure:** Helical polypeptide chain is further folded giving 3-D view.
- Quaternary structure: Assembly of 2 or more polypeptide or subunits. E.g. Haemoglobin.

Secondary structure



Tertiary structure

Functions of proteins:

- o For growth and tissue repair.
- o Transport nutrients across cell membranes. E.g. GLUT-4.
- o Acts as intercellular ground substance. E.g. collagen.
- o Acts as antibodies, receptors, hormones, enzymes, pigments etc.

Most abundant protein in animal world: **Collagen** Most abundant protein in biosphere: **RuBisCO**

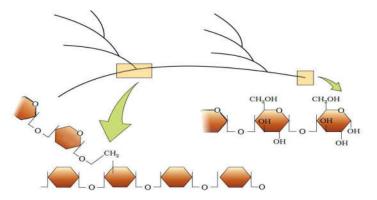
2. POLYSACCHARIDES (COMPLEX CARBOHYDRATES)

Polymers of sugars (monosaccharides). E.g.

- Starch, Cellulose, Glycogen: Homopolymers of glucose
- **Inulin:** Homopolymer of fructose.
- Chitin: Homopolymer of N-acetyl glucosamine.

Glycosidic bond: Formed b/w monosaccharides.

Diagrammatic representation of glycogen



3. NUCLEIC ACIDS (DNA & RNA)

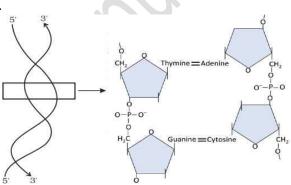
Heteropolymer of nucleotides. i.e. polynucleotide.

Structure of DNA (Watson - Crick Double Helix Model)

- 2 **polynucleotide strands** arranged antiparallelly.
- Steps are formed of Nitrogen base pairs.
- Nitrogen bases: A, G, C & T. Uracil absent.
- A pairs with T (A=T) by 2 hydrogen bonds.
 G pairs with C (G=C) by 3 hydrogen bonds.

Bond b/w sugar (deoxyribose) and phosphate is

phosphodiester bond.



METABOLISM

Anabolic (Biosynthetic) pathway	Catabolic pathway	
Simple molecules \rightarrow complex structures.	Complex molecules → simple structures.	
It consumes energy.	It releases energy (stored as ATP - energy currency)	
E.g. acetic acid → cholesterol, Amino acids → protein.	E.g. glycolysis, respiration etc.	

Metabolites (intermediate products of metabolism).

- **Primary metabolites:** Have identifiable functions in physiological processes. E.g. amino acids, sugars, nucleic acids, lipids, vitamins etc.
- Secondary metabolites: They are not directly involved in growth, development or reproduction. E.g. Pigments (Carotenoids, Anthocyanins etc.), Alkaloids (Morphine, Codeine), Terpenoids, Essential oils (Lemongrass oil etc.), Drugs (Vinblastine, curcumin etc.), Polymers (Rubber, gums, cellulose etc.).

ENZYMES (Biological catalysts)

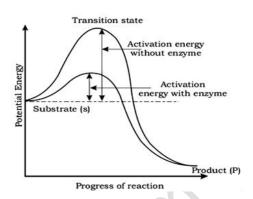
Almost all enzymes are proteins. Carbonic anhydrase is the fastest enzyme.

Ribozymes: Nucleic acids (RNA) that behave like enzymes.

Nature of enzyme action (catalytic cycle): $E + S \rightarrow ES \rightarrow EP \rightarrow E + P$

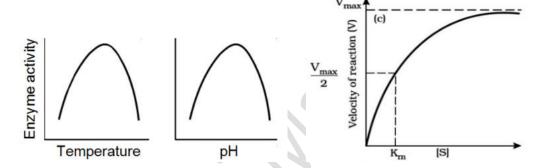
- The substrate binds to the active site of enzyme (E+S).
- Formation of enzyme- substrate complex (ES).
- Formation of enzyme- product complex (EP).
- Release of the products from enzyme (E+P).

Activation energy is the additional energy to start a chemical reaction. Enzymes lower the activation energy. As a result, speed of the reaction increases.



Factors affecting enzyme activity

a) Temperature & pH: Enzymes show highest activity at optimum temperature & pH. Activity declines below and above optimum value.



- **b)** Concentration of substrate: With the increase in substrate concentration, the velocity of enzyme action rises at first and reaches a *maximum velocity (Vmax)*. This is not exceeded by further rise in concentration because enzyme molecules are fewer than the substrate molecules.
- **c) Presence of Inhibitor:** Binding of inhibitor shuts off enzyme activity. The inhibitor closely similar to the substrate is called **competitive inhibitor.** It competes with substrate for the binding site of the enzyme.

E.g. Malonate is similar to the substrate succinate. So, it inhibits succinic dehydrogenase.

Classification and nomenclature of enzymes

Oxido-reductases	Catalyze oxido-reduction b/w two substrates.	
/ Dehydrogenases	S reduced + S' oxidized → S oxidized + S' reduced	
Transferases	Catalyze transfer of a group. S-G + S' \rightarrow S'-G + S	
Hydrolases	Catalyze hydrolysis of ester, ether, peptide, glycosidic, C-C, C-halide or P-N bonds.	
Lyases	Catalyze removal of groups leaving double bonds. X-C-C-Y \rightarrow X-Y + C=C	
Isomerases	Catalyze inter-conversion of optical geometric or positional isomers.	
Ligases	Catalyze the linking of 2 compounds together (joining of bonds like C-O, C-S, C-N, P-O etc.).	

Co-factors

- Non-protein component bound to enzyme to make the enzyme catalytically active.
- Apo-enzyme: Protein portion of enzyme.
- Co-factor + Apoenzyme = Holoenzyme.
- Co-factors are 3 types:

Prosthetic group	Organic. Tightly bound to apoenzyme. E.g. Haem.	
Co-enzymes	Organic. Transient binding to apoenzyme. Many co-enzymes contain vitamins. E.g. NAD and NADP contain niacin.	
Metal ions	E.g. Zn is a cofactor for <i>Carboxypeptidase</i> .	













5. DIGESTION AND ABSORPTION

Alimentary canal:

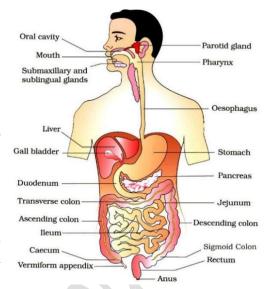
Mouth → Buccal cavity → Pharynx → Oesophagus →
Stomach (cardiac → fundic → body → pyloric) →
Small intestine (Duodenum → Jejunum → Ileum) →
Large intestine (Caecum → Colon → Rectum) → Anus.

Gastro-oesophageal sphincter: Between oesophagus stomach.

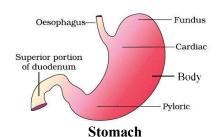
Pyloric sphincter: Between Stomach & small intestine. **Anal sphincter:** Guards anus.

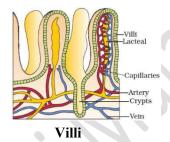
Rugae: longitudinal folds in stomach wall.

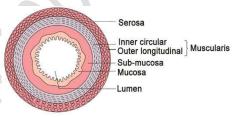
Villi: Finger-like structures at the mucosa of small intestine. It has capillary network and **lacteal** (lymph vessel)



Vermiform appendix: finger-like structure arising from the caecum.







Transverse section of human gut

Human dentition is Thecodont, Heterodont & Diphyodont.

- **Thecodont:** teeth are placed in the jaw sockets.
- Heterodont: different kinds of teeth incisors (I), canines (C), premolars (PM) & molars (M).
- Diphyodont: teeth appear twice in lifetime milk (deciduous) teeth (20) and permanent teeth (32).

Human dental formula (of permanent teeth): $\frac{2123}{2123}$

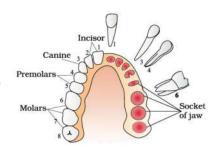
Digestive glands

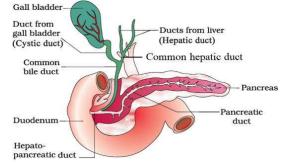
- 1. Salivary glands: Parotids, Submaxillary & Sublingual → Saliva
- 2. Gastric glands: Secretes Gastric juice.
 - Mucus neck cells: Secrete mucus.
 - Chief (peptic) cells: Secrete pepsinogen & prorennin.
 - Oxyntic (parietal) cells: Secrete HCl & intrinsic factor.
- **3. Liver:** Secretes Bile juice. Bile is transported from liver to duodenum as follows:

Bile \rightarrow hepatic duct \rightarrow gallbladder \rightarrow cystic duct \rightarrow common bile duct \rightarrow common hepato-pancreatic duct \rightarrow duodenum.

Hepato-pancreatic duct is guarded by *sphincter* of *Oddi*.

- 4. Pancreas: Secretes Pancreatic juice.
- **5. Intestinal glands:** Secretes intestinal juice (Succus entericus).





Digestive glands & Juice	Digestive enzymes/ components	Role in digestion	
 Salivary glands → Saliva Site of action: Buccal cavity 	Salivary amylase (Ptyalin) & Lysozyme.	Starch $\xrightarrow{Salivary \ amylase}$ Maltose	
2. Gastric glands → Gastric juiceSite of action: Stomach	Pepsinogen Rennin Gastric lipase	Pepsinogen (inactive) Pepsin (active) Protein Proteoses + Peptones (peptides) Rennin digests milk protein in infants. Chyme: Acidic pasty food formed in stomach.	
 Liver → Bile Site of action: Small intestine 	No enzyme. Bile pigments, Bile salts, Phospholipids Cholesterol	Emulsification of fats (<i>fat</i> → <i>micelles</i>). It increases surface area for the action of <i>lipase</i> . Bile also activates <i>lipase</i> .	
 4. Pancreas → Pancreatic juice Site of action: Small intestine 	Trypsinogen Chymotrypsinogen Procarboxypeptidase Pancreatic amylase Pancreatic lipase Nucleases	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	
 5. Intestinal glands → Intestinal juice Site of action: Small intestine 	Dipeptidase Maltase Lactase Sucrase Lipase Nucleotidase Nucleosidase	Dipeptides Maltose Lactose Lactose Sucrose Nucleotides Nucleosides Nucleosides Dipeptidase Amino acids 2 Glucose Glucose + Galactose Glucose + Fructose Nucleosides Nucleosides Nucleosides Sugars + Bases Di- & monoglycerides Lipases Fatty acid + Glycerol	

ABSORPTION OF DIGESTED PRODUCTS

Absorption is 2 types- passive and active.

a) Passive absorption (Passive transport):

Higher concentrated region to lower concentrated region. It includes **osmosis** & **diffusion**. Diffusion is 2 types:

- i. Simple diffusion: E.g. glucose, amino acids, Cl.
- ii. Facilitated diffusion: Diffusion with the help of carrier proteins. E.g. glucose, amino acids.

b) Active absorption (Active transport):

Absorption against concentration gradient. E.g. absorption of *amino acids, monosaccharides* like *glucose*, electrolytes like Na⁺ etc.

Absorption of lipids:

Bile salts & phospholipids convert lipids to water-soluble droplets *(micelles)* \rightarrow small protein coated fat globules *(chylomicrons)* \rightarrow transported into *lacteals* in the villi \rightarrow lymph \rightarrow blood.

Absorption in different parts of alimentary canal:

- Mouth: Certain drugs.
- Stomach: Water, simple sugars, some drugs & alcohol.
- **Small intestine:** All nutrients. It is the *chief area of absorption* due to villi, its length and coiled nature.
- Large intestine: Water, some minerals & drugs.

Absorbed nutrients are incorporated into tissues (assimilation).

Undigested substances form faeces. It enters caecum through ileo-caecal valve.

DISORDERS OF DIGESTIVE SYSTEM

- **1. Jaundice:** Skin and eye turns yellow due to the deposition of bile pigments. It indicates liver damage.
- **2. Vomiting:** Ejection of stomach content through mouth.
- 3. Diarrhoea: Frequent elimination of watery faeces. It reduces the absorption of food.
- **4. Constipation:** Infrequent elimination of dry stool. It is due to decreased peristalsis in colon.
- **5. Indigestion:** Condition leading to feeling of fullness due to improper digestion.





SLIDES OF THIS CHAPTER



QUESTION
BANK



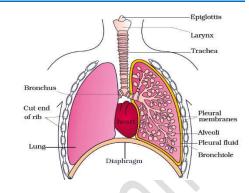
6. BREATHING AND EXCHANGE OF GASES

HUMAN RESPIRATORY SYSTEM

1. Air passages

External nostrils \rightarrow nasal passage \rightarrow nasal chamber \rightarrow pharynx \rightarrow glottis \rightarrow larynx \rightarrow trachea \rightarrow primary bronchi \rightarrow secondary bronchi \rightarrow tertiary bronchi \rightarrow bronchioles \rightarrow terminal bronchioles \rightarrow alveoli.

Epiglottis closes *glottis* to prevent entry of food into larynx.

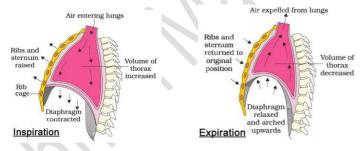


2. Lungs

- Lungs are covered by double-layered *pleura*.
- Alveoli (air sacs) are the structural and functional units of lungs.

MECHANISM OF BREATHING

- a) Inspiration: Diaphragm & External intercostal muscles contract → thoracic volume increases → pulmonary volume increases → *intra-pulmonary pressure* decreases → air into lungs.
- b) Expiration: Intercostal muscles & diaphragm relax \rightarrow thoracic volume decreases \rightarrow pulmonary volume decreases \rightarrow intra-pulmonary pressure increases \rightarrow air moves out.



Spirometer: To measure respiratory rate.

Normal respiratory (breathing) rate: 12-16 times/min

Respiratory volumes/capacities	Amount (ml)
Tidal volume (TV): Volume of air inspired or expired during a normal respiration.	500
Inspiratory reserve volume (IRV): Additional volume of air that can inspire by forceful inspiration.	2500-3000
Expiratory reserve volume (ERV): Additional volume of air that can expire by a forceful expiration.	1000-1100
Residual volume (RV): Volume of air remaining in lungs after a forcible expiration.	1100-1200
Inspiratory capacity (IC): Total volume of air inspired after a normal expiration (TV+IRV).	3000-3500
Expiratory capacity (EC): Total volume of air expired after a normal inspiration (TV+ERV).	1500-1600

Respiratory volumes/capacities	Amount (ml)
Functional residual capacity (FRC): Volume of air in lungs after normal	2100-2300
expiration (ERV+RV).	2100-2300
Vital capacity (VC): Volume of air that can breathe in after a forced	
expiration or Volume of air that can breathe out after a forced inspiration	3500-4500
(ERV + TV + IRV).	
Total lung capacity (TLC): Volume of air in lungs after a maximum inspiration	5000-6000
(RV + ERV + TV + IRV or VC + RV).	3000-0000

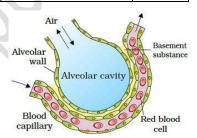
GAS EXCHANGE

Gas exchange occurs by simple diffusion between 1. Alveoli & blood 2. Blood & tissues Alveoli are the primary sites of gas exchange. Factors influencing gas exchange are:

• Pressure/ concentration gradient

	Atmospheric air	Alveoli	Deoxygenated blood	Oxygenated blood	Tissues
pO ₂ (mm Hg)	159	104	40	95	40
pCO ₂ (mm Hg)	0.3	40	45	40	45

- Solubility of gases: Solubility of CO₂ is 20-25 times higher than that of O₂.
- Thickness of diffusion membranes: 3 layers- Squamous epithelium of alveoli + Endothelium of capillaries + Basement substance. Its total thickness is very less → easy gas exchange.
- Surface area: Presence of alveoli increases surface area → gas exchange increases.



GAS TRANSPORT (O2 TRANSPORT & CO2 TRANSPORT)

1. O₂ TRANSPORT (from lungs to various tissues)

- a. By blood plasma (3%): O_2 + plasma \rightarrow tissues.
- **b.** As oxyhaemoglobin (97%): O_2 + haemoglobin (Hb) \rightarrow oxyhaemoglobin.

$$Hb_4 + 4O_2 \xrightarrow{\text{High pO}_2/\text{Low pCO}_2 \text{(lungs)}} Hb_4O_8$$

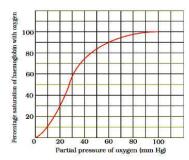
$$Low pO_2/\text{High pCO}_2 \text{(Tissues)}$$

- In alveoli: pO_2 high, pCO_2 , H^+ ion and temperature are low \rightarrow formation of oxyhaemoglobin.
- In tissues: pO_2 low, pCO_2 , H^+ ions and temperature are high \rightarrow Hb₄O₈ dissociates to release O₂.

Oxygen-haemoglobin dissociation curve

It is a sigmoid curve obtained when percentage saturation of Hb with O_2 is plotted against the pO_2 .

It is used to study the effect of factors like pCO₂, H^+ concentration etc., on binding of O₂ with Hb.



2. CO₂ TRANSPORT (from tissues to lungs)

- a. As carbonic acid (7%): Through plasma.
- **b. As carbamino-haemoglobin (20-25%):** $CO_2 + Hb \rightarrow carbamino-haemoglobin \rightarrow lungs \rightarrow CO_2$ dissociates.

c. As bicarbonates (70%):

$$\begin{array}{c} Carbonic \\ column{2}{c} Anhydrase \\ col$$

In alveoli: Reaction in opposite direction.

REGULATION OF RESPIRATION

Respiratory centres in Brain:

- Respiratory rhythm centre: In medulla oblongata. It regulates respiratory rhythms.
- Pneumotaxic centre: In Pons. It moderates functions of respiratory rhythm centre.
- Chemosensitive area: Seen adjacent to the rhythm centre. Increase in the concentration of CO₂ and H⁺ activates this centre.

DISORDERS OF RESPIRATORY SYSTEM

- Asthma: Difficulty in breathing due to inflammation of bronchi and bronchioles.
- Emphysema: Damage of alveolar walls → decreases respiratory surface. Major cause is cigarette smoking.
- Occupational respiratory disorders: Exposure of industrial dusts → fibrosis of lungs → lung damage.

VIDEO CLASS



SLIDES OF THIS CHAPTER



QUESTION BANK



7. BODY FLUIDS AND CIRCULATION

Types of circulation:

- ➤ Single circulation: In fishes. Heart receives impure blood only (venous heart).
 Deoxygenated blood → to heart → to gills → oxygenated blood → to body parts → deoxygenated blood → to heart.
- ➤ Incomplete double circulation: In amphibians & reptiles. Left atrium gets oxygenated blood from gills/ lungs/skin. Right atrium gets deoxygenated blood from other body parts. They get mixed up in single ventricle. It pumps out mixed blood.
- ➤ **Double circulation:** In birds & mammals. Right atrium gets deoxygenated blood and passes to right ventricle. Left atrium gets oxygenated blood and passes to left ventricle. The ventricles pump it out separately.

BLOOD VASCULAR SYSTEM (HEART, BLOOD & BLOOD VESSELS)

BLOOD (Plasma + Formed elements)

	• Constituents: Water, Plasma proteins, organic & inorganic components.		
Plasma	• Plasma proteins: Fibrinogen (blood coagulation), Globulins (act as antibodies)		
(55%)	& Albumins (osmotic balance).		
	• Serum= Plasma without clotting factors.		

Formed elements (45%)

RBC (Erythrocytes)	- Biconcave non-nucleated cells Count: 5 - 5.5 millions/ mm ³ .	 Average lifespan: 120 days. Function: CO₂ and O₂ transports.
WBC (Leucocytes) Types of WBC: Granulocytes & Agranulocytes	 Colourless nucleated cells. Count: 6000-8000 /mm³. Function: Part of immune system. Granulocytes: Neutrophils: 60-65%. Function: Phagocytosis. Eosinophils: Resist infections. Allergic reactions. Basophils: Cause inflammation. Secrete histamine, serotonin, heparin. 	Agranulocytes: • Lymphocytes: Smallest WBC with largest nucleus. Cause immune responses. • Monocytes: Largest WBC. For phagocytosis.
PLATELETS	- Count: 1.5 - 3.5 lakhs /mm ³ .	- Function: Blood clotting.

BLOOD COAGULATION

Clumped platelets & tissues release *thrombokinase (Prothrombinase)* \rightarrow *Thrombokinase* hydrolyses *prothrombin* to *thrombin* \rightarrow *Thrombin* converts *fibrinogen* to *fibrin* \rightarrow *Fibrin* trap dead & damaged blood cells to form *clot (coagulum)*.

BLOOD GROUPS: ABO grouping

Blood group	Antigens on RBC	Antibodies in plasma	Can donate blood to	Donor's group
A	A	Anti-B	A & AB	A, O
В	В	Anti-A	B & AB	B, O
AB (Universal recipient)	A, B	Nil	AB only	A, B, AB & O
O (Universal donor)	Nil	Anti-A & Anti-B	A, B, AB & O	O only

Rh grouping based on Rhesus (Rh) factor (Antigen)

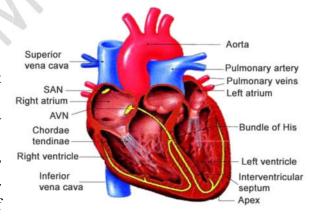
- **Rh+ve** = presence of Rh factor and **Rh-ve** = absence of Rh factor. **Anti-Rh antibodies** are not naturally found.

Erythroblastosis foetalis

- **Rh incompatibility** between the Rh-ve blood of a pregnant mother and Rh+ve blood of the foetus.
- During first delivery, maternal blood may be exposed to some foetal blood (Rh+ve) → Rh antibodies in maternal blood.
- In her next pregnancies, Rh antibodies leak into the foetal blood (Rh+ve) and destroy the foetal RBCs.
- It can be avoided by administering **anti-Rh antibodies** to the mother immediately after the first delivery.

HEART

- It is protected by *pericardium*.
- 4 chambers- two *atria* and two *ventricles*.
- Walls of *ventricles* are **thicker** than that of atria.
- A *tricuspid valve* guards the opening b/w right atrium & right ventricle.
- A *bicuspid (mitral) valve* guards opening b/w left atrium & left ventricle.
- Opening of right ventricle to *pulmonary artery* and opening of left ventricle to *aorta* have *semi-lunar valves*. They prevent backward flow of blood.



CONDUCTING SYSTEM OF HEART

- It includes nodal tissues [Sino-atrial node (SAN) & Atrio-ventricular node (AVN)], bundles & Purkinje fibres.
- Fibres + bundles = **Bundle of His.**
- SAN initiates contraction of heart by generating action potentials. So, it is called *pacemaker*.
- Normal activities of heart are auto-regulated by *nodal tissues*. So, it is called **myogenic heart**.

CARDIAC CYCLE

Cyclic process of heart to pump blood. A cardiac cycle is completed in **0.8 second.** It has 3 stages:

1. Joint diastole: Relaxed state of all chambers. Blood from pulmonary vein and vena cava flows into left & right ventricles through left and right atria. Semilunar valves are closed at this stage.

- 2. Atrial systole: Contraction of atria due to action potential from SAN. This increases the flow of blood into the ventricles.
- 3. Ventricular systole: Action potential from SAN \rightarrow AVN \rightarrow AV bundle \rightarrow bundle of His \rightarrow ventricular musculature. As a result, ventricles contract (ventricular systole). So semilunar valves open and deoxygenated blood enters the pulmonary artery from right ventricle and oxygenated blood enters the aorta from left ventricle.
- One heartbeat = a cardiac cycle. So, normal heartbeat: 70-75 times/min.
- Stroke volume: Volume of blood pumped out by each ventricle during a cardiac cycle. It is about 70 ml.
- Cardiac output: Stroke volume x heart rate (70 x 72). It is about 5000 ml. Cardiac output of an athlete is very high.
- **Heart sounds:** First sound (**lub**) is due to closure of *tricuspid* and *bicuspid valves*. Second sound (**dub**) is due to closure of the *semilunar valves*. *One heartbeat* = *a lub* + *a dub*.

ELECTROCARDIOGRAPH (ECG)

Instrument used to get *electrocardiogram* (graphical representation of electrical activity of the heart). ECG consists of the following waves:

- P-wave: Represents excitation (depolarization) of atria during atrial systole.
- **QRS-complex:** Represents *depolarization* of ventricles *(Ventricular systole)*.
- o T-wave: Represents the repolarisation of ventricles.

Deviation in ECG indicates abnormality of heart. So, ECG has great clinical significance.



Blood flows through the heart twice for completing its circuit. It includes:

1. **Pulmonary circulation:** b/w lungs and heart.

Deoxygenated blood from right ventricle \rightarrow to pulmonary artery \rightarrow to lungs \rightarrow oxygenated blood \rightarrow to pulmonary veins \rightarrow left atrium.

2. Systemic circulation: b/w heart and various body parts. Oxygenated blood from left ventricle \rightarrow to aorta \rightarrow arteries \rightarrow arterioles \rightarrow capillaries \rightarrow tissues \rightarrow deoxygenated blood from tissues \rightarrow venules \rightarrow vens \rightarrow vena cava \rightarrow to right atrium

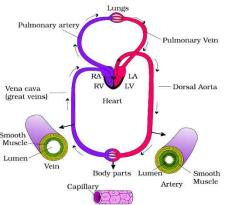
right atrium.

Systemic circulation provides nutrients, O₂ and other substances to the tissues and takes CO₂ and other harmful substances away for elimination.

- **Hepatic portal system:** It is a system which includes *hepatic portal vein* that carries blood from *intestine* to the *liver*.
- Coronary circulatory system: It is a system of *coronary vessels* that circulate blood to and from *cardiac musculature*.

LYMPHATIC SYSTEM (Lymph, Lymph vessels & Lymph nodes)

- The fluid filtered into tissues from blood through capillaries is called **tissue fluid.**
- When tissue fluid enters lymphatic system, it is called **lymph**. It drains back to major veins.



Functions of lymph

- Exchange nutrients, gases, etc. b/w blood and cells.
- Transports digested fats, hormones etc.
- Lymphocytes in lymph gives immunity.

DISORDERS OF CIRCULATORY SYSTEM

- **Hypertension (High Blood Pressure):** Normal BP is 120/80 mm Hg. BP >140/90 is called **hypertension.** It causes *heart diseases* and affects *vital organs*.
- Coronary Artery Disease (CAD) or Atherosclerosis: Ca, fat, cholesterol etc. are deposited in coronary arteries. So lumen of arteries becomes narrow affecting blood flow.
- Angina pectoris: An acute chest pain due to O_2 deficiency to heart muscles. It occurs due to improper blood flow.
- **Heart Failure:** Inability of heart to pump blood enough to meet the needs of the body. Congestion of the lungs.
- Cardiac arrest: Heart stops beating.
- Heart attack: Sudden damage of heart muscle due to inadequate blood supply.





SLIDES OF THIS CHAPTER



QUESTION
BANK



Inferior

Pelvis

8. EXCRETORY PRODUCTS AND THEIR ELIMINATION

Types of Excretion

- Ammonotelism: Excretion of Ammonia (NH₃). E.g. Aquatic invertebrates, bony fishes, aquatic amphibians.
- Ureotelism: Excretion of urea. E.g. Cartilaginous fishes, amphibians, mammals.
- Uricotelism: Excretion of uric acid. E.g. Insects, terrestrial reptiles & birds.

HUMAN EXCRETORY SYSTEM

Includes kidneys, ureters, urinary bladder & urethra.

Kidney: Covered by **renal capsule.** Blood vessels, nerves, ureter etc. enter the kidney through **hilum.** Hilum leads to **renal pelvis** with renal **calyces.**

A kidney has outer cortex & inner medulla.

Medulla consists of medullary pyramids.

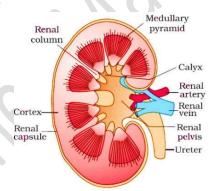
Nephron: Structural & functional units of kidney.

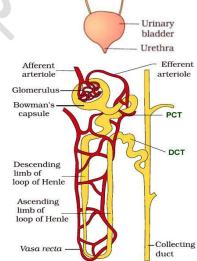
A nephron has 2 parts:

- o Glomerulus: Capillary network.
- Renal tubule: Bowman's capsule + Proximal convoluted tubule (PCT) + Henle's loop + Distal convoluted tubule (DCT).

Glomerulus + Bowman's capsule = Malpighian body.

Types of nephrons: Cortical (85%) & Juxtamedullary (15%).





Adrenal gland

Renal artery

Renal vein

Kidney

Dorsal aorta

Ureter

URINE FORMATION

1. Glomerular filtration (ultrafiltration)

- In glomerulus, blood is filtered through 3 layers- endothelium of glomerulus, basement membrane & epithelium of Bowman's capsule (contains **podocytes** that form filtration slits).
- Glomerular filtration rate (GFR): Amount of glomerular filtrate formed per minute.
- Normal GFR = 125 ml/minute, i.e., 180 litres/day.

2. Reabsorption

- 99% of filtrate is reabsorbed by the renal tubules. So volume of urine released is **1.5 litre.**
- PCT reabsorbs most of the nutrients and 70-80% electrolytes & water.
- In **DCT:** Conditional reabsorption of Na⁺ & water.
- Collecting duct reabsorbs water to concentrate urine.

3. Tubular Secretion

- **PCT, DCT & Collecting duct** maintain ionic and acid-base balance (pH) of body fluids by selective secretion of H⁺, K⁺ & NH₃ into filtrate and absorption of HCO₃⁻ from it.

Mechanism of concentration of the filtrate

- Henle's loop & vasa recta help to concentrate the urine.
- Flow of filtrate in the 2 limbs of Henle's loop and the flow of blood through the 2 limbs of vasa recta are in opposite directions. This is called **Counter current mechanism.**
- Thus osmolarity increases from **cortex (300 mOsmolL**⁻¹) to the **inner medullary interstitium** (1200 mOsmolL⁻¹).
- This gradient is caused by NaCl & urea.
- DCT & collecting duct produce urine four times concentrated than the initial filtrate formed.

MICTURITION

- It is the release of urine.
- Filled urinary bladder → stretch receptors send impulses to CNS → motor messages → urinary bladder contracts → micturition (1 1.5 litre urine (25-30 g urea) per day).
- Micturition reflex: Neural mechanism of micturition.
- Urine analysis helps in clinical diagnosis of metabolic disorders and malfunctioning of the kidney.

REGULATION OF THE KIDNEY FUNCTION

- Regulation by ADH (vasopressin): Hypothalamus → release ADH → water reabsorption from DCT & collecting duct. → prevents diuresis → increases body fluid volume.
 ADH → constricts blood vessels → BP increases → increases glomerular blood flow & GFR.
- 2. Regulation by JGA (Renin-Angiotensin mechanism): JGA (Juxta glomerular apparatus) is a region in nephron. Fall in glomerular blood flow/GFR → activates JG cells → renin. Renin converts angiotensinogen → angiotensin I → angiotensin II (vasoconstrictor) → increases glomerular BP & GFR. Angiotensin II → adrenal cortex → Aldosterone → reabsorption of Na⁺ & water from distal parts of tubule.
- 3. Regulation by ANF: When blood flow increases, the atria of heart releases Atrial Natriuretic Factor (ANF). It causes vasodilation → BP decreases.

DISORDERS OF EXCRETORY SYSTEM

- Uremia: Accumulation of urea in blood due to kidney failure.
- Renal calculi: Stone of crystallized salts (oxalates, etc.) formed within the kidney.
- Glomerulonephritis: Inflammation of glomeruli.

Hemodialysis: Process of removal of **urea** in patients with uremia.

Blood from artery (+ anticoagulant like heparin) \rightarrow dialyzing unit \rightarrow cellophane tube \rightarrow passage of molecules \rightarrow Purified blood (+ anti-heparin) \rightarrow pumped back through a vein.

Kidney transplantation: For acute renal failures.

Receiving kidney from a close relative minimizes rejection by immune system of host.

VIDEO CLASS



SLIDES OF THIS CHAPTER



QUESTION
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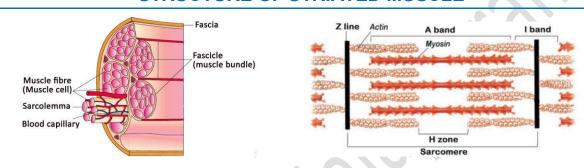


9. LOCOMOTION AND MOVEMENT

Types of	- Amoeboid movement: By pseudopodia. E.g. Macrophages & leucocytes.
movement in	- Ciliary movement: By cilia. E.g. trachea & oviducts.
human being	- Muscular movement: By muscles. E.g. limbs.

	Skeletal (striated)	Visceral (Non-striated)	Cardiac
TD e	Attached to skeleton	In visceral organs	In heart wall
Types of muscles	Striations present	Absent	Present
inuscies	Voluntary	Involuntary	Involuntary
	Rich blood supply	Poor blood supply	Rich blood supply

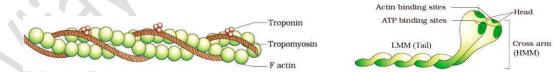
STRUCTURE OF STRIATED MUSCLE



- Skeletal muscle is made of muscle bundles (fascicles) containing muscle fibres.
- Muscle fibres are lined by plasma membrane (sarcolemma) enclosing the sarcoplasm.
- Each muscle fibre contains myofilaments (myofibrils).
- Each myofibril has dark (Anisotropic or A-band) and light striations (Isotropic or I-band).
- **I-bands:** Contain actin filaments. It is bisected by a dark band **(Z-line)**. Region b/w 2 Z-lines is called **sarcomere** (functional units of muscle contraction).
- **A-bands:** Contain actin & myosin. Its light middle region (**H zone**) is formed of myosin. **H-zone** has a dark line (**M-line**) at the centre.

Structure of contractile proteins

- An actin filament is made of 2 filamentous (F) actins.
- F-actin is a polymer of Globular (G) actins.



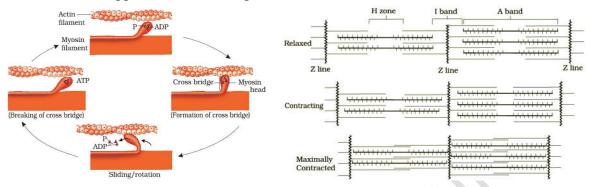
- Actin contains 2 other proteins (tropomyosin & troponin).
- **Troponin** has 3 subunits.
- Each myosin filament is a polymer of **Meromyosins**.
- A meromyosin has 2 parts: **Heavy meromyosin or HMM or cross arm & Light meromyosin or LMM (tail).**
- Head of cross arm is an ATPase enzyme.

MECHANISM OF MUSCLE CONTRACTION

Sliding filament theory: Contraction of a muscle fibre occurs by the sliding of thin filaments over thick filaments.

Steps:

Impulse from CNS \rightarrow neuromuscular junction \rightarrow Synaptic vesicles release Acetylcholine \rightarrow action potential in sarcolemma \rightarrow release of Ca²⁺ from sarcoplasmic cisternae \rightarrow Ca binds troponin \rightarrow unmask the active sites for myosin \rightarrow energy from ATP hydrolysis \rightarrow myosin head binds to active sites on actin to form cross bridge \rightarrow actin filaments pull towards centre of A-band \rightarrow H-zone disappears \rightarrow Z-line is pulled inwards \rightarrow contraction of sarcomere.



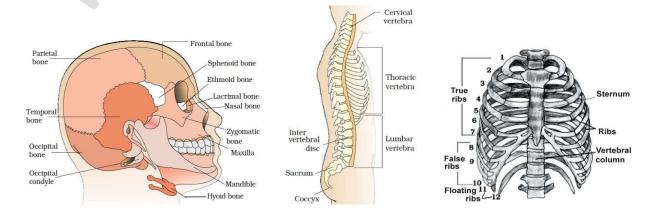
 Repeated activation of muscles → anaerobic breakdown of glycogen → accumulation of lactic acid → muscle fatigue.

Red (Aerobic) muscles	White muscle
Red colour due to more myoglobin	White colour due to less myoglobin
More mitochondria	Less mitochondria
Aerobic metabolism	Anaerobic metabolism
Slow & sustained contraction	Fast contraction for short period

HUMAN SKELETAL SYSTEM (206 bones & few cartilages)

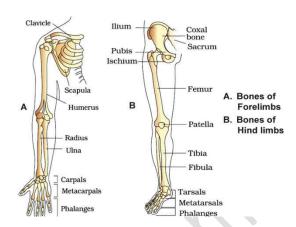
AXIAL SKELETON (80 bones)

Bones of head (29)	Vertebral column	Ribs (12 pairs)	Sternum (1)
• Skull (22): Cranial bones (8)	26 vertebrae:	• True ribs (1-7 th pairs):	Breast
+ Facial bones (14).	• Cervical (7)	Connected to sternum by	bone
• Ear ossicles (2x3=6)	• Thoracic (12)	Hyaline cartilage.	
Hyoid bone (1)	• Lumbar (5)	False or vertebro-chondral	
Skull articulates with <i>First</i>	• Sacrum (1)	ribs (8-10 th pairs): Join to the	
vertebra (atlas) by 2 occipital	• Coccyx (1)	7 th rib.	
condyles (dicondylic skull).		• Floating ribs (11-12 th pairs):	
		Not connected with sternum or	
		other ribs.	



APPENDICULAR SKELETON (126 bones)

- Bones of forelimbs (2x30 =60): Humerus (1), Radius (1), Ulna (1), Carpals (wrist bones-8), Metacarpals (Palm bones-5) & Phalanges (14).
- Bones of hind limbs (2x30 = 60): Femur (thigh bone -1), Patella (knee cap-1), Tibia (1), Fibula (1), Tarsals (ankle bones-7), Metatarsals (5) & Phalanges (14).
- Pectoral girdles (2x2=4): Clavicle (collar bones-2) & Scapula (shoulder blades-2).
 Clavicle articulates with acromion (elevated ridge) of Scapula.



Acromion has glenoid cavity into which humerus articulates to form shoulder joint.

• Pelvic girdles (2x1=2 coxal bones): Formed by the fusion of Ilium, Ischium & Pubis. At the point of fusion of *Ilium*, *Ischium* and *Pubis* is a cavity (*Acetabulum*) to which the *thigh bone* articulates.

The 2 halves of the *pelvic girdle* meet ventrally to form *pubic symphisis*.

JOINTS

3 types:

- Fibrous (immovable) joints: E.g. sutures of skull.
- Cartilaginous (Slightly movable) joints: E.g. Joints between the adjacent vertebrae.
- Synovial (movable) joints: Have a fluid filled synovial cavity between 2 bones.

Synovial Joints	Examples
Ball & socket	b/w humerus & pectoral girdle.
Hinge joint Knee joint	
Pivot joint b/w atlas & axis.	
Gliding joint b/w carpals	
Saddle joint b/w carpal & metacarpal of thumb	

DISORDERS OF MUSCULAR & SKELETAL SYSTEMS

- **Myasthenia gravis:** An auto immune disorder that affects neuromuscular junction. Fatigue and paralysis of muscles.
- Muscular dystrophy: Progressive degeneration of skeletal muscles due to genetic disorder.
- **Tetany:** Rapid muscle spasm due to low Ca²⁺ in body fluid.
- Arthritis: Inflammation of joints.
- Osteoporosis: Age-related disorder. Decreased bone mass causing fractures. Low level of estrogen is a common cause.
- Gout: Inflammation of joints due to accumulation of uric acid crystals.





SLIDES OF THIS CHAPTER



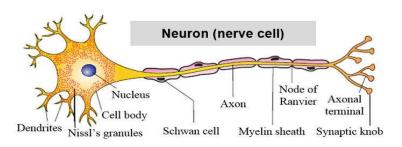
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10. NEURAL CONTROL AND COORDINATION

Neurons are structural & functional unit of neural system.

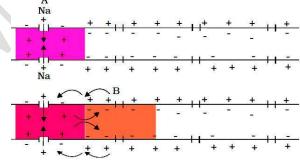
Neuron is made of **Cell body**, **Dendron** (branches: dendrites) & **Axon** (branches: axonites with synaptic knob).



Types of Neurons	Types of axons
 Unipolar: No Dendron. Found in embryo. Bipolar: One dendron. Found in retina. Multipolar: 2 or more dendrons. Most common. 	 Myelinated: Schwann cells with a myelin sheath around axon. Gaps b/w adjacent myelin sheaths are called nodes of Ranvier. Non-myelinated: Schwann cells without myelin sheath.

GENERATION & CONDUCTION OF NERVE IMPULSES

- In a resting neuron, axoplasm has more K⁺ & –vely charged proteins and less Na⁺. The fluid outside the axon contains low K⁺ & high Na⁺. This forms an ionic gradient.
- Na⁺ K⁺ pump maintains the ionic gradients. It transports 3 Na⁺ outwards for 2 K⁺ into cell. So membrane is polarized (outer +ve, inner -ve).
- *Resting potential:* Potential difference of resting membrane.
- If a stimulus is given, membrane at site A becomes permeable to Na⁺ causing rapid influx of Na⁺ and reversal of polarity (**depolarization**).
- Electrical potential difference during depolarization is called **action potential** (a nerve impulse).

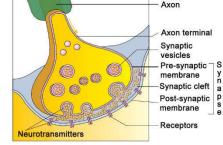


- Action potential is conducted as current flow from site A to B and the process is repeated along the axon.

Synapse:

Functional junction between two neurons. It is 2 types:

- **1. Electrical synapse:** In this, membranes of pre- & post-synaptic neurons are nearest. So impulse transmission is same as along an axon. Impulse transmission is faster than in chemical synapse.
- 2. Chemical synapse: It has synaptic cleft between pre- & post-synaptic neuron. Presynaptic regions have Synaptic



knob. They contain synaptic vesicles filled with neurotransmitters.

Impulse transmission in chemical synapse:

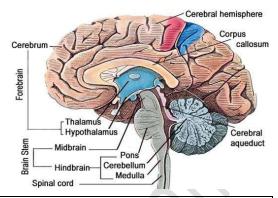
Impulse reaches at axon terminal \rightarrow synaptic vesicles bind on plasma membrane \rightarrow release of neurotransmitter \rightarrow diffuses across synaptic cleft \rightarrow combine with receptors on post synaptic membrane \rightarrow opening of ion channels allowing entry of ions \rightarrow action potential.

HUMAN NERVOUS (NEURAL) SYSTEM (CNS & PNS)

CENTRAL NEURAL SYSTEM (CNS)

A. BRAIN

- Covered by *cranial meninges* (outer *dura mater*, middle *arachnoid mater* and inner *pia mater*.
- The *subarachnoid space* is filled with cerebrospinal fluid (CSF).



Parts of Brain and their Functions:

	Cerebrum (2 Cerebral	Motor area	Controls voluntary movements of muscles.	
		Sensory area	Controls functioning of sense organs	
	hemispheres with	Association	For intersensory association, memory &	
Forebrain	cerebral cortex)	area	communication	
	Thalamus	Coordinating of	centre (relay station) for sensory and motor	
	1 naiamus	impulses.		
	Hypothalamus	Regulates temperature, thirst, hunger & emotions. Secretes		
		hormones.		
Midbrain	Corpora	4-lobed structu	are- Lobes of visual reflex (2) & Lobes of	
Midbiani	quadrigemina	auditory reflex (2)		
	Cerebellum	Co-ordinates muscular activities and body equilibrium.		
Hindbrain	Pons varoli	Co-ordinates the activities of eye and ear and regulates respiration.		
	Medulla	Controls respiration, cardiovascular reflexes, gastric		
	oblongata	secretions.		

Limbic system: *Amygdala* + *hippocampus* + *hypothalamus* etc. It regulates sexual behavior, motivations, emotions.

B. SPINAL CORD

- Conduction of impulses to and from the brain.
- Centre of spinal reflexes.

Peripheral neural system (PNS)- Cranial & spinal nerves:

Somatic neural system	Relays impulses from the CNS to skeletal muscles.		
Autonomic neural system (ANS): Transmits impulses	Sympathetic nerves	Prepares body to cope with emergencies, stresses & dangers. It increases heartbeat, breathing rate, constricts arteries and elevates BP.	
from CNS to involuntary organs & smooth muscles.	Parasympathetic nerves	Returns the body to a resting state and slows down heartbeat, dilates arteries, lowers BP etc.	

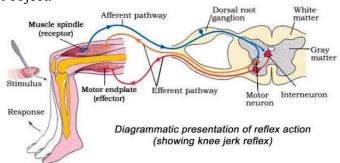
REFLEX ACTION

It is the *rapid*, *involuntary* and *unconscious actions* of body in response to a stimulus. E.g.

- Withdrawal of hand when it touches a hot object.
- Knee jerk phenomenon.

Reflex arc: Pathway of impulses in a reflex action.

Receptor organ \rightarrow Sensory (afferent) neuron \rightarrow Interneuron in CNS \rightarrow Motor (efferent) neuron \rightarrow effector organ (muscle/gland).



SENSE ORGANS

EYE

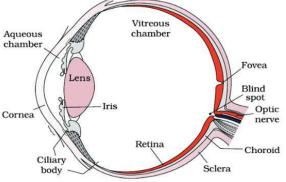
- Eyeball has 3 layers: outer Sclera, middle
 Choroid (blood vessels) & inner Retina.
- Cornea: Anterior transparent portion of sclera.
- **Iris:** Pigmented portion of the eye.
- **Pupil:** Central opening of iris. It regulates the amount of light entering the eye.
- Retina has 3 layers- inner ganglion cells middle bipolar cells & outer photoreceptor cells.
- Photoreceptor cells are 2 types: rods and cones. They contain photosensitive proteins (photopigments).
- Cone cells: For Daylight (photopic) vision & colour vision. They contain photopsin.
- **Rod cells:** For **Twilight (scotopic) vision.** They contain **rhodopsin.** It contains a derivative of **Vitamin A.**
- **Blind spot:** Region where there are no photoreceptor cells.
- **Macula lutea:** Yellowish pigmented spot with a central pit **(fovea)**. In fovea, only cones are seen. Greatest visual acuity.
- Space between cornea & lens (aqueous chamber) contains aqueous humor.
- Space between lens and retina (vitreous chamber) contains vitreous humor.

Mechanism of vision

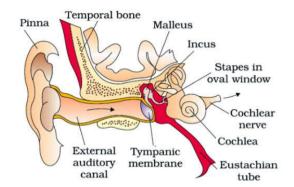
- Light from object → **cornea & lens** → focus on **retina** → dissociation of **retinal & opsin** → membrane permeability changes → potential difference in **photoreceptor cells** → action potential in **ganglion cells** → impulses to **optic nerves** → **brain** → vision.

EAR

- 3 divisions: External ear, middle ear & inner ear.
- External ear: Consists of *pinna & auditory meatus (ear canal) &* tympanic membrane (ear drum).



- Middle ear: Consists of tympanic cavity and ear ossicles (Malleus, Incus & stapes). Eustachian canal connects middle ear to pharynx. It equalizes pressure on either side of the eardrum. Stapes is smallest bone of body.
- Inner ear: Consists of bony labyrinth & membranous labyrinth (cochlea & Vestibular apparatus).



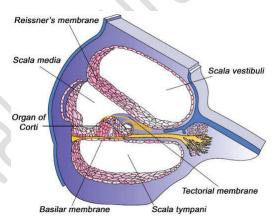
Vestibular apparatus: It includes

- 3 semicircular canals: Each canal has an ampulla with crista ampullaris.
- Otolith organ (utricle + saccule): Consists of the receptor Macula.

Crista & Macula help in body equilibrium & posture.

Cochlea (organ of hearing):

- It has 3 canals scala vestibula, scala media & scala tympani.
- Scala vestibula & scala media are separated by **Reissner's membrane.**
- Scala media and scala tympani are separated by basilar membrane.
- Organ of Corti: Receptor organ on the basilar membrane.



Mechanism of hearing:

Pinna collects sound waves \rightarrow ear canal \rightarrow tympanic membrane \rightarrow vibrations \rightarrow to **ear ossicles** & **oval window** \rightarrow **perilymph** in **vestibular canal** \rightarrow **scala tympani** \rightarrow **basilar membrane** \rightarrow **sensory hair cells** press against **tectorial membrane** \rightarrow impulse \rightarrow **auditory nerve** \rightarrow to brain \rightarrow hearing.





SLIDES OF THIS CHAPTER



QUESTION
BANK



11. CHEMICAL CO-ORDINATION AND INTEGRATION

Glands		Hormones	Functions & other details
		Releasing hormones	Stimulate secretion of pituitary
		(E.g. GnRH)	hormones.
Hypothalamus		Inhibiting hormones	Inhibit secretion of pituitary hormones .
			E.g. Somatostatin inhibits release of GH
	etory cells		from pituitary.
(nuclei)	etory cens	Oxytocin	Contracts smooth muscles. For contraction of uterus during child birth. Milk ejection.
		Vasopressin or Anti-	Reabsorption of water & ions by DCT.
		diuretic hormone	Deficiency: Diabetes insipidus.
		(ADH)	Deficiency. Diabetes insipidus.
			For body growth.
		Somatotropin	Over-secretion: Gigantism (abnormal
		(Growth hormone,	growth). Hyposecretion: Dwarfism
		GH)	(stunted growth).
			Over-secretion in adults: Acromegaly.
		Prolactin (PRL)	Growth of mammary glands and milk
		Trotactiii (TKE)	production.
		Thyroid stimulating	Stimulates secretion of thyroid hormones
	Adeno-	hormone (TSH)	from thyroid.
	hypophysis	Adrenocorticotrophic	Stimulates secretion of steroid hormones
	(Pars	hormone (ACTH)	(glucocorticoids) from adrenal cortex.
	distalis + Pars intermedia)	Luteinizing hormone (LH)	In males: stimulates synthesis of
Pituitary			androgens from testis.
			In females: induces ovulation. Maintains
			corpus luteum.
		Follicle stimulating hormone (FSH)	Stimulates gonadal activity. In males,
			FSH & androgens regulate
			spermatogenesis. In females, FSH
			stimulates development of the ovarian
		75.7	follicles.
		Melanocyte	From Pars intermedia.
		stimulating hormone	Acts on melanocytes to regulate skin
		(MSH)-	pigmentation.
	Neuro- hypophysis	Oxytocin &	
		Vasopressin from	See Hypothalamus
		hypothalamus.	D 14 F 1/041
D: 1		N/-1-4	Regulates diurnal (24-hour) rhythm,
Pineal		Melatonin	metabolism, pigmentation & menstrual
			cycle.

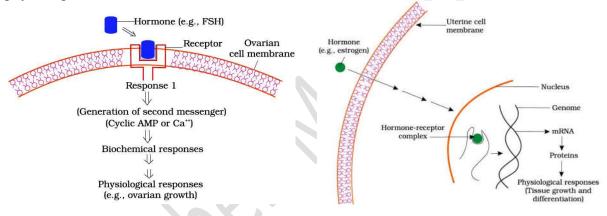
Thyroid Largest endocrine gland		Thyroxin (tetraiodothyronine, T4) & Triiodothyronine (T3)	 Regulation of basal metabolic rate (BMR). Physical, mental and sexual development. Support RBC formation. Control metabolism of carbohydrates, proteins & fats Hypothyroidism (Goiter): deficiency of iodine. Hyperthyroidism: Exophthalmic goiter (Grave's disease).
		Thyrocalcitonin	Lowers blood calcium (hypocalcaemic
		(TCT)	hormone). Increases Ca ²⁺ level in blood
Parathyro	oid	Parathyroid hormone (PTH)	(hypercalcaemic hormone).
Thymus		Thymosins	Gives immunity. Thymus is degenerated in old people. So, thymosin production decreases and immunity become weak.
	Adrenal	Glucocorticoids (mainly cortisol)	 For carbohydrate metabolism. Stimulate gluconeogenesis, lipolysis and proteolysis. Deficiency: Addison's disease.
	cortex	Mineralocorticoids	Regulate water & ionic balance, osmotic
Adrenals		(mainly aldosterone)	pressure and BP.
		Androgenic corticoids	For growth of axial hair, pubic hair and facial hair.
	Adrenal medulla	Adrenaline & Noradrenaline	Secreted during stress emergency situations so called emergency hormones (hormones of Fight or Flight).
Pancreas (Islets of Langerhans)		Glucagon (from α cells) Hyperglycemic factor	 For glycogenolysis to increase blood sugar (hyperglycemia). Stimulates gluconeogenesis. Reduces the cellular glucose uptake.
		Insulin (from β cells) Hypoglycemic factor	 Decreases blood glucose (hypoglycemia). Glycogenesis. Deficiency: Diabetes mellitus.
Testis (male gonad)		Androgens (mainly testosterone)	 Maturation of accessory sex organs & sex characters. For spermatogenesis.
Ovary (female gonad)		Estrogen	 Development of secondary sex organs & sex characters. Development of ovarian follicles & mammary glands.
		Progesterone	 Supports pregnancy. Development of mammary alveoli & milk secretion.

HORMONES OF HEART, KIDNEY & GASTROINTESTINAL TRACT

Atrial wall	Atrial natriuretic factor (ANF)	Dilation of blood vessels to reduce the BP.
JGA of kidney	Erythropoietin	Stimulates erythropoiesis.
Gastro- intestinal tract	Gastrin	Stimulates secretion of HCl & pepsinogen from gastric glands.
	Secretin	For secretion of <i>water & bicarbonate ions</i> from exocrine pancreas.
	Cholecystokinin (CCK)	For secretion of bile from gall bladder and pancreatic enzymes.
	Gastric inhibitory peptide (GIP)	Inhibits gastric secretion.

MECHANISM OF HORMONE ACTION

- A hormone binds to its specific receptor in target tissue to form hormone-receptor complex.
- It leads to biochemical changes in target tissue and thereby regulates metabolism and physiological functions.



Interaction of hormones (e.g. protein hormone, FSH) with **Membrane-bound receptors.**

Interaction of hormones (e.g. steroid hormones, iodothyronines) with Intracellular receptors











