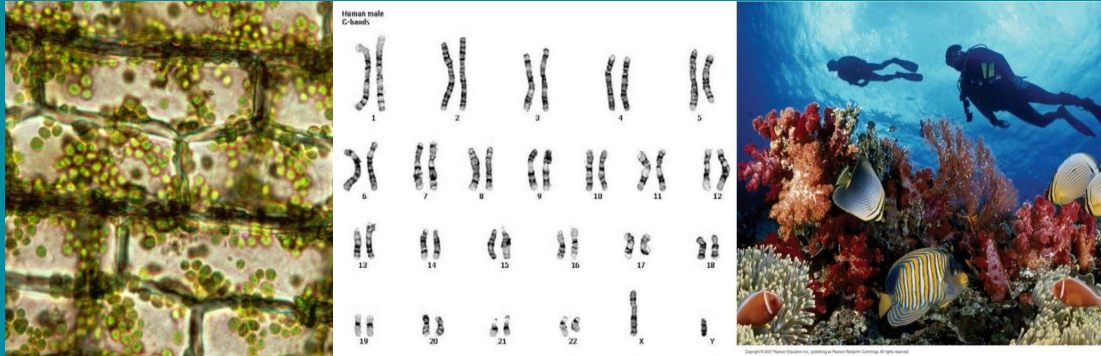


## SLE 132 – Form and Function

### The Musculoskeletal System



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## The Musculoskeletal System

Interactions between muscles and skeletons allow movement.

Moving costs energy, so why move?

- To obtain food
- Escaping danger
- Chasing mates

# Movement is an important feature of animals

Animals move in many different ways including:

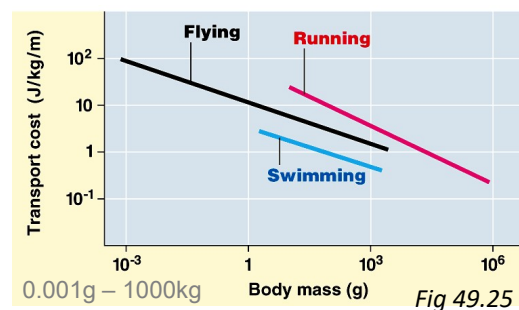
- Running, walking, hopping, crawling
- Flying, slithering, swimming
- Gliding over a surface with the aid of slime *e.g. snails and slugs*
- Different modes of locomotion vary in efficiency

## Different modes of locomotion vary in efficiency

Heavier animals are actually more efficient

Due to:

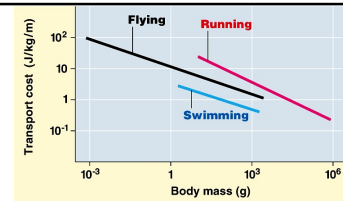
- More efficient/powerful muscle structures
- Metabolic power is found to be proportional to body mass.
- Momentum



Flying costs the most energy  
Running second most.  
Swimming least

In order to move have to overcome two forces:

- FRICTION/DRAW
- GRAVITY



What are the advantages and disadvantages of each type of locomotion?

- **SWIMMING:**
- **RUNNING/ WALKING:**
- **FLYING:**

Think of an example of an adaptation to overcome the disadvantages of each type of locomotion.

## Locomotion

To move, animals must exert a force against their environment

They need:

- Force generating tissue (**muscle**)
- Supporting tissue to provide leverage (**skeleton**)

## Roles of skeletons

- Support the body, maintaining shape and preventing collapse.
- Protect soft tissue *eg. Skull, ribs in Humans*  
*Exoskeleton of Crayfish*
- Provide a structure for muscle attachment.
- Offer a structure against which the muscles can work.

## There are 3 types of skeletons

1. **Hydrostatic skeletons** – Fluid under pressure
2. **Exoskeletons** – External covering
3. **Endoskeletons** - Internal framework

# Hydrostatic Skeletons

## Fluid under pressure:

- fluid is held under pressure in a closed body compartment.
- movement is due to muscles contracting & pushing against the fluid filled compartment.
- Example Cnidarian *Hydra*:
  - Hydra moves by closing mouth & using contractile cells in wall of gastrovascular cavity (filled with water)



## Hydrostatic skeleton in the earthworm

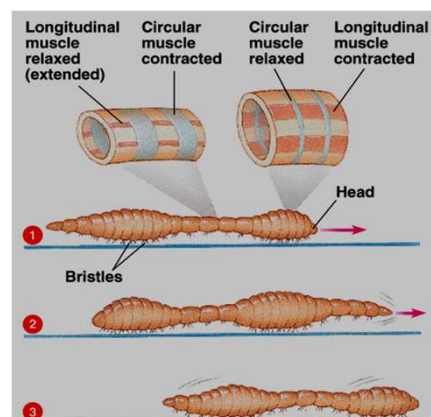
- The earthworm has its whole length is broken up into small coelomic compartments (segmentation).
- The muscles in each compartment can contract or relax separately

2 sets of muscles.

**Circular muscles:** narrow & elongate body, pushing segments forwards.

**Longitudinal muscles:** shorten body, pulling trailing segments forwards.

**Cheatae** anchor the segments to the soil to prevent backsliding



- Hydrostatic skeletons work well for aquatic animals & animals which burrow.
- most animals with hydrostatic skeletons are soft and flexible.
- Other forms of terrestrial locomotion require other forms of skeleton:
  - » Exoskeleton
  - » Endoskeleton

## Exoskeleton

- Skeleton on the outside surface
  - eg: scallops (not really skeleton), grasshoppers, crayfish
- Provides protection, support and an advanced locomotion
- Muscles are attached to jointed exoskeleton for movement

# Exoskeletons

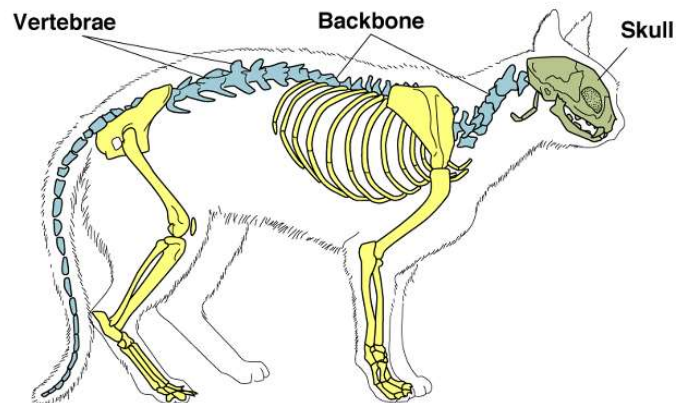
Problem with exoskeletons- how to grow larger?

- Molluscs have hard shell, as animal grows shell has extra added to outer edge e.g.: mussels, scallops, snails
- Arthropods need to periodically shed exoskeleton (moult) as they grow and a new, larger exoskeleton produced e.g.: crayfish

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lQyopA3JoWo> (2:36 min)

## Endoskeleton

- The skeleton is located inside the animal -in amongst the soft tissues
- Is derived from mesoderm
- e.g.: echinoderms, vertebrates



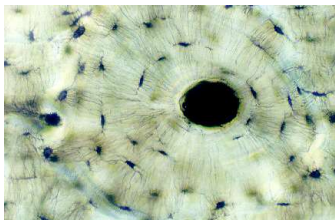
## Endoskeleton in Echinoderms

- Calcium carbonate spicules laid down beneath skin
  - formed within cells
  - spicules may be like plates and join together to form a rigid skeleton
- spines articulate with skeleton

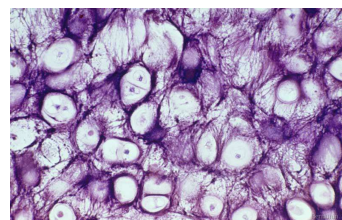


Most vertebrate skeletons are made of two types of connective tissue:

### 1. Bone



### 2. Cartilage



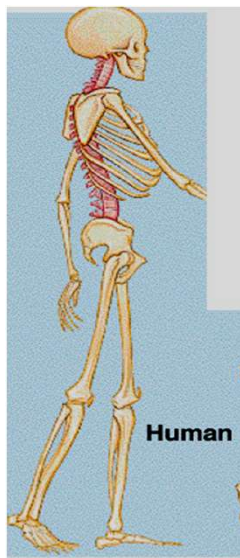
- Cartilage is located at the ends of bones, where flexibility is needed  
*eg: joints, rib cage humans*
- Exception for vertebrates is the sharks and rays – their skeleton is cartilage only - *chondrichthyes*



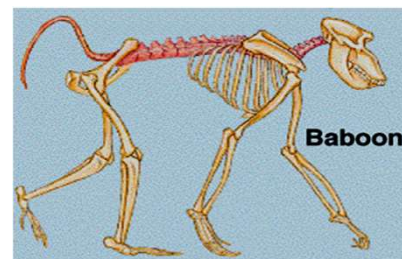
## Bone

- matrix is harder due to calcium salts & less water
- Cells are osteocytes & are in lacunae
- collagen fibres are present
- stronger than cartilage but breaks more easily
- blood supply is through bone in canals

Humans have distinctive skeletal features –  
*many associated with bipedal locomotion*

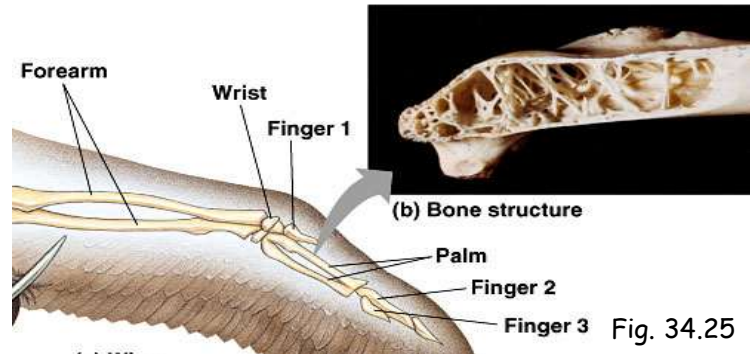


- Large skull to encase large brain, located on top of backbone
- Backbone S-shaped -helps balance
- Pelvic girdle oriented vertically
- Hands specialised for gripping & manipulation  
-freed from locomotion
- Feet for supporting whole body



### Modifications for flight: bird bone structure & wing:

- Bones are honeycomb (many pockets of air) – reduces weight
- Frigate bird – wingspan of >2m.
  - Skeleton weighs only 113g.



## Quick Question

1. Bone is a type of \_\_\_\_\_.
- A) connective tissue
  - B) epithelial tissue
  - C) extracellular matrix
  - D) adipose tissue

## Quick Question

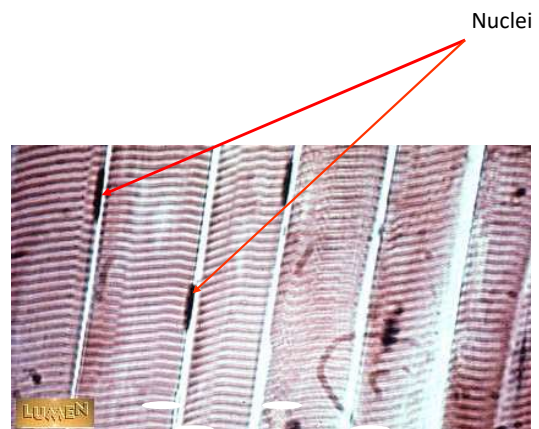
2. An endoskeleton is the primary body support for the \_\_\_\_\_.

- A) insects, including beetles
- B) bivalves, including clams
- C) cartilaginous fishes, including sharks
- D) annelids, including earthworms

## 3 different muscle types

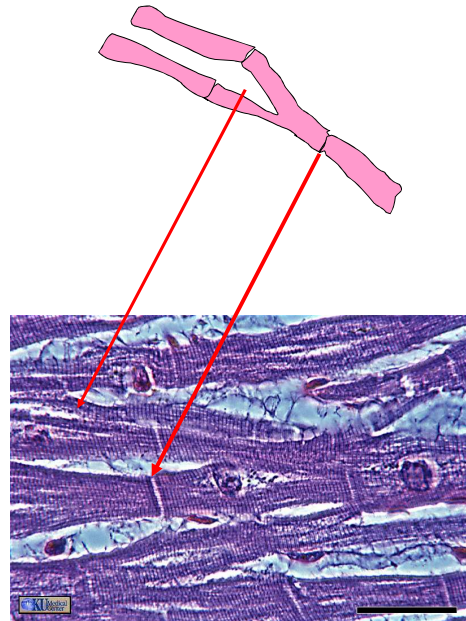
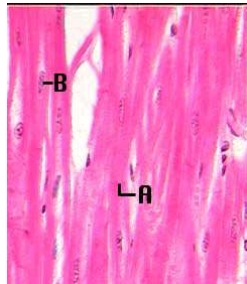
### **Skeletal muscle**

- found in both invertebrates & vertebrates
- attached to skeleton by tendons
- responsible for movement of the skeleton
- voluntary in vertebrates-can be moved at will
- striated in appearance (pattern of stripes)



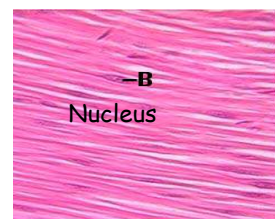
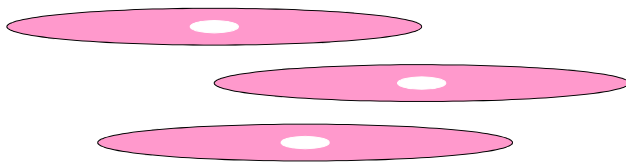
### Cardiac muscle

- Only found in the vertebrate heart
- also striated, but branched
- intercalated discs
  - specialised junctions between cells
  - enable tight electrical connection



### Smooth muscle

- Found in both invertebrates & vertebrates
- Around internal organs such as the gut, blood vessels
- No striations
- Involuntary
- Slower contractions than skeletal, but can sustain the contractions for long periods

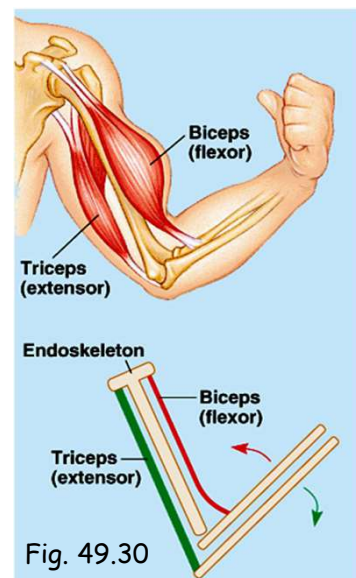


# The skeleton and muscles interact for movement

- Muscles are attached to skeletons by tendons ... which are fibrous connective tissue
- Muscles can only actively contract (or shorten)
- To be elongated (or extended), muscles must be pulled by another muscle
- Thus, you need antagonistic muscles for movement (Skeletal muscles work in opposite pairs)

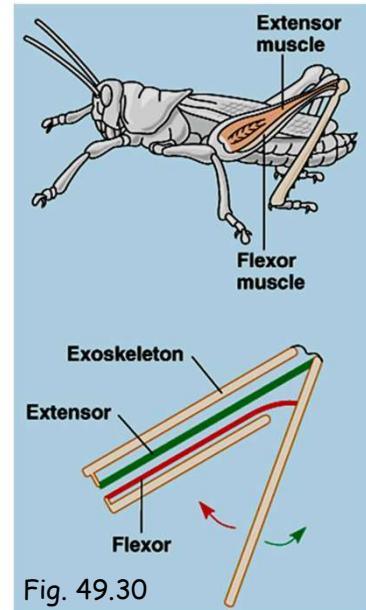
## Example 1: Human Endoskeleton

- The human arm has antagonistic muscles for movement.
- *Biceps* and *Triceps*.
- Note: muscles actively contract, but elongate only when passively stretched.



## Example 2: Exoskeleton of an Insect

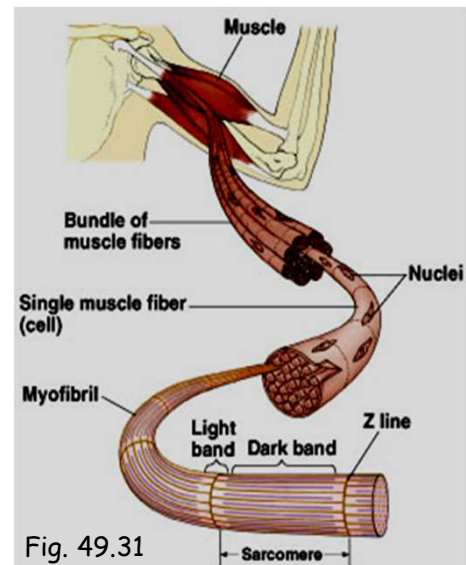
- Muscles attached to inner surfaces of exoskeleton
- At joints exoskeleton is thin & flexible
- antagonistic muscles



## The structure of vertebrate skeletal muscle

Skeletal muscle is made up of

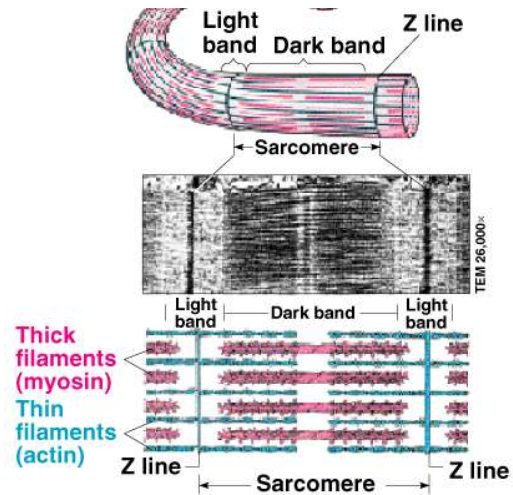
- bundles of parallel **muscle fibres**
- each fibre is a single cell with many nuclei and contains a bundle of **myofibrils**
- a myofibril consists of repeating units called **sarcomeres**
- the region between 2 dark narrow lines called **Z lines** in the myofibril



## The structure of vertebrate skeletal muscle

Fig. 49.31

- The myofibril is comprised of filaments of protein
  - **thin filaments** of **actin** and regulatory proteins
  - **thick filaments** – **myosin** molecules
- Interactions between myosin and actin underlie muscle contractions
- Sarcomeres are the functional unit of the muscle



## How does muscle contract?

Contraction occurs by the filaments sliding over one another.

- Sarcomeres shorten when the **thin actin filaments** slide across the **thick myosin filaments** towards the center of the sarcomere.
- The length of the filaments stays the same.

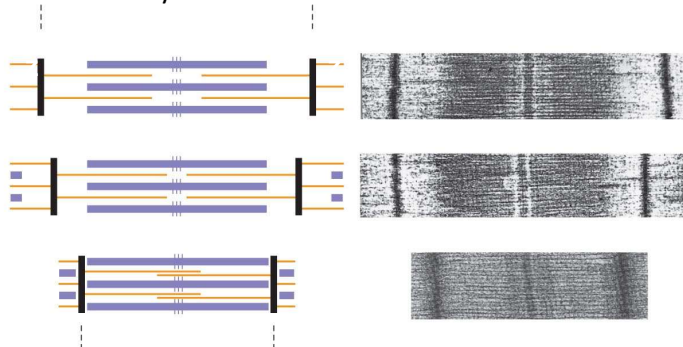
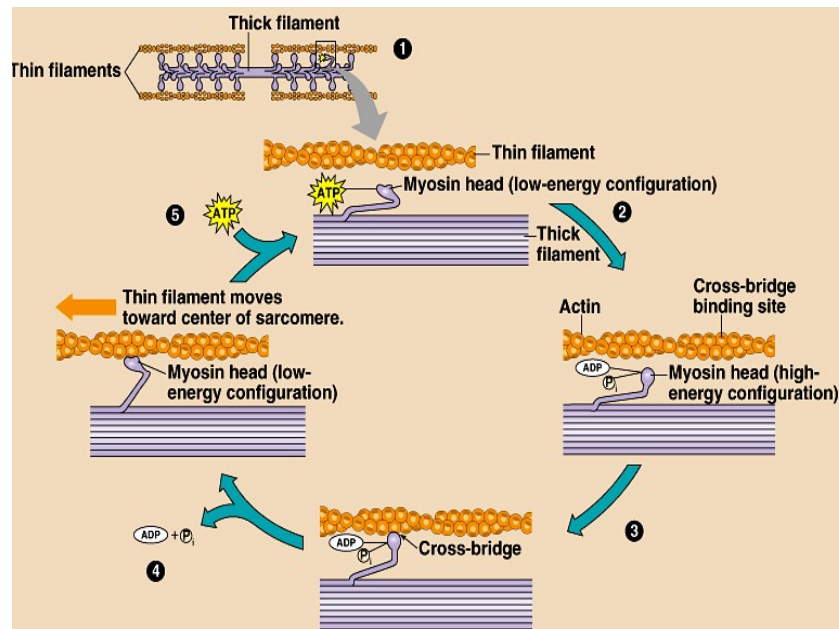
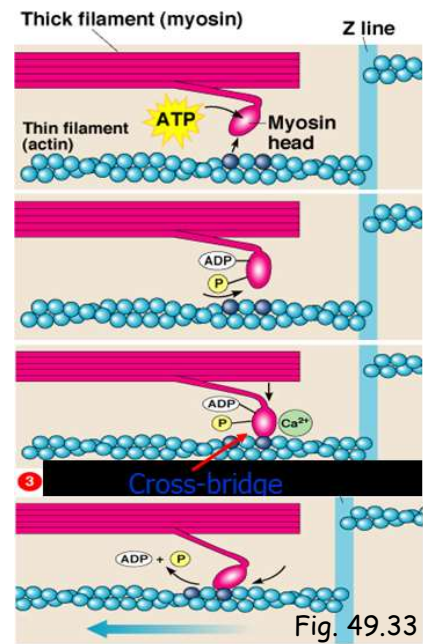


Fig 50.27



## Mechanisms of sliding filaments

1. The head of a **myosin** molecule is bound to actin.
  2. The bond is broken when **ATP** binds to myosin
  3. ATP is broken down into **ADP and P**, and position of myosin head changes & binds to a new actin site, further along molecule (called a cross-bridge)
  4. Release of ADP and P from the myosin bends the myosin head and the molecules slide over one another (power stroke)
- The cross-bridge is broken when a new ATP binds to the myosin head (1)
  - The process repeats in cycles





## Control of muscle contraction

- **Ca<sup>2+</sup>** ions and regulatory proteins control muscle contraction
- In muscle at rest myosin binding sites on actin are blocked by regulatory proteins
- When Ca<sup>2+</sup> ions released, they bind with regulatory protein Troponin & binding sites are exposed
- Muscle cell is now able to contract

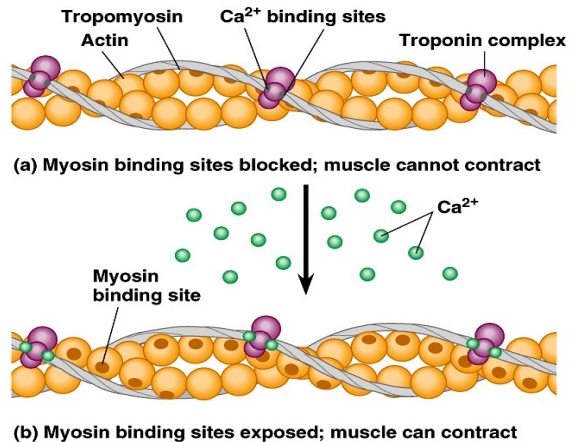


Fig. 49.34

## Stimulating a muscle contraction

- Muscles are stimulated to contract by nerves
- An nerve impulse comes from a motor neuron cell to the neuromuscular junction
- A neurotransmitter, **Acetylcholine**, is released stimulating the muscle cell
- The stimulus changes the permeability of the **sarcoplasmic reticulum** (specialised endoplasmic reticulum in muscle cells)

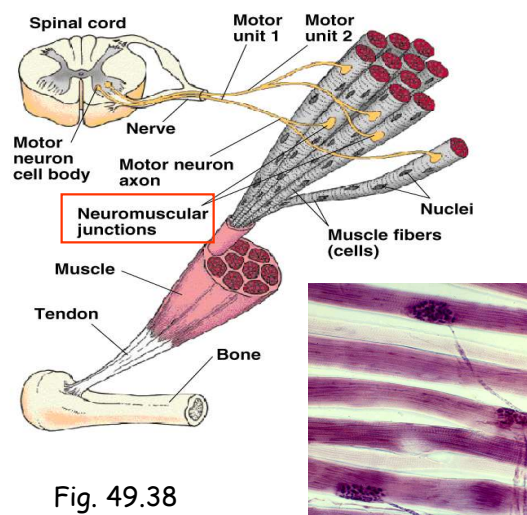


Fig. 49.38

## Stimulating a muscle contraction

- The sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR) stores  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ions
- the change in permeability in the SR causes the **release of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$**  into the cytoplasm of muscle cells
- The  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ions bind to regulatory protein and **myosin binding sites become exposed**

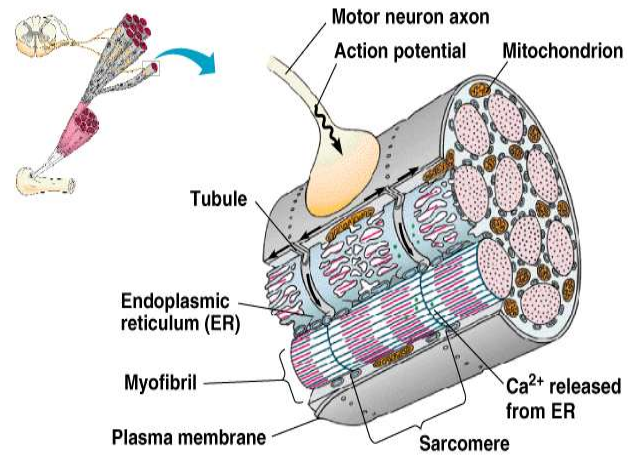


Fig. 49.35

## How muscle action is varied

- A **motor unit** consists of a single motor nerve cell & all the muscle fibres it controls
- When a motor nerve cell fires, all fibres in unit contract
- The strength of muscle action depends on how many motor units are activated
  - eg: to lift a fork/ lift a textbook

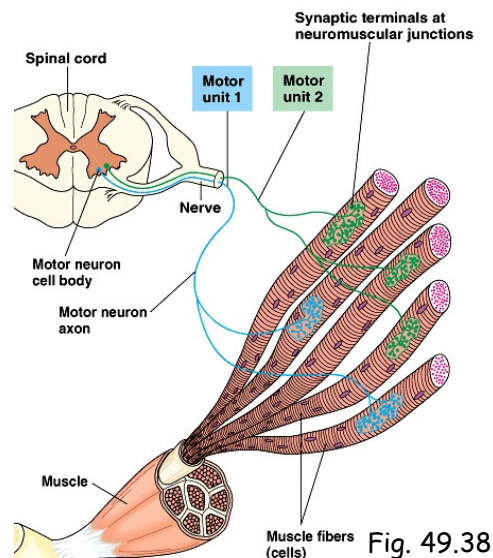


Fig. 49.38

## Another way of obtaining variation in contractions

- Variation in frequency of nerve impulses in the motor nerve cells (neurons) can vary strength of muscle response
- If a second impulse (action potential) arrives before response to first is complete -> **summation** occurs & a greater muscle contraction

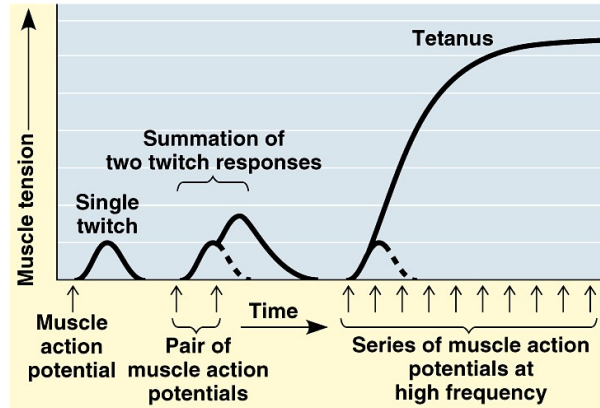


Fig. 49.37

**Putting it all together:** what is the sequence of events in muscle contraction? Start from the action potential reaching the synaptic terminal of a motor neuron.

## Quick Question

1. Muscles are connected to bones by \_\_\_\_\_.

- A) thick filaments
- B) ligaments
- C) tendons
- D) myofibrils

## Quick Question

2. Functionally, what is the muscle fiber's fundamental unit of contraction?

- A) thick filament
- B) thin filament
- C) myofibril
- D) sarcomere

## Quick Question

3. According to the sliding-filament model of muscle contraction, a sarcomere contracts when its \_\_\_\_\_.

- A) thick filaments slide across the ends of the sarcomere
- B) thin filaments slide across the ends of the sarcomere
- C) thin and thick filaments slide further away from each other
- D) thin and thick filaments slide past each other to get closer together