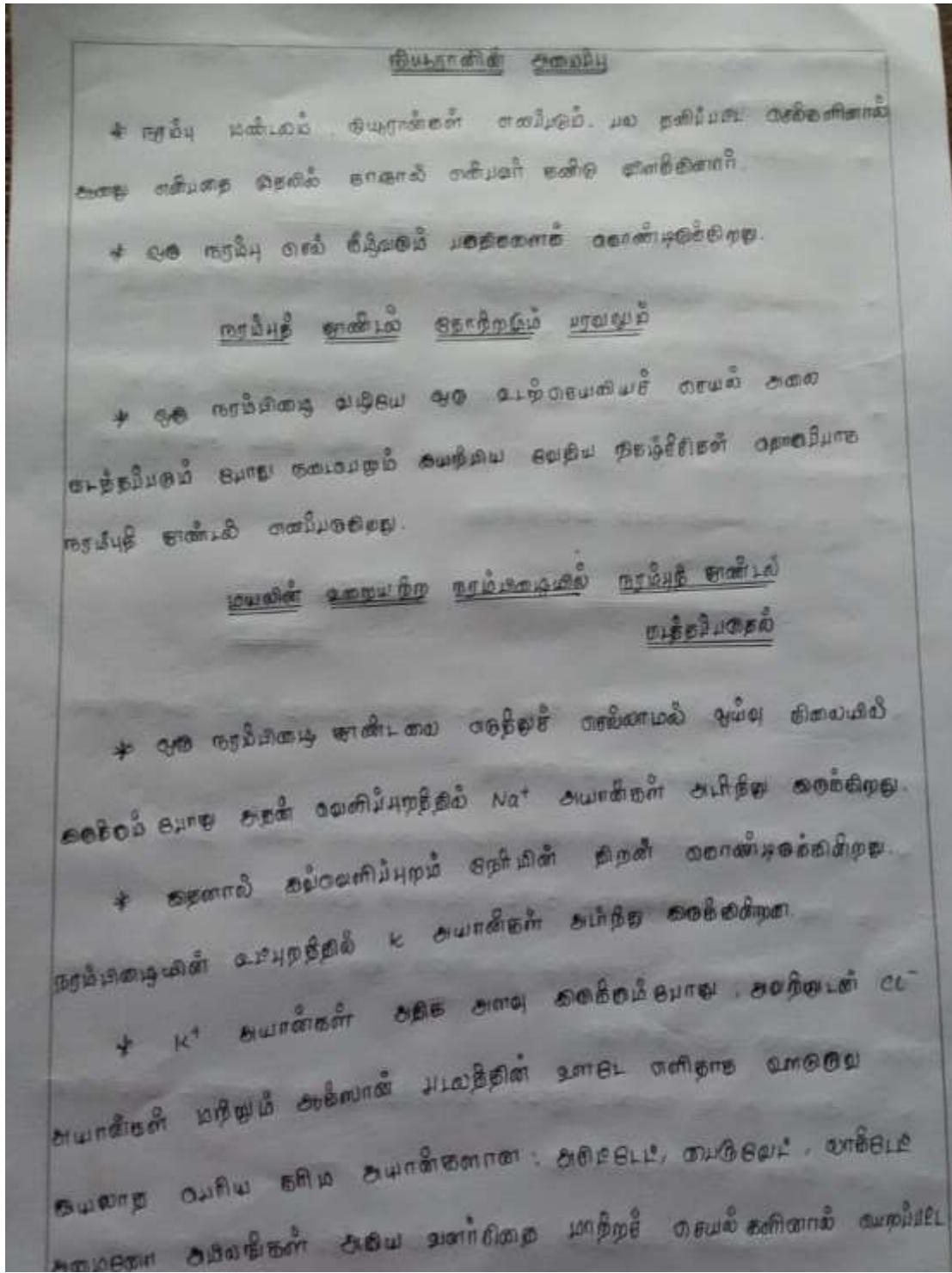


III B.Sc : Animal Physiology and Biochemistry

III unit- Material in Tamil



அயான்கள் கருப்பதால் நரம்பிழைப்புகள் உட்புறம் எதிரி மிக் திறன்
கொண்டிருக்கின்றது.

* நரம்பில் சூண்டல் 5 படிநிலைகளில் கடத்தப்படுகின்றது.

புய்ய நிலை மின் அடுத்த அளவு தொற்றம்

* அங்கொயினாசத்தில் உட்புறத்திற்கும் வெளிப்புறத்திற்கும் கடைபடி அயான்கள்
கனிமிகள் பரவல் வேறுபாடு கருக்கிறது.

* சல்பைடு திரவத்தில் Na^+ மற்றும் Cl^- அயான்களின் அடர்வு
அதிகமாகவும் சல்பைடு திரவத்தில் K^+ மற்றும் மெரிய கரிம அயான்களின்
(Ca^{2+}) அடர்வு அதிகமாகவும் கருக்கிறது.

நரம்பிழைப்பு படலத்தின் மின்னடுத்த அளவு

வேறுபாடு

* கம்படலம் தெரிந்தெடுத்ததுடன் அயான்கள் அல்லது காடி அயான்களை
மேலேயே கடத்தும் திறன் கொண்டிருக்கிறது.

* கம்படலத்தின் உட்புறம் மற்றும் வெளிப்புறங்களில் உள்ள உள்மேல
வெவ்வேறு சல அயான்கள்க்கிடையே அடர்வு வேறுபாடு கருக்கிறது.

* தீக்காரணிகளால் நரம்பிழைப்பு படலத்தின் ஒரு பக்கங்க்கிடையே மின்
அடுத்த வேறுபாடு தொன்றுகிறது.

* அதிக அடர்வு கொண்ட திரவம், குறைந்த அடர்வு கொண்ட திரவத்திற்கு
எதிரி மின் திறன் கொண்டதாகிறது.

நரம்பிழையின் படலத்தின் ஒரு பக்கங்க்கிடையே உள்ள குடி மின்

அடுத்த அளவு வெறுபாடு. வய்வு நிலை மின் அடுத்த அளவு அலைவு படல
மீன் அடுத்த அளவு எனப்படுகிறது.

* அது - 0.7 வோல்ட் அலைவு -70 மி. வோல்ட்ஸ். கிந்தகலகல்
நரம்பிதாசுயின் படலம் மின் முண்பிரியக்க கூற்றல் தொண்டுக்கினிந்து
எனப்படுகின்றது.

* வய்வு நிலை மின் அடுத்த அளவு டொனான் சமநிலை எனப்படும்.

* உயநிலை - வெதிய சமநிலையைச் சார்ந்திருக்கிறது.

* Na^+ , K^+ மற்றும் Cl^- அயான்கள் உயருள்ள செல்களில் உளிநம்
வெளியேயும் கய்யயிச்சி சவ்வறை டொனான் சமநிலை முன் அறிவிக்கின்றது.

மின் முண்பிரியக்கம் நீக்கம்

* ஒரு நரம்பி சாண்பிபுமி போது. நரம்பிதாசும் படலத்தின் உயருவ
கடந்தும் உயலிது மாறுபடுகின்றது.

* சாண்டல் வெதியந் சாண்டலாதவோ அலைவு மின்சாந்தந் சாண்டலாதவோ
கூக்கலாம்.

* நரம்பி சாண்பிபுடலில் Na^+ அயான்கள் உயருவாக உட்புகின்
- றது. சுவ்வாடு Na^+ அயானும் சநர் மின் நிறம் உடையதாக கடுப்பதால்
கலை உட்புகுந்தவுடன் செலிலின் உட்புகும் சநர் மின் தொண்டுக்கி மாறும்.

* உவ்வாறு மின் நிறிகள் கை பக்கங்கிலும் தலைக்கிதாக
மாறினறல் மின்முண்பிரியக்கம் எனப்படும்.

மின் முனைப்பியக்கம் நிகழ்வுகள்

* K^+ அயான்கள் தங்கின் எதிர் மின் தரவுடன் Na^+ அயான்கள் உட்புகும் வேகத்தை விட அதிகமாக செல்லிவிடுவது வெளியேறுகின்றன.

* அதிக அளவு எதிர் மின் தரவு கொண்ட K^+ அயான்கள் செல்கின் வெளியேற்றை உடைத்தவுடன் அப்பகுதி மீண்டும் எதிர் மின் தரவு உடையதாக மாறுகின்றது.

* கிதனால் செல்கின் உட்புகு மீண்டும் எதிர் மின் தரவு உடையதாக மாறுகுகின்றது.

* கிற்றிகழ்ச்சி மின்முனைப்பியக்கம் நிகழ்வுகள் அல்லது ரிப்போலரைசேஷன் எனப்படுகின்றது. கீப்போலரைசேஷன் மீண்டும் வயிடி நிலை மீள் அடுத்த அளவிற்கு அடைகிறது.

உளர்சிதை மாற்ற பம்ப்

* செல்கின் உட்புகுத்திவிடுகின்ற செயல்பாடு கட்டிதல் மூலம் அயான்களை வெளியேறுதல் சோடியம் பம்ப் எனப்படுகிறது.

* அல்லாவு K^+ அயான்கள் செல்கின் வெளியேறுத்திவிடுகின்ற செல்கினுள் செயல்பாடு கட்டிதல் மூலம் கட்டிப்புகுகின்றன.

* அது மொட்டாசியம் பம்ப் எனப்படுகின்றது. அல்லாவு செயல்பாடும் அரிந்து தொகுப்பாக சோடியம் மொட்டாசியம் மாற்ற பம்ப் எனப்படுகின்றன.

* அரி செயல்கள் அயான்கள் அரிவு வட்டத்திடு எதிராகச் செயல்பட வெணியுதால் செல்கின் உளர்சிதை மாற்றத்திடு மருப்பமும் சீதமின் உதையுடன் செயல்படுகின்றன.

செயல் மின் அடுத்த அளவு தொற்றி

* Na^+ அயான் உள்ள ஹைட்ரஜன் , நரம் பிதையில் அக் குறிப்பிட படாத பகுதியில் வெளிப்புறம் மூலிய காலத்திற்கு எதிர் மின் திறன் உடையதாக மாறுகின்றது.

* ஊதால் குறிப்பிட படாத பகுதியை அடுத்தமைந்த பகுதி கடுமையான நேரத்தில் நேர் மின் திறன் கொண்டதாக நான் கருதுகின்றது.

* கவியாறு நரம் பிதையில் அடுத்தமைந்த கடுமையான காலத்தில் காணப்படும் மின் அடுத்த அளவு வெறுமுகள் செயல் மின் அடுத்த அளவு அளவிடப்படுகிறது.

* கவியாறு காணப்படும் மின்முனைப்பிக்கும் காலையே ஒரு உள்நகர மின்சாரம் குடும் குறிப்பிடப்படுகின்றது.

* எதிர்நேர் மின் திறிகள் வலிமையானது அளவிடும் சக்தி கொண்ட காலத்தில் நரம் பிதையில் படலத்தின் கடுமையான காலம் நேர் மின் திறன் , எதிர் மின் திறனை தொற்றி மிகுகின்றது.

* கடுமையான ஊதால் கடுமையான அடுத்தமைந்த பகுதியில் மின் முனைப்பிக்கும் நீக்கப்படுகின்றது.

* கடுமையான முனைப்பிக்கும் நீக்கப்படும் செயல் , படலத்தின் உள்நகர காலத்தில் கடுமையான அளவிடப்படுகிறது.

* உடனடி Na^+ அயானிகள் வெறுமையான செயல் முறை காணப்படாதபோது மிகுந்த காலத்தில் கடுமையான அளவிடப்படுகிறது.

ഓർഗ്ഗാനോ - ഗ്ലോബലൈസ്ഡ് താഴ്ന്നാവിസ് :

* ഓർഗ്ഗാനോ പ്രകാശ മർദ്ദമാത്ര ന്യൂനതയിൽ റെഡ് റെഡ് ലൈറ്റ് സ്പെക്ട്രം താഴ്ന്നാവിസ്.

റേഡ് ലൈറ്റ് - റേഡ് ലൈറ്റ് താഴ്ന്നാവിസ് :

* ജീവ ഏക ന്യൂനതയിൽ റേഡ് ലൈറ്റ് സ്പെക്ട്രം സ്പെക്ട്രം താഴ്ന്നാവിസ് ആകും.

2) ഓർഗ്ഗാനോ - ന്യൂനത താഴ്ന്നാവിസ് അല്ലെങ്കിൽ ന്യൂനത സ്പെക്ട്രം - ജീവ ന്യൂനത സ്പെക്ട്രം റെഡ് ലൈറ്റ് സ്പെക്ട്രം താഴ്ന്നാവിസ്.

3) ഓർഗ്ഗാനോയിൽ പ്രകാശ പര്യവേഷണ റെഡ് ലൈറ്റ് സ്പെക്ട്രം താഴ്ന്നാവിസ്.

4) റെഡ് ലൈറ്റ് സ്പെക്ട്രം പ്രകാശങ്ങൾ റെഡ് ലൈറ്റ് സ്പെക്ട്രം താഴ്ന്നാവിസ്.

5) ഓർഗ്ഗാനോ പ്രകാശങ്ങൾ മറ്റു സ്പെക്ട്രം റെഡ് ലൈറ്റ് സ്പെക്ട്രം താഴ്ന്നാവിസ്.

* താഴ്ന്നാവിസ് റെഡ് ലൈറ്റ് , ഏക ന്യൂനതയിൽ താഴ്ന്നാവിസ് - കൂടുതൽ മർദ്ദമാത്ര ന്യൂനതയിൽ പ്രകാശ പ്രകാശങ്ങൾ കൂടുതൽ താഴ്ന്നാവിസ് മറ്റു റെഡ് ലൈറ്റ് . കൂടുതൽ താഴ്ന്നാവിസ് .

* റേഡ് ലൈറ്റ് സ്പെക്ട്രം സ്പെക്ട്രം , ഓർഗ്ഗാനോ പ്രകാശ - സ്പെക്ട്രം സ്പെക്ട്രം സ്പെക്ട്രം . കൂടുതൽ താഴ്ന്നാവിസ് മറ്റു 0.5 മുതൽ 2.4 വരെ വേഗതയിൽ സ്പെക്ട്രം .

* കൂടുതൽ താഴ്ന്നാവിസ് സ്പെക്ട്രം സ്പെക്ട്രം . താഴ്ന്നാവിസ് സ്പെക്ട്രം സ്പെക്ട്രം .

* ജീവൻതിരുത്ത് അറിയാതെ കോലിൻ അറിയാതെ വേർപി
വെച്ചാണ് ജീവിക്കുന്നത്.

* അറിയാതെ കോലിൻ കൃഷ്ണൻമാർ കർമ്മം ചെയ്ത
തെയ്യം വേർപി വെച്ചാണ്.

* അറിയാതെ കോലിൻ മരണമർമ്മം, കോലിൻ അറിയാ
തെക്കേൾ അറിയാതെ കൃഷ്ണൻമാർ അറിയാതെ.

* അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ
-റിയാ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ.

അറിയാതെ കൃഷ്ണൻമാർ കർമ്മം:

* കൃഷ്ണൻമാർ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ,
അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ കൃഷ്ണൻമാർ.

* അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ, അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ
അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ, അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ.

* അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ
അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ.

* അറിയാതെ കോലിൻ, അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ
അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ
അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ.

* അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ
അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ
അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ.

* അറിയാതെ കോലിൻ, അറിയാതെ കൃഷ്ണൻമാർ കർമ്മം
അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ
അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ അറിയാതെ

താഴെപ്പറയുന്നവയിൽ ചിലവുകൾ പരിശോധിക്കുക.

* ഭൂമിയിൽ താഴെപ്പറയുന്നവയിൽ പരിശോധിക്കുക.

* താഴെപ്പറയുന്നവയിൽ പരിശോധിക്കുക, അതിലേക്ക് താഴെപ്പറയുന്നവയിൽ പരിശോധിക്കുക, അതിലേക്ക് പരിശോധിക്കുക, അതിലേക്ക് പരിശോധിക്കുക.

താഴെപ്പറയുന്നവയിൽ പരിശോധിക്കുക :

1) താഴെപ്പറയുന്നവയിൽ പരിശോധിക്കുക, അതിലേക്ക് പരിശോധിക്കുക, അതിലേക്ക് പരിശോധിക്കുക.

2) താഴെപ്പറയുന്നവയിൽ പരിശോധിക്കുക, അതിലേക്ക് പരിശോധിക്കുക, അതിലേക്ക് പരിശോധിക്കുക.

3) താഴെപ്പറയുന്നവയിൽ പരിശോധിക്കുക, അതിലേക്ക് പരിശോധിക്കുക, അതിലേക്ക് പരിശോധിക്കുക.

* ജിജ്ഞാശീശി വേദാന്തർഗ്ഗി നന്ദിപ്രതി വേദീയ മുക്തിവ്യക്തികൾ
പ്രത്യേകം വേദപുസ്തകം ഉപേക്ഷിക്കുക.

* മാനുഷ തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ വെച്ച് ജിജ്ഞാശി വിഷ്ണുദാസ്യം
പ്രത്യേകം വേദപുസ്തകം. വിഷ്ണുദാസ്യം എന്ന സൂക്തം തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ
വെച്ച് തലമുറ വിഷ്ണുദാസ്യം വെച്ച് വേദപുസ്തകം.

* തലമുറ വിഷ്ണുദാസ്യം വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ വെച്ച് വേദപുസ്തകം
- കർമ്മങ്ങൾ. സൂക്തം തലമുറ വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ വെച്ച് വേദപുസ്തകം.
അന്ത്യം വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ:

* ഉപേക്ഷിച്ച വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ
അന്ത്യം വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ
അന്ത്യം വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ.

* ജിജ്ഞാശി വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ
അന്ത്യം വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ.

* ജിജ്ഞാശി വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ
അന്ത്യം വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ.
അന്ത്യം വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ.

* ജിജ്ഞാശി വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ
അന്ത്യം വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ.
അന്ത്യം വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ വെച്ച് തത്ത്വങ്ങൾ.

പുസ്തക വിവരങ്ങൾ

* ഇദ്ദേഹത്തെ വിവരിക്കുന്ന പുസ്തകത്തിന്റെ രചയിതാവ് ആണ് ജി. ശങ്കരൻ നമ്പ്യാർ (1849-1936) ഇദ്ദേഹത്തെ സംബന്ധിച്ച പല കൃതികളും ഇദ്ദേഹത്തിന്റെ കൃതികളാണ്.

പുസ്തകത്തിന്റെ പേര്

* ഇദ്ദേഹത്തെ സംബന്ധിച്ച പുസ്തകത്തിന്റെ പേര് 'ഇദ്ദേഹത്തെ സംബന്ധിച്ച പല കൃതികളും ഇദ്ദേഹത്തിന്റെ കൃതികളാണ്' എന്നാണ്.

* ഇദ്ദേഹത്തെ സംബന്ധിച്ച പുസ്തകത്തിന്റെ പേര് 'ഇദ്ദേഹത്തെ സംബന്ധിച്ച പല കൃതികളും ഇദ്ദേഹത്തിന്റെ കൃതികളാണ്' എന്നാണ്.

* ഇദ്ദേഹത്തെ സംബന്ധിച്ച പുസ്തകത്തിന്റെ പേര് 'ഇദ്ദേഹത്തെ സംബന്ധിച്ച പല കൃതികളും ഇദ്ദേഹത്തിന്റെ കൃതികളാണ്' എന്നാണ്.

நாளமில்லாச் சுரப்பிகள்

நாளமில்லாச் சுரப்பிகள் அல்லது நாளமில் சுரப்பிகள் (இலங்கை வழக்கு: கானில் சுரப்பிகள் அல்லது அகஞ்சுரக்கும் சுரப்பிகள், ஆங்கிலம்: endocrine glands) என்பவை தாம் சுரக்கும் இயக்குநீர்களை, நாளங்களினூடாகக் கடத்தாமல், நேரடியாக இரத்தத்தில் கலக்க விட்டு உடலின் பல பகுதிகளுக்கும் அனுப்பும் சுரப்பிகளாகும். இவை அகச்சுரப்பித் தொகுதி யின் அங்கங்களாகும். கூம்புச் சுரப்பி, கபச் சுரப்பி, கணையம், சூலகம், விந்தகம், கேடயச் சுரப்பி, இணைகேடயச் சுரப்பி, ஐப்போத்தலாமசு, அண்ணீரகச் சுரப்பி ஆகியன நம் உடலில் உள்ள முக்கிய நாளமில்லாச் சுரப்பிகள் ஆகும். கபச் சுரப்பி மற்றும் ஐப்போத்தலாமசு ஆகியவை நரம்புசார் நாளமில்லாச் (neuroendocrine) சுரப்பிகள் ஆகும்.

வளர்ச்சி மற்றும் வளர்சிதை மாற்றங்கள் போன்ற உடற் தொழிற்பாடுகளை நாளமில்லாச் சுரப்பிகள் சுரக்கும் இயக்குநீர் கட்டுப்படுத்துகின்றது. இயக்குநீரின் அளவு கூடினாலோ குறைந்தாலோ நாளமில்லாச் சுரப்பி நோய்கள் உருவாகின்றன.

PITUITARY GLAND

நாளமில்லாச் சுரப்பிகள் அனைத்தையும் pituitary gland (அல்லது மூளையடிச் சுரப்பி) ஒழுங்குப்படுத்திச் செயற்படுவதால், இது நாளமில்லாக் குழுவின் நடத்துநர் என்றழைக்கப்படுகிறது. இது பட்டாணி அளவில் மூளையின் அடிப்பகுதியுடன் இணைந்து காணப்படுகிறது.

கபச் சுரப்பியின் கதுப்புகள்

மூளையடிச் சுரப்பியின் முன் கதுப்பு அடினோஹைபோபைசிஸ் (Adenohypophysis) என்றும், பின் கதுப்பு நியுரோஹைபோபைசிஸ் (Neurohypophysis) என்றும் அழைக்கப்படுகிறது.

அடினோஹைபோபைசிஸ் இயக்குநீர்கள் வகைப்பாடும் செயல்களும்

1. வளர்ச்சி இயக்குநீர் (Somatotrophic Hormone): இந்த இயக்குநீர் பொதுவாக வளர்ச்சியைக் கட்டுப்படுத்துவதாக உள்ளது. இதன் குறைவான சுரப்புக் காரணமாகச் சிறியவர்களுக்கு, வளர்ச்சிக் குன்றிக் குள்ளத் தன்மையும், மிகைச் சிறப்புக் காரணமாக அத்தகையோருக்கு, வளர்ச்சி மிகுந்து அசுரத் தன்மையும் ஏற்படுகிறது. பெரியவர்களுக்கு இம்மிகைச் சுரப்பினால் கை கால்கள், கீழ்த்தாடை ஆகியவை நீண்டதாக (அக்ரோமேகலி) அமையும்.

2. கேடயச் சுரப்பியைத் தூண்டும் இயக்குநீர் (Thyrotrophic Hormone): இந்த வகை இயக்குநீர் கேடயச் சுரப்பியின் வளர்ச்சியைத் தூண்டி, கேடயச் சுரப்பி இயக்குநீர் (Thyroxine) உற்பத்தியை அதிகரிக்கிறது.
3. அண்ணீரகப் புறணியைத் தூண்டும் இயக்குநீர் (Adrenocorticotrophic Hormone) : அல்டோஸ்டீரோன் (Aldosterone) மற்றும் கார்டிசோன் இயக்குநீர் உற்பத்தியை இது தூண்டுகின்றது.
4. பாலிக்கிள் உயிர்மியைத் தூண்டும் இயக்குநீர்: பெண்களில் கிராமியன் பாலிக்கிள் அண்டச் சுரப்பியின் முதிர்வடைவதைத் தூண்டி அண்ட உற்பத்தியை அதிகரிக்கின்றது. அதுபோல், ஆண்களில் விந்து உருவாதலைத் தூண்டுகிறது.
5. [லூட்டினைசிங் இயக்குநீர்](#) (பெண்) அல்லது இடையீட்டுச் செல்களைத் தூண்டும் இயக்குநீர் (ஆண்) : கிராமியன் பாலிக்கிளிலிருந்து அண்டம் வெளியேறுதல் என்னும் அண்ட விடுபடும் நிகழ்விற்கு லூட்டினைசிங் இயக்குநீர் பயன்படுகிறது. [ஈத்திரோசன்](#) (Estrogen), [புரோஜெஸ்டரோன்](#) (Progesterogen) முதலான பெண்மை இயக்குநீர்களின் உற்பத்திக்கு அடிகோலுகிறது. ஆண்களில் இடையீட்டுச் செல்கள், [ஆண்மையியக்குநீரான](#) இரெசுத்தோசுத்தெரோன் (Testosterone) இயக்குநீரைச் சுரக்கச் செய்கின்றன.
6. பால் சுரப்பு இயக்குநீர் (Lactogenic hormone) : இது பெண்களில் பால் சுரப்பியின் வளர்ச்சி மற்றும் குழந்தைப் பெற்றிற்குப் பின்னர், பால் உற்பத்தியைத் தூண்டுகிறது.

நியூரோஹைபோபைசிஸ் இயக்குநீர்கள் வகைப்பாடும் செயல்களும்[தொகு]

1. ஆக்சிடோசின் : இவ்வியக்குநீர் பெண்களில் கருப்பையைச் சுருக்கியும் விரிவடையச் செய்தும் குழந்தைப்பேறு நிகழ்வை விரைவுபடுத்துகின்றது.
2. வாசோ பிரக்சின் மற்றும் சிறுநீர்த்தடுப்பி இயக்குநீர் (Antidiuretic hormone) : இந்த வகை இயக்குநீர், நீர் மீள உறிஞ்சப்படவும் அடர்த்தியான சிறுநீரைக் குறைந்த அளவில் உற்பத்திச் செய்திடவும் உறுதுணையாக இருக்கிறது. மேலும், இரத்தக் குழாய்களைச் சுருங்கச் செய்து இரத்த அழுத்தத்தை அதிகரிக்கச் செய்கிறது. இவ்வியக்குநீரில் பாதிப்புகள் ஏற்பட்டுச் சுரப்பின் அளவு குறையும்போது, மிகை நீரிழிவு நோய் (Diabetes insipidue) உண்டாகின்றது. இதன் காரணமாக, சிறுநீர் நீர்த்து அதிக அளவு வெளியேறுகிறது.

Thyroid gland

கழுத்துப் பகுதியில் குரல்வளையின் இரண்டு புறங்களிலும் பக்கத்திற்கு ஒன்றாக இரு கதுப்புகளைக் கொண்டு காணப்படும் அமைப்பிற்கு கேடயச் சுரப்பி என்று பெயர். கேடயச் சுரப்பியக்குநீர் (Thyroxine) இங்குதான் சுரக்கிறது. இச்சுரப்பியக்குநீரில் அமினோ அமிலமும் அயோடினும் காணப்படுகின்றன. இச்சுரப்பியானது, உடல் வளர்ச்சியை மறைமுகமாகப் பாதிப்பதன் காரணமாக ஆளுமை இயக்குநீர் எனவும் குறிப்பிடப்பெறுகிறது.

பணிகள்

கேடயச் சுரப்பியக்குநீர், வளர்சிதை மாற்றத்தை அதிகரிக்கின்றது. உடலின் வெப்பத்தை அதிகப்படுத்த துணைசெய்கிறது. திசு வளர்ச்சி மற்றும் மாறுபாடு அடைவதைத் தூண்டுகின்றது. மேலும், குருதியில் அயோடின் மற்றும் சர்க்கரை அளவை ஒழுங்குப்படுத்துகிறது. சிறுநீரகச் செயல்பாட்டையும், சிறுநீர்ப் போக்கையும் கட்டுப்பாட்டுக்குள் வைத்திருக்கிறது.

குறைபாடுகளால் உண்டாகும் விளைவுகள்

கேடயச் சுரப்புக்குறை நோய் (Hypothyroidism)

கேடயச் சுரப்பியக்குநீரின் குறை சுரப்புக் காரணமாக, முன் கழுத்துக் கழலை, குறை வளர்சிதை மாற்றம், உடல் வளர்ச்சிக் குறை நோய் (Cretinism) முதலான குறைபாடுகள் ஏற்படுகின்றன.

1. முன்கழுத்துக் கழலை : உணவில் அயோடின் பற்றாக்குறையால் இந்நோய் உண்டாகிறது. இதன் காரணமாக, கழுத்துப் பகுதியில் கேடயச் சுரப்பி வீங்கிக் காணப்படும்.
2. மிக்சிடிமா என்றழைக்கப்படும் குறைவளர்சிதை மாற்றக் குறைபாடு பெரியவர்களுக்கு ஏற்படுகிறது. குறைந்த வளர்சிதை மாற்றவீதம், உடல், மனம் தரவுற்றுக் காணப்படுதல், எடை அதிகரிப்பு, தோல் கடினத்தன்மை, குறைவான இதயத்துடிப்பு, மனச்சோர்வு முதலான அறிகுறிகள் இக்குறைபாட்டால் நிகழ்கின்றன.
3. உடல் வளர்ச்சிக் குறை நோய் : இது சிறியவர்களில் காணப்படும். இந்நோய் பாதிப்பினால் குள்ளத்தன்மை, மனவளர்ச்சிக் குறைபாடு, குறைபாடுடைய பற்கள், நாக்குத் துருத்துதல், தோல் தளர்வுத்தன்மை முதலிய அறிகுறிகள் உண்டாகும்.^[1]

கேடயச்சுரப்பு மிகைநோய் (Hyperthyroidism)

கேடயச் சுரப்பியக்குநீரின் மிகைச் சுரப்பினால், மிகையான வளர்சிதை மாற்றம், உயர் இரத்த அழுத்தம், படபடப்பு, மிகுதியாக வியர்த்தல், எடை குறைவு, களைப்படைதல், கண்களில் பிதுக்கம் போன்றவை ஏற்படுகின்றன.

Para thyroid gland

இவை கேடயச் சுரப்பிக்கு உள்ளே இருக்கின்றன. இணை இயக்குநீர் (Parathormone), கால்சிடோனின் (Calcitonin) ஆகிய இயக்குநீர் இங்கு உருவாக்கப்படுகின்றன. இவை, கால்சியம் வளர்சிதை மாற்றத்தைப் பராமரிக்கின்றன.

தைமசு சுரப்பி

இதயத்தின் மேல் அமைந்திருக்கும் பெரும் நிணநீர் அமைப்பு தைமசு சுரப்பியாகும். இது தைமொசின் என்னும் இயக்குநீரினைச் சுரக்கின்றது. தைமொசின், நோய் தொற்றிலிருந்து பாதுகாக்கிறது. மேலும், தைம நிணவணு (T lymphocyte) வேறுபாடு அடைவதைத் தூண்டிவிடுகிறது.

Adrenal gland

இச்சுரப்பியானது சிறுநீரகத்தின் மேல் அமைந்துள்ளது. இது அண்ணீரக புறணியையும் (Adrenal cortex), அண்ணீரக அகணியையும் (Adrenal medulla) உள்ளடக்கியதாகும்.

Adrenal cortex

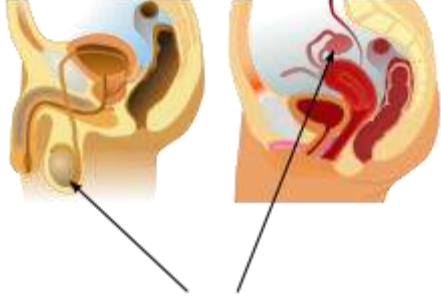
இதில் ஆல்டோஸ்டீரோன், கார்டிசோன் என்னும் இயக்குநீர்கள் சுரக்கின்றன. இவற்றுள், ஆல்டோஸ்டீரோன் நீர், சோடியம் மீண்டும் உரிஞ்சப்படுவதை ஊக்குவித்து பொட்டாசியம், பாசுபேட் அயனிகளைக் கழிவு நீக்கம் செய்கின்றது. தாது உப்புகளின் வளர்சிதை மாற்றத்தைப் பராமரிப்பு மேற்கொள்கிறது. மேலும், மின் பகுளிகளின் (Electrolytes) சமநிலை, உடல்திரவ அடர்த்தி. சவ்வூடு பரவல் அழுத்தம், இரத்த அழுத்தம் முதலியவற்றையும் இது பராமரிக்கிறது. கார்டிசோன் இயக்குநீர், கிளைக்கோசனைக் குளுக்கோசாகச் சிதைவடையச் செய்து, இரத்தத்தில் சர்க்கரையின் அளவை அதிகரிக்கிறது. தவிர, அழற்சித் தடுப்பு வினைகளைத் தோற்றுவித்து நோய்த்தடைக் காப்புத் துலங்கலைக் கட்டுப்படுத்துகின்றது.

Adrenal medulla

இது, உருமாறிய நரம்புப் புறணியணுக்களால் ஆனது. அதிரனலின், இயலண்ணீரலின் என்கிற இருவகையான இயக்குநீர்களைச் சுரக்கின்றது. இவை ஆபத்துக் கால இயக்குநீர் என அழைக்கப்படுகிறது. ஏனெனில், அழுத்தமான, அபாயகரமான சூழ்நிலைகளை உடல் விரைந்து எதிர்கொள்ள

இவை துணைபுரிகின்றன. மேலும், இவை இதயத்துடிப்பு, சுவாசம், விழிப்புணர்வுத் திறன் ஆகியவற்றை அதிகரிக்கச் செய்கின்றன. அதுபோல், கண் பாவையை விரிவடையச் செய்கின்றன. மிகையான வியர்த்தல், முடி சிலிர்க்கச் செய்தல் போன்றவற்றையும் உண்டாக்குகின்றன.

இனப்பெருக்க உட்சுரப்பி



ஆண் மற்றும் பெண் இனப்பெருக்க உட்சுரப்பிகள்

பெண்ணின் இனப் பெருக்க உறுப்பினுள் காணப்படும் இச் சுரப்பி [ஈக்திரோசன்](#) என்ற இயக்குநீரை சுரக்கிறது. பெண் பூப்பெய்தும் காலத்தில் தொடங்கி, இனப் பெருக்க உறுப்புகளின் வளர்ச்சிக்கு உதவுகிறது. மாதவிடாய் காலத்தை நிலைநாட்டுகிறது.

ஆணின் இனப் பெருக்க உறுப்பினுள் காணப்படும் இச் சுரப்பி [ஆண்மையியக்குநீரைச்](#) சுரக்கிறது. ஆண் பருவமடையவும், ஆணின் இனப் பெருக்க உறுப்புகளின் செயல்பாட்டைக் கட்டுப்படுத்தவும் உதவுகிறது.

Menstrual cycle or மாதவிடாய்

என்பது ஒரு [பூப்படைந்த](#) பெண்ணின் [உடலில்](#), மாதந்தோறும் சுழற்சி முறையில் நிகழும் ஒரு [உடலியங்கியல்](#) மாற்றமாகும்.

இது [பெண்ணின் இனப்பெருக்கத்](#) தொகுதியிலுள்ள ஒரு [உறுப்புகளில்](#) ஒன்றான [கருப்பையிலிருந்து](#), [யோனியினூடாக](#) மாதத்தில் 3-7 நாட்கள் [குருதியுடன்](#) சேர்ந்து கருப்பையின் உள் [சீதமென்சவ்வம்](#) வெளியேறுவதை குறிக்கும்.

[மருத்துவப்படி](#), ஒவ்வொரு

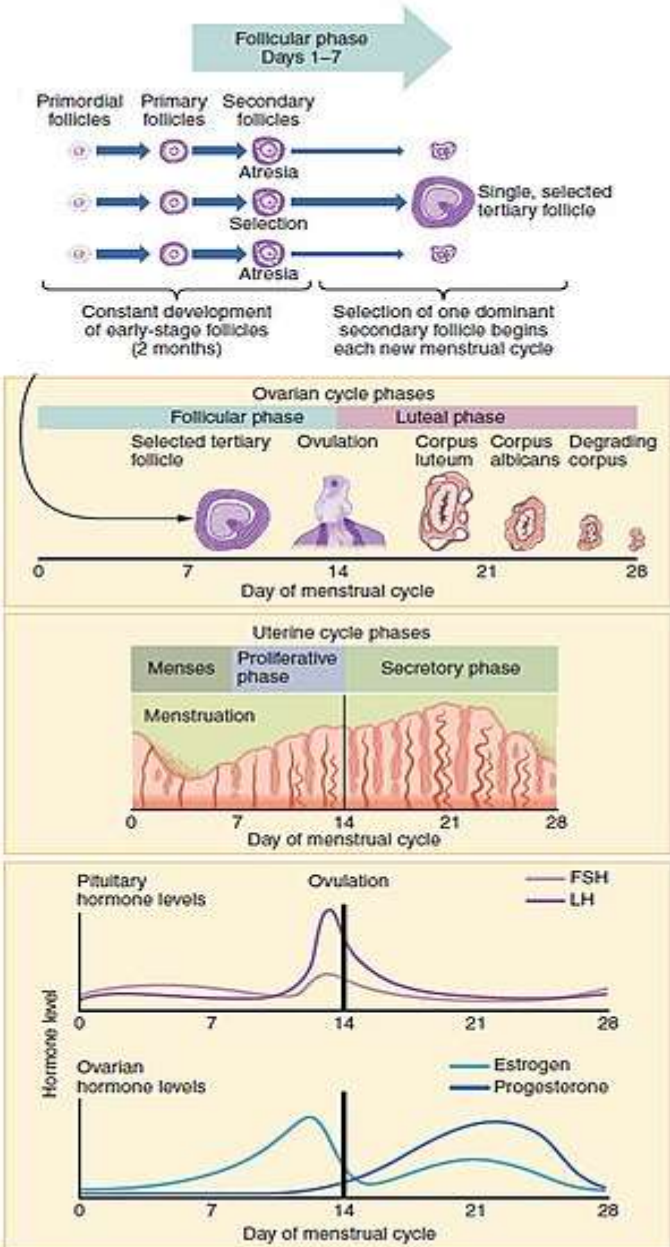
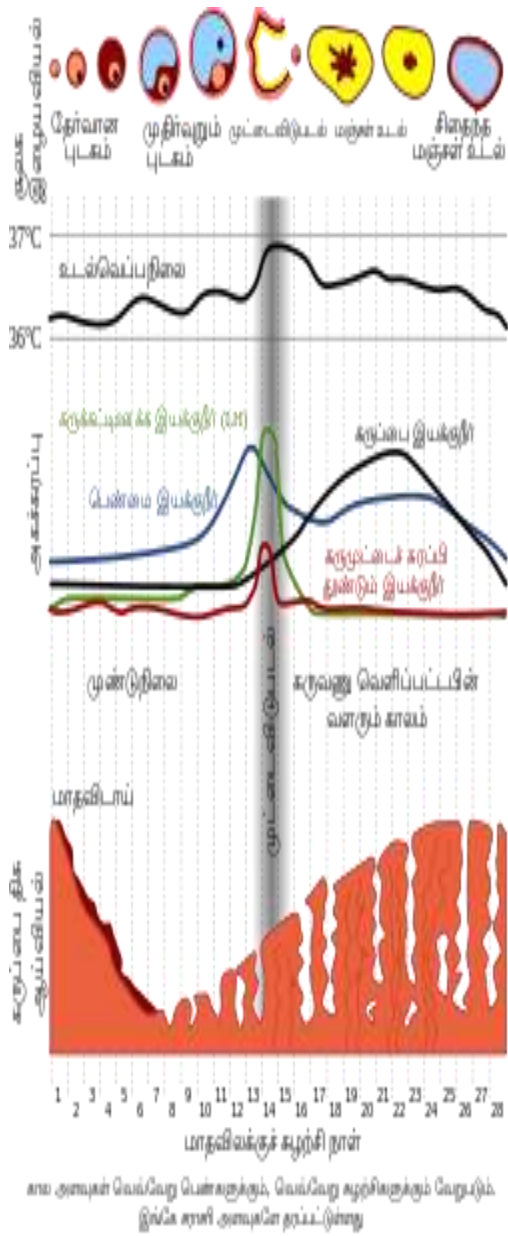
மாதமும், [கருத்தரிப்பிற்கான](#) தயார்ப்படுத்தலுக்காக, [கருப்பையின்](#)

உள் மடிப்புகளில் (endometrium) போதிய இரத்தம் நிரம்பி இருக்கிறது. ஒரு பெண் கர்பமடைவாரேயானால், கருப்பையில் தங்கும் [கருக்கட்டிய முட்டைக்கு](#) போதிய [ஊட்டச்சத்தை](#) வழங்குவதற்காகவே, இந்த குருதி நிறைந்த மடிப்புக்கள் உருவாகியிருக்கும். பெண் கருத்தரிக்காத நேரங்களில் இம்மடிப்புகளில் உள்ள தேவையற்ற [இழையங்களும்](#), அவற்றுடன் சேர்ந்து மடிப்புக்கள் இருக்கும் நுண்ணிய குருதிக் குழாய்களிலிருந்து வெளிவரும் குருதியும் வெளியே கழிவாக தள்ளப்படுகிறது. இந்நிகழ்வு மாதந்தோறும் சுமார் மூன்று முதல் ஏழு நாட்களுக்கு நடைபெறுகிறது. இதனையே [மாதவிடாய்](#) என்கிறோம்.

இந்த மாதவிடாய் வெளியேற்றம் [மாதத்திற்கு](#) ஒருமுறை யோனிமடல் ஊடாக நடைபெறுகிறது. இறுதி நாளோ அல்லது கடைசி இரு நாட்களோ வெளியேற்றம் குறைவாக இருக்கும். சில வேளைகளில் முதல் நாள் குறைவாக இருக்கும்.

மாதவிடாய் மாதவிடாய்ச் சுழற்சியின் ஒரு பகுதியாகும். இச்சுழற்சியின் நீட்டம் 21 நாட்களிலிருந்து 35 நாட்கள் வரை இருக்கும். முதல் மாதவிடாய் பொதுவாக 10 வயதிற்கும் 16 வயதிற்கும் இடையே ஒரு பெண் பூப்படையும்போது ஏற்படுகிறது.

இந்நிகழ்வு அனைத்து [பாலூட்டிகளிலும்](#) நடந்தாலும், [மனிதன்](#), மற்றும் [பரிணாம வளர்ச்சியில்](#) மனிதனுடன் நெருங்கிய தொடர்புடைய [சிம்பன்சி](#) போன்ற சில [விலங்கினங்களிலேயே](#) இவ்வாறு வெளிப்படையாக கருப்பை மடிப்பு வெளியேறுகிறது. மற்ற பாலூட்டிகளில், இனப்பெருக்க சுழற்சியின் இறுதிக் காலத்தில் கருப்பைமடிப்புகள் மீளவும் உள்ளே உறிஞ்சப்படுகின்றது.



ANIMAL PHYSIOLOGY

UNIT – IV

Section – A (7 x 2 =14 Marks)

Define the terms:

1. Hormones

hormones

2. Endocrine glands

endocrine glands

3. Growth Hormone

growth hormone

4. Goitre

goitre

5. ADH

ADH

6. Androgen and Estrogen

androgen and estrogen

7. Endometrium

endometrium

Section – B (3 x 5 =15 Marks)

8. Explain the structure and functions of Pituitary gland.

pituitary gland

9. Draw the structure of Thyroid gland and explain its functions.

thyroid gland

10. Explain the adrenal gland and its hormones.

ml;hPdy; Rug;gp kw;Wk; mjd; `hh;Nkhd;fs; gw;wp tpthp.

Section – C (3 x 10 =30 Marks)

11. Give detail account on structure and functions of endocrine glands.

ehshkpy;yhr; Rug;gpfspd; mikg;G kw;Wk; mjd; gzpfs; gw;wp tpsf;Ff.

12. Discuss the Hormonal control of reproduction.

kdpj ,dg;ngUf;fj;jpy; `hh;Nkhd;fspd; fl;LghL gw;wp tpthp.

13. Explain in detail the menstrual cycle.

khjtplha; Row;rp gw;wp tpsf;fk; jUf.

III B.Sc-Animal physiology and biochemistry -

Unit -III

Neuron Definition

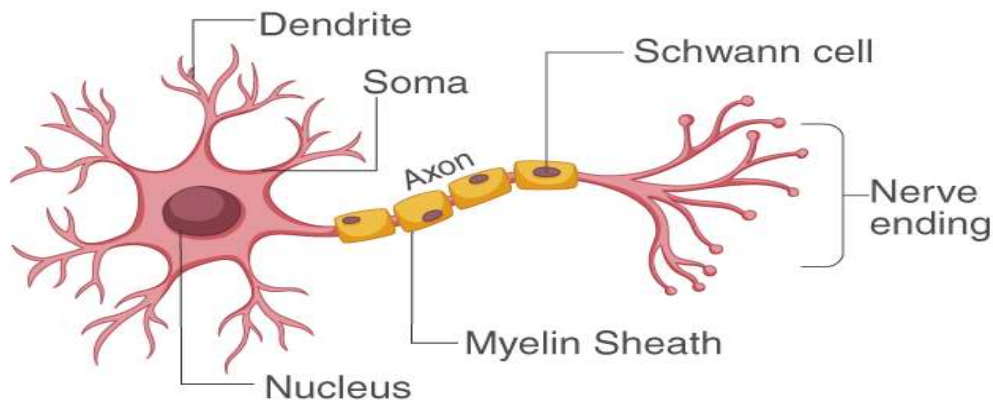
“Neurons are the fundamental unit of the nervous system specialized to transmit information to different parts of the body.”

What is a Neuron?

Neurons are the building blocks of the nervous system. They receive and transmit signals to different parts of the body. This is carried out in both physical and electrical forms. There are several different types of neurons that facilitate the transmission of information.

The sensory neurons carry information from the sensory receptor cells present throughout the body to the brain. Whereas, the motor neurons transmit information from the brain to the muscles. The interneurons transmit information between different neurons in the body.

STRUCTURE OF NEURON



Neuron Structure

A neuron varies in shape and size depending upon their function and location. All neurons have three different parts – dendrites, cell body and axon.

Parts of Neuron

Following are the different parts of a neuron:

Dendrites

These are branch-like structures that receive messages from other neurons and allow the transmission of messages to the cell body.

Cell Body

Each neuron has a cell body with a nucleus, golgi body, endoplasmic reticulum, and other components.

Axon

Axon is a tube-like structure that carries electrical impulse from the cell body to the axon terminals that passes the impulse to another neuron.

Synapse

It is the chemical junction between the terminal of one neuron and dendrites of another neuron.

Neuron Types

There are three different types of neurons:

Sensory Neurons

The sensory neurons convert signals from the external environment into corresponding internal stimuli. The sensory inputs activate the sensory neurons and carry sensory information to the brain and spinal cord. They are pseudounipolar in structure.

Motor Neurons

These are multipolar and are located in the central nervous system extending their axons outside the central nervous system. This is the most common type of neuron and transmits information from the brain to the muscles of the body.

Interneurons

They are multipolar in structure. Their axons connect only to the nearby sensory and motor neurons. They help in passing signals between two neurons.

Neuron Functions

The important functions of a neuron are:

Chemical Synapse

In chemical synapses, the action potential affects other neurons through a gap present between two neurons known as the synapse. The action potential is carried along the axon to a postsynaptic ending that initiates the release of chemical messengers known as neurotransmitters. These neurotransmitters excite the postsynaptic neurons that generate an action potential of its own.

Electrical Synapse

When two neurons are connected by a gap junction, it results in an electrical synapse. These gaps include ion channels that help in the direct transmission of a positive electrical signal. These are much faster than chemical synapses.

What is nerve impulse in simple words?

A nerve impulse is an electrical phenomenon that occurs because of a difference in electrical charge across the plasma membrane of a neuron. ... The action potential travels rapidly down the neuron's axon as an electric current. A nerve impulse is transmitted to another cell at either an electrical or a chemical synapse

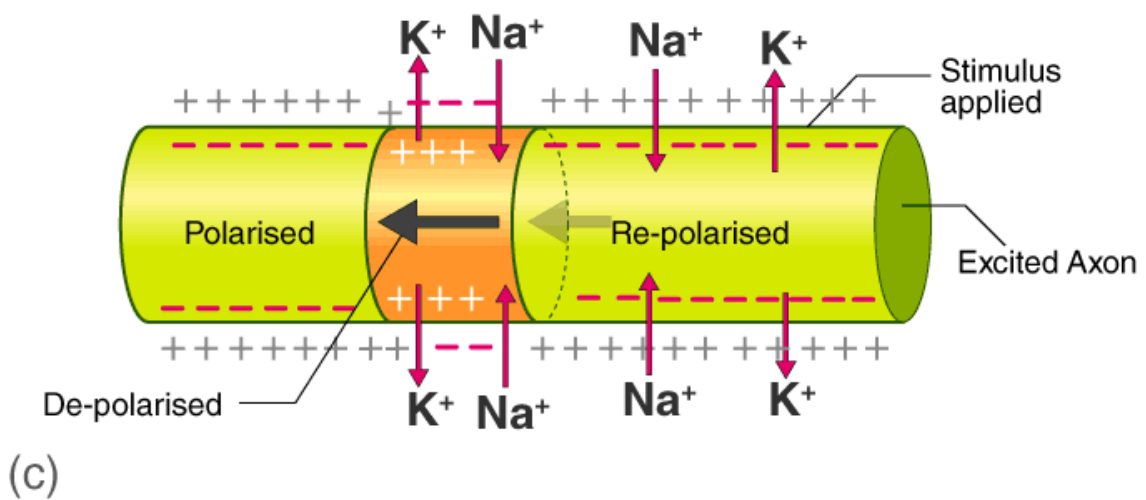
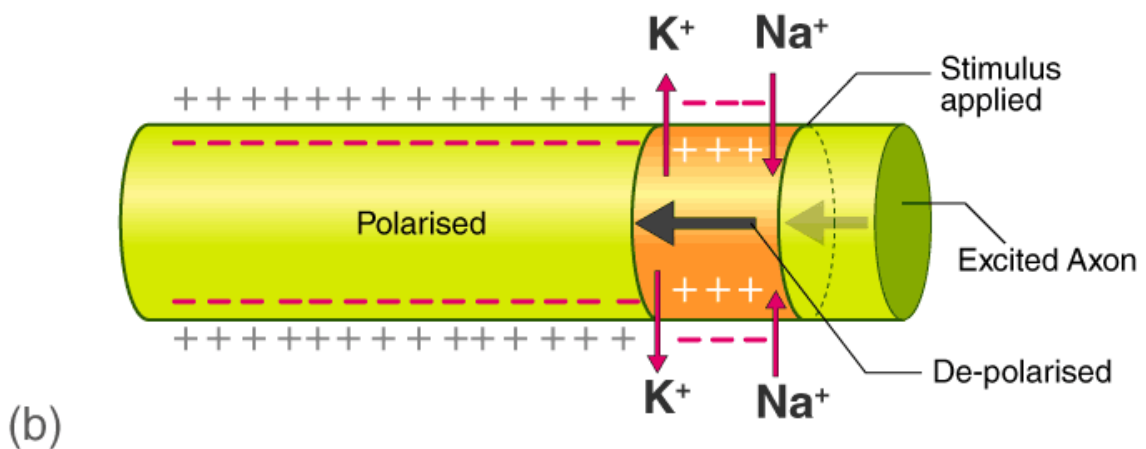
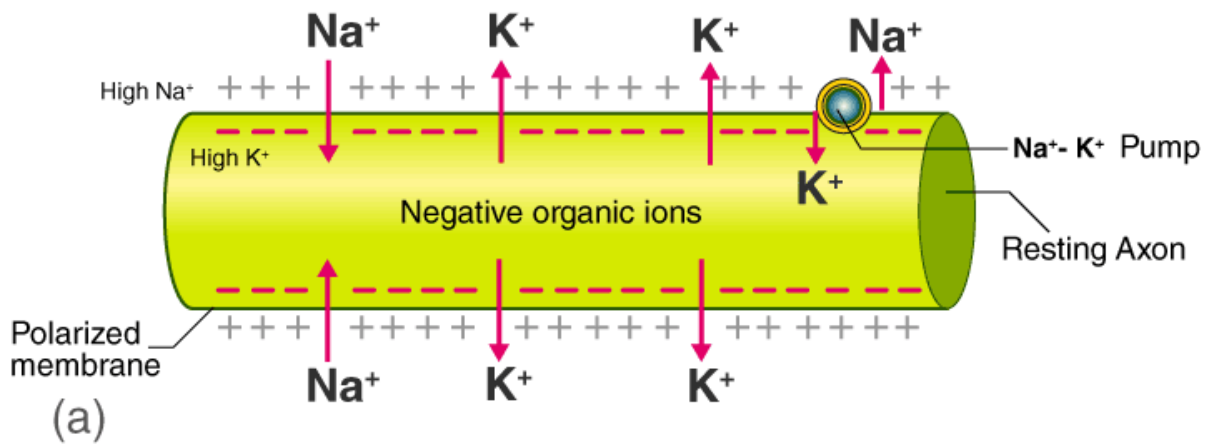
What is conduction of nerve impulse?

Conduction of Nerve Impulse. A nerve impulse is the electric signals that pass along the dendrites to generate a nerve impulse or an action potential. ... Conduction of nerve impulse occurs due to the presence of active and electronic potentials along the conductors.

A nerve impulse is the electric signals that pass along the dendrites to generate a nerve impulse or an action potential. An action potential is due to the movement of ions in and out of the cell. It specifically involves sodium and potassium ions. They are moved in and out of the cell through sodium and potassium channels and sodium-potassium pump.

Conduction of nerve impulse occurs due to the presence of active and electronic potentials along the conductors. Transmission of signals internally between the cells is achieved through a synapse. Nerve conductors comprise relatively higher membrane resistance and low axial resistance. The electrical synapse has its application in escape reflexes, heart and in the retina of vertebrates. They are mainly used whenever there is a requirement of fast response and timing being crucial. The ionic currents pass through the two cell membrane when the action potential reaches the stage of such synapse.

CONDUCTION OF NERVE IMPULSE



The axon or nerve fibres are in the form of a cylinder wherein the interior of the axon is filled with axoplasm and the exterior is covered with axolemma. The nerve fibres are immersed in ECF. The solution is in the ionic form that is present in axoplasm and extracellular fluid or ECF.

Outside the axon, the negatively charged chloride ions are neutralized in the presence of positively charged sodium ions. Negatively charged protein molecules are neutralized in the presence of potassium ions within the axoplasm. The membrane of a neuron is -ve inside and +ve outside. Resting potential would be the difference in charge. The difference in charge might vary from seventy to ninety millivolts, as a result, the membrane would be polarized. Sodium potassium pump operates to keep resting potential in equilibrium.

The pump is placed on the axon membrane. Now the potassium ions are pumped from ECF to axoplasm and sodium ions are pumped from axoplasm to ECF.

The sodium-potassium pump stops operating when a stimulus is applied to a membrane of a nerve fibre. The stimulus could be either electrical, chemical or mechanical. The potassium ions rush outside the membrane and sodium ions rush inside the membrane as a result negative charges are present outside and positive charges are present inside.

The nerve fibres are either depolarized or they are said to be in the action potential. The action potential travelling along the membrane is called the nerve impulse. It is around + 30 mV. The sodium-potassium pump starts to operate once the action potential is completed. As a result, the axon membrane will obtain a resting potential by repolarization.

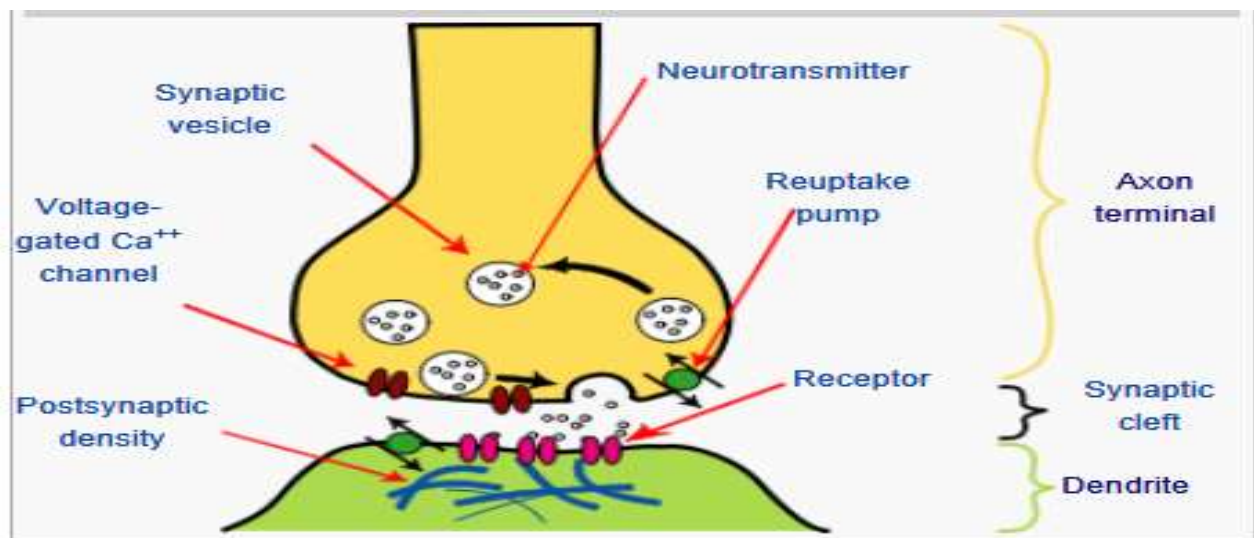
Now the process takes place in reverse order. It is a reversal of the process that has taken place during an action potential. Here, potassium ions will be rushed inside and sodium ions will be rushed outside. Impulse would not be transmitted through the nerve fibre during the refractory period.

In the case of white fibres, saltatory propagation takes place. That is impulse jumps from node to node and it increases with increase in the speed of nerve impulse. It is around twenty times faster compared to that of the non-medullated nerve fibres. The transmission of nerve impulse would rely upon the diameter of the fibre. For instance, the nerve impulse of a mammal is one twenty meters per second whereas nerve impulse of a Frog is 30 meters per second.

Synapse.

Synapse, also called **neuronal junction**, the site of transmission of electric nerve impulses between two nerve cells (neurons) or between a neuron and a gland or muscle cell (effector). A synaptic connection between a neuron and a muscle cell is called a neuromuscular junction.

At a chemical synapse each ending, or terminal, of a nerve fibre (presynaptic fibre) swells to form a knoblike structure that is separated from the fibre of an adjacent neuron, called a postsynaptic fibre, by a microscopic space called the synaptic cleft. The typical synaptic cleft is about 0.02 micron wide. The arrival of a nerve impulse at the presynaptic terminals causes the movement toward the presynaptic membrane of membrane-bound sacs, or synaptic vesicles, which fuse with the membrane and release a chemical substance called a neurotransmitter. This substance transmits the nerve impulse to the postsynaptic fibre by diffusing across the synaptic cleft and binding to receptor molecules on the postsynaptic membrane. The chemical binding action alters the shape of the receptors, initiating a series of reactions that open channel-shaped protein molecules. Electrically charged ions then flow through the channels into or out of the neuron. This sudden shift of electric charge across the postsynaptic membrane changes the electric polarization of the membrane, producing the postsynaptic potential, or PSP. If the net flow of positively charged ions into the cell is large enough, then the PSP is excitatory; that is, it can lead to the generation of a new nerve impulse, called an action potential.



Once they have been released and have bound to postsynaptic receptors, neurotransmitter molecules are immediately deactivated by enzymes in the synaptic cleft; they are also taken up by receptors in the presynaptic membrane and recycled. This process causes a series of brief transmission events, each one taking place in only 0.5 to 4.0 milliseconds.

A single neurotransmitter may elicit different responses from different receptors. For example, norepinephrine, a common neurotransmitter in the autonomic nervous system, binds to some receptors that excite nervous transmission and to others that inhibit it. The membrane of a postsynaptic fibre has many different kinds of receptors, and some presynaptic terminals release more than one type of neurotransmitter. Also, each postsynaptic fibre may form hundreds of competing synapses with many neurons. These variables account for the complex responses of the nervous system to any given stimulus. The synapse, with its neurotransmitter, acts as a physiological valve, directing the conduction of nerve impulses in regular circuits and preventing random or chaotic stimulation of nerves.

Electric synapses allow direct communications between neurons whose membranes are fused by permitting ions to flow between the cells through channels called gap junctions. Found in invertebrates and lower vertebrates, gap junctions allow faster synaptic transmission as well as the synchronization of entire groups of neurons. Gap junctions are also found in the human body, most often between cells in most organs and between glial cells of the nervous system. Chemical transmission seems to have evolved in large and complex vertebrate nervous systems, where transmission of multiple messages over longer distances is required.

What is the process of synaptic transmission?

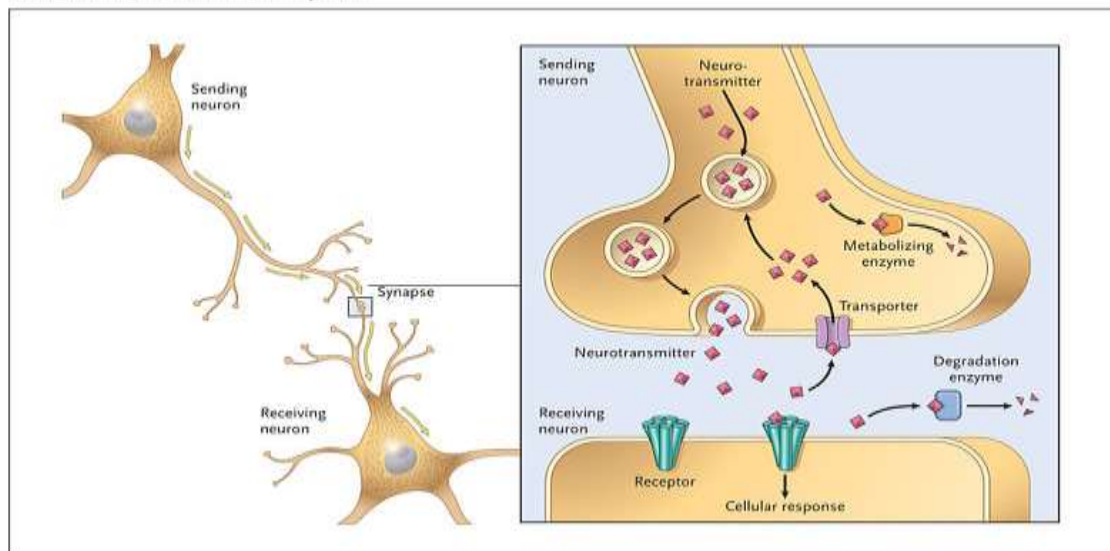
Synaptic transmission is the **process** by which one neuron communicates with another. Information is passed down the axon of the neuron as an electrical impulse known as action potential. ... When the electrical impulse (action potential) reaches these **synaptic** vesicles, they release their contents of neurotransmitters.

A synapse is a gap that is present between two neurons. Action potentials are communicated across this synapse by synaptic transmission (also known as **neurotransmission**).

Neurotransmission requires the release of a readily available neurotransmitter by **exocytosis**, binding at post-synaptic receptors, an appropriate response by the post-synaptic cell and removal or deactivation of the neurotransmitter.

In this article we shall look at the stages of synaptic transmission and clinical conditions that arise in its pathology.

Generic Neurotransmitter System



Synthesis and Storage of Neurotransmitters

This is the first step of synaptic transmission. Some **neurotransmitters** (eg acetylcholine, ACh) are synthesised in the axon while others (eg neuropeptides) are made in the cell body.

- **Acetylcholine**– synthesised within the **axon**. Precursors (choline, acetate) taken into the cell by membrane channels or created as byproducts of other processes. Precursors used to synthesise neurotransmitters via enzymes (choline acetyltransferase) transported from the cell body where it is made to the axon terminal.
- Endogenous opioids – a **neuropeptide** (larger neurotransmitter) made within the **cell body** to allow formation of peptide bonds. Made as any secretory protein via transcription in the nucleus and translation in the endoplasmic reticulum before being transported to the synaptic terminal ready for exocytosis.

Once synthesised, neurotransmitters are stored in vesicles within the **synaptic terminal** until an action potential arrives, causing their release.

Neurotransmitter Release

Action potentials arriving at the synaptic terminal leads to the opening of **voltage gated calcium channels**. This allows an influx of calcium in the terminal resulting in the migration of neurotransmitter storage vesicles to the pre-synaptic membrane. These vesicles fuse with the cell

membrane (exocytosis) under the influence of calcium causing neurotransmitter release into the synaptic cleft.

A **reflex** action often involves a very simple nervous pathway called a **reflex arc**. A **reflex arc** starts off with receptors being excited. They then send signals along a sensory neuron to your spinal cord, where the signals are passed on to a motor neuron.

Of the many kinds of neural activity, there is one simple kind in which a stimulus leads to an immediate action. This is reflex activity. The word reflex (from Latin reflexus, “reflection”) was introduced into biology by a 19th-century English neurologist, Marshall Hall, who fashioned the word because he thought of the muscles as reflecting a stimulus much as a wall reflects a ball thrown against it. By reflex, Hall meant the automatic response of a muscle or several muscles to a stimulus that excites an afferent nerve. The term is now used to describe an action that is an inborn central nervous system activity, not involving consciousness, in which a particular stimulus, by exciting an afferent nerve, produces a stereotyped, immediate response of muscle or gland.

The anatomical pathway of a reflex is called the reflex arc. It consists of an afferent (or sensory) nerve, usually one or more interneurons within the central nervous system, and an efferent (motor, secretory, or secreto-motor) nerve.

Most reflexes have several synapses in the reflex arc. The stretch reflex is exceptional in that, with no interneuron in the arc, it has only one synapse between the afferent **nerve fibre** and the motor neuron (*see below* Movement: The regulation of muscular contraction). The flexor reflex, which removes a limb from a noxious stimulus, has a minimum of two interneurons and three synapses.

Probably the best-known reflex is the pupillary light reflex. If a light is flashed near one eye, the pupils of both eyes contract. Light is the stimulus; impulses reach the brain via the optic nerve; and the response is conveyed to the pupillary musculature by autonomic nerves that supply the eye. Another reflex involving the eye is known as the lacrimal reflex. When something irritates the conjunctiva or cornea of the eye, the lacrimal reflex causes nerve impulses to pass along the fifth cranial nerve (trigeminal) and reach the midbrain. The efferent limb of this reflex arc is autonomic and mainly parasympathetic. These nerve fibres stimulate the lacrimal glands of the orbit, causing the outpouring of tears. Other reflexes of the midbrain and medulla oblongata are the cough and sneeze reflexes. The cough reflex is caused by an irritant in the trachea and

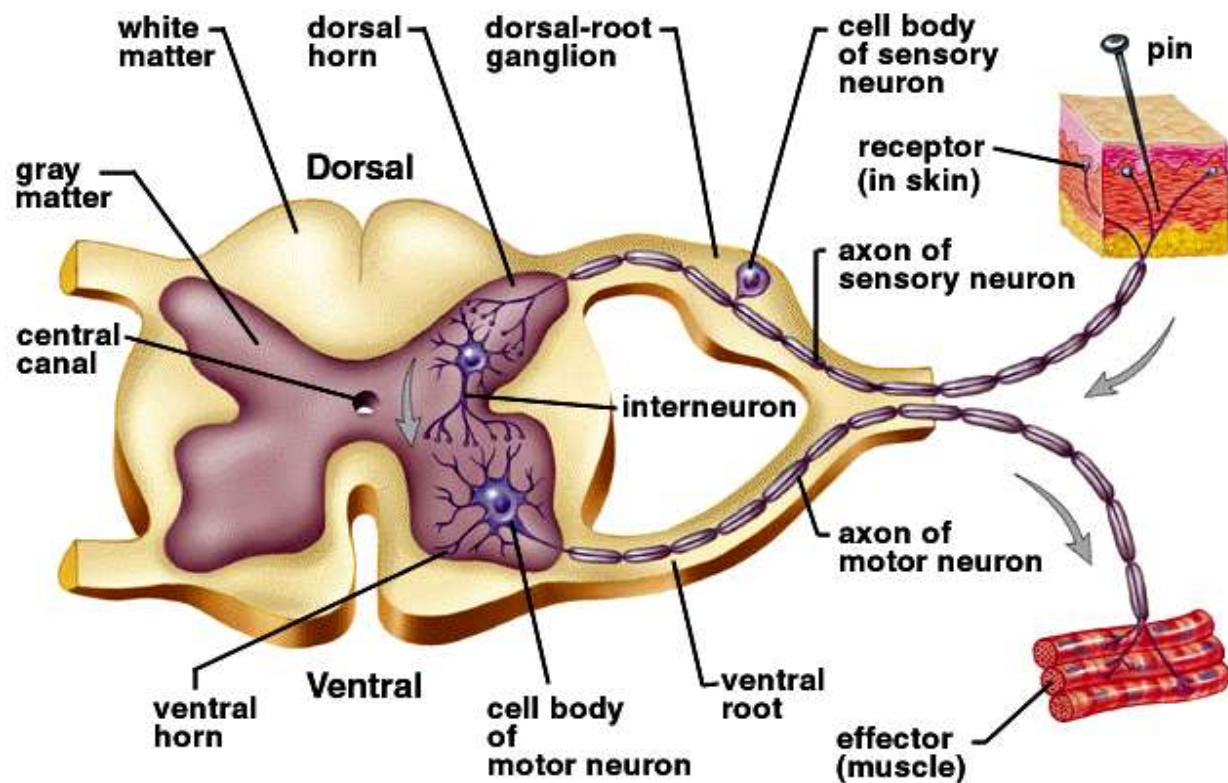
the sneeze reflex by one in the nose. In both, the reflex response involves many muscles; this includes a temporary lapse of respiration in order to expel the irritant.

cerebellum

The cerebellum **controls** motor **reflexes** and is, therefore, involved in balance and muscle coordination. The brainstem connects and transmits signals from the brain to the spinal cord, controlling functions such as breathing, heart rate, and alertness.

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A reflex arc showing the path of a spinal reflex



Historical Introduction

The roots of the modern NF approach lie in the Pavlovian method of **conditioned reflexes**. The Russian psychologist **Ivan Pavlov** was the first to study physiological mechanisms of psychological functions and did so at the start of the 20th century using this method. In the Pavlovian method a conditional stimulus, initially having little behavioral significance for an animal, is associated in time with some reinforcement or reward (unconditional stimulus in Pavlovian terminology). Conditional stimulus could be a visual or an auditory stimulus.

Unconditional stimulus could be a piece of meat for dogs or a small amount of juice for monkeys. The reward—having vital significance for the animal—induced essential changes in its behavior and physiological reactions (salivation, for example). Now, if feeding the dog has been accompanied many times by the sound of a metronome the dog will salivate in response to the sound itself—a conditioned reflex has been established. The experiments were carried out by Ivan Pavlov in the Institute of Experimental Medicine in St. Petersburg, which was founded in 1890. This is the institute where the author of this book started his scientific carrier in 1972. Our laboratory is located just 200 m from Pavlov's laboratory. In a museum named for him there is a harmony—an old musical instrument similar to an organ—which Pavlov used for his experiments to generate conditional stimuli.

At the end of the 1940s a student of Pavlov's Petr Kupalov invented a methodology called “**situational conditioned reflexes.**” In the West this method was coined operant conditioning. In the method **animal behavioral reactions** but not external stimuli served as conditional stimuli.

What is conditional reflex?

A conditioned reflex, also called an acquired reflex, is an automatic response to a stimulus that differs from that initially causing the response, but that has become associated with it by repetition, in a process known as classical conditioning.

The dogs salivating for food is the unconditioned response in Pavlov's experiment. A conditioned stimulus is a stimulus that can eventually trigger a conditioned response. In the described experiment, the conditioned stimulus was the ringing of the bell, and the conditioned response was salivation

What happened to Pavlov dogs after the experiment?

Upon reaching the main laboratory, the **dogs** were finally safe, but traumatized. Then a funny thing **happened**: the **dogs** stopped salivating **when** they heard the familiar sounds of the buzzer or the metronome. Their conditioning broke. The **dogs**, burdened by stress, forgot what they'd learned **Pavlovian theory** is a learning procedure that involves pairing a stimulus with a conditioned response. In the famous experiments that Ivan **Pavlov** conducted with his dogs, **Pavlov** found that objects or events could trigger a conditioned response. ... The result of the experiment was a new conditioned response in the dogs.

Questions :

Section A:

1. What is a Neuron?
2. Axon
3. Schwann cell
4. Synapse
6. Neurotransmitter.

Section B: Write about the Neuron Structure

Write a short note on Neurotransmitter.

Describe the Nerve impuls

Explain Reflex Arch

Section B: Explain the conduction of Nerve impulse

Describe the structure and Transmission of Synapse

Explain the Pavlovian method of conditioned reflexes

MUSCLE PHYSIOLOGY

Muscle is a soft tissue found in most animals. Muscle cells contain protein filaments of actin and myosin that slide past one another, producing a contraction that changes both the length and the shape of the cell. Muscles function to produce force and motion.

They are primarily responsible for maintaining and changing posture, locomotion, as well as movement of internal organs, such as the contraction of the heart and the movement of food through the digestive system via peristalsis.

Muscle tissues are derived from the mesodermal layer of embryonic germ cells in a process known as myogenesis. There are three types of muscle, skeletal or striated, cardiac, and smooth. Muscle action can be classified as being either voluntary or involuntary. Cardiac and smooth muscles contract without conscious thought and are termed involuntary, whereas the skeletal muscles contract upon command. Skeletal muscles in turn can be divided into fast and slow twitch fibers.

Muscles are predominantly powered by the oxidation of fats and carbohydrates, but anaerobic chemical reactions are also used, particularly by fast twitch fibers. These chemical reactions produce adenosine triphosphate (ATP) molecules that are used to power the movement of the myosin heads.

The term muscle is derived from the Latin *musculus* meaning "little mouse" perhaps because of the shape of certain muscles or because contracting muscles look like mice moving under the skin.

Types of Muscles

Muscle tissue is a soft tissue, and is one of the four fundamental types of tissue present in animals. There are three types of muscle tissue recognized in vertebrates:

- Skeletal muscle or "voluntary muscle" is anchored by tendons (or by aponeuroses at a few places) to bone and is used to effect skeletal movement such as locomotion and in maintaining posture.
- Though this postural control is generally maintained as an unconscious reflex, the muscles responsible react to conscious control like non-postural muscles. An average adult male is made up of 42% of skeletal muscle and an average adult female is made up of 36% (as a percentage of body mass).
- Smooth muscle or "involuntary muscle" is found within the walls of organs and structures such as the esophagus, stomach, intestines, bronchi, uterus, urethra, bladder, blood vessels, and the arrector pili in the skin (in which it controls erection of body hair). Unlike skeletal muscle, smooth muscle is not under conscious control.
 - Cardiac muscle (myocardium), is also an "involuntary muscle" but is more akin in structure to skeletal muscle, and is found only in the heart.
 - Cardiac and skeletal muscles are "striated" in that they contain sarcomeres that are packed into highly regular arrangements of bundles; the myofibrils of smooth muscle cells are not arranged in sarcomeres and so are not striated.
 - While the sarcomeres in skeletal muscles are arranged in regular, parallel bundles, cardiac muscle sarcomeres connect at branching, irregular angles (called intercalated discs). Striated muscle contracts and relaxes in short, intense bursts, whereas smooth muscle sustains longer or even near-permanent contractions.

Ultra Structure of Skeletal Muscles

The muscle fibers embedded in skeletal muscle are relatively classified into a spectrum of types given their morphological and physiological properties.

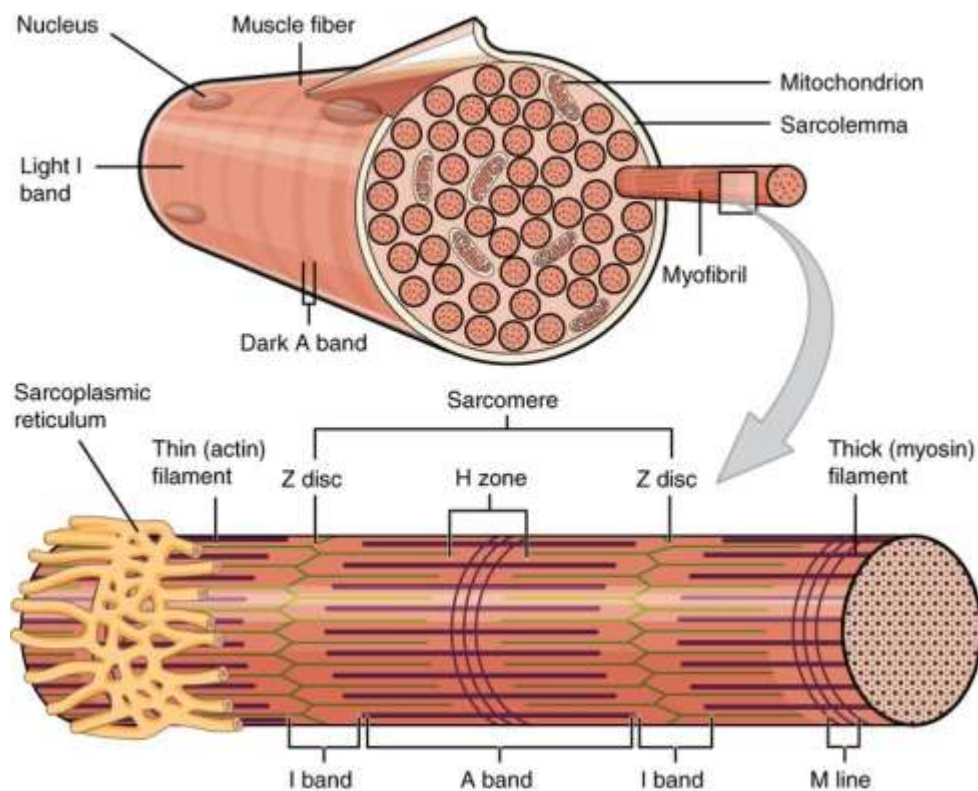
Given a certain assortment of these properties, muscle fibers are categorized as slow-twitch (low force, slowly fatiguing fibers), fast twitch (high force, rapidly fatiguing fibers), or somewhere in between those two types (i.e. intermediate fibers).

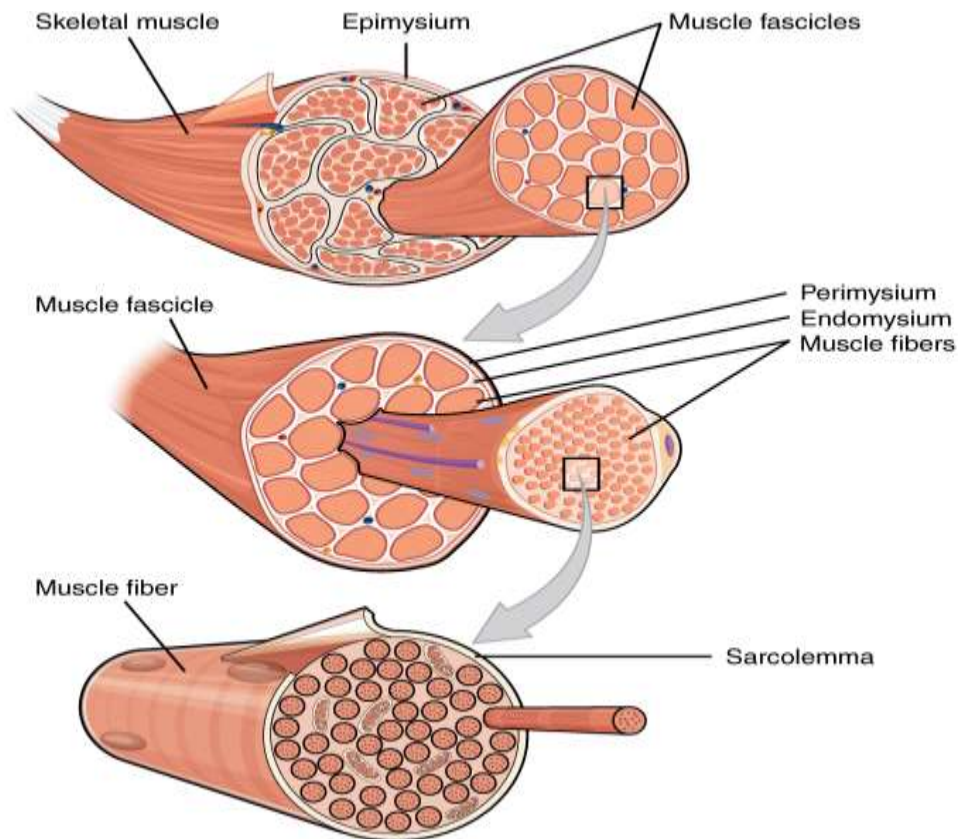
Some of the defining morphological and physiological properties used for the categorization of muscle fibers include: the number of mitochondria contained in the fiber, the amount of glycolytic, lipolytic, and other cellular respiration enzymes, M and Z band characteristics, energy source (i.e. glycogen or fat), histology color, and contraction speed and duration. Note that there is no standard procedure for classifying muscle fiber types.

The properties chosen for classification depend on the particular muscle.

For example, the properties used for distinguishing fast, intermediate, and slow muscle fibers can be different for invertebrate flight and jump muscle.

To further complicate this classification scheme, the mitochondria content and other morphological properties within a muscle fiber can change with exercise and age





Microanatomy

The [density](#) of mammalian skeletal muscle tissue is about 1.06 kg/liter. This can be contrasted with the density of [adipose tissue](#) (fat), which is 0.9196 kg/liter. This makes muscle tissue approximately 15% denser than fat tissue.

Skeletal muscles are sheathed by a tough layer of [connective tissue](#) called the [epimysium](#). The epimysium anchors muscle tissue to [tendons](#) at each end, where the epimysium becomes thicker and collagenous. It also protects muscles from friction against other muscles and bones. Within the epimysium are multiple bundles called [fascicles](#), each of which contains 10 to 100 or more [muscle fibers](#) collectively sheathed by a [perimysium](#). Besides surrounding each fascicle, the perimysium is a pathway for nerves and the flow of blood within the muscle.

The threadlike muscle fibers are the individual muscle cells ([myocytes](#)), and each cell is encased within its own [endomysium](#) of [collagen](#) fibers. Thus, the overall muscle consists of fibers (cells) that are bundled into fascicles, which are themselves grouped together to form muscles.

At each level of bundling, a collagenous membrane surrounds the bundle, and these membranes support muscle function both by resisting passive stretching of the tissue and by distributing forces applied to the muscle.

Scattered throughout the muscles are [muscle spindles](#) that provide sensory feedback information to the [central nervous system](#). (This grouping structure is analogous to the organization of [nerves](#) which uses [epineurium](#), [perineurium](#), and [endoneurium](#)).

This same bundles-within-bundles structure is replicated within the muscle [cells](#). Within the cells of the muscle are [myofibrils](#), which themselves are bundles of [protein](#) filaments. The term "myofibril" should not be confused with "myofiber", which is simply another name for a muscle cell.

Myofibrils are complex strands of several kinds of protein filaments organized together into repeating units called [sarcomeres](#). The striated appearance of both skeletal and cardiac muscle results from the regular pattern of sarcomeres within their cells.

Although both of these types of muscle contain sarcomeres, the fibers in cardiac muscle are typically branched to form a network. Cardiac muscle fibers are interconnected by [intercalated discs](#), giving that tissue the appearance of a [syncytium](#).

Mechanism of Contraction

Muscle contraction is the activation of [tension](#)-generating sites within [muscle fibers](#). In [physiology](#), muscle contraction does not necessarily mean muscle shortening because muscle tension can be produced without changes in muscle length, such as when holding a heavy book or a dumbbell at the same position. The termination of muscle contraction is followed by **muscle relaxation**, which is a return of the muscle fibers to their low tension-generating state.

Muscle contractions can be described based on two variables: length and tension. A muscle contraction is described as isometric if the muscle tension changes but the muscle length remains the same. In contrast, a muscle contraction is isotonic if muscle tension remains the same throughout the contraction.

If the muscle length shortens, the contraction is concentric; if the muscle length lengthens, the contraction is eccentric.

In natural movements that underlie [locomotor activity](#), muscle contractions are multifaceted as they are able to produce changes in length and tension in a time-varying manner. Therefore, neither length nor tension is likely to remain the same in muscles that contract during locomotor activity.

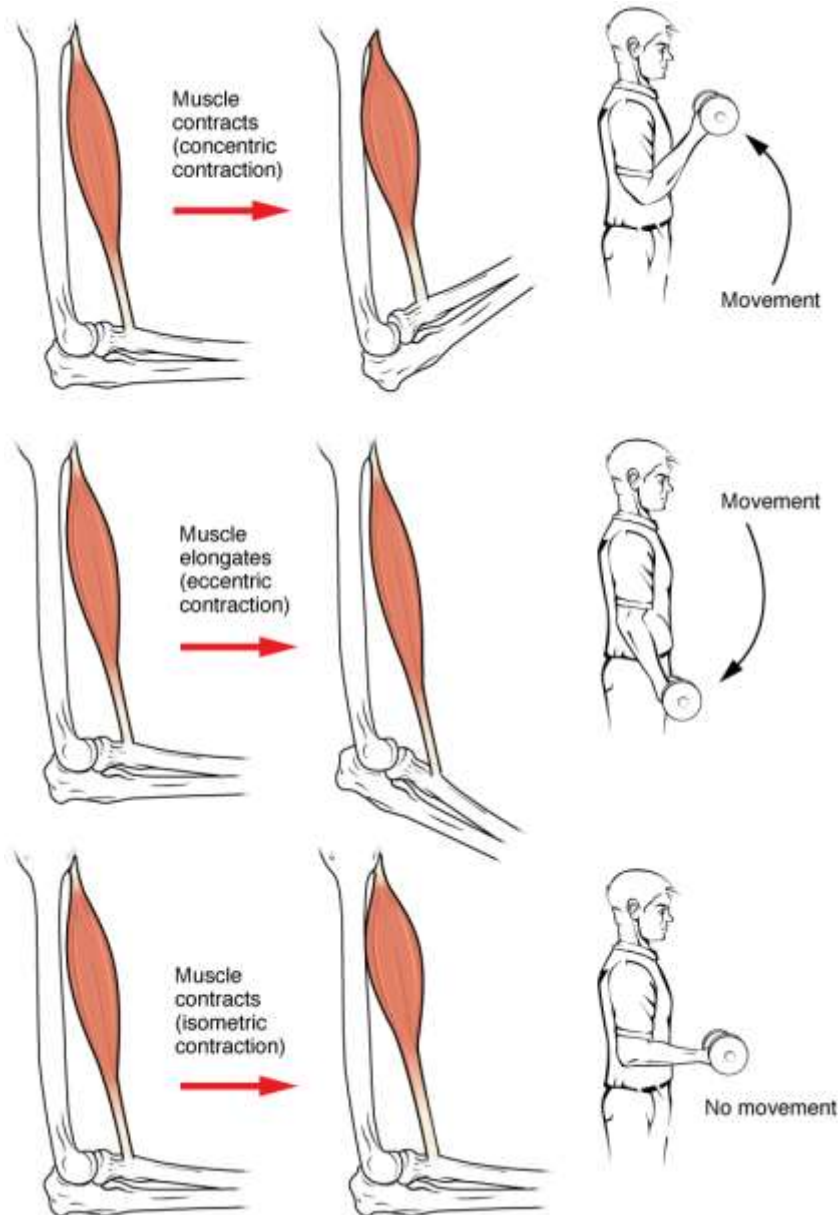
In [vertebrates](#), [skeletal muscle](#) contractions are neurogenic as they require [synaptic input](#) from [motor neurons](#) to produce muscle contractions.

A single motor neuron is able to innervate multiple muscle fibers, thereby causing the fibers to contract at the same time. Once innervated, the protein filaments within each skeletal muscle fiber slide past each other to produce a contraction, which is explained by the [sliding filament theory](#).

The contraction produced can be described as a twitch, summation, or tetanus, depending on the frequency of [action potentials](#). In skeletal muscles, muscle tension is at its greatest when the muscle is stretched to an intermediate length as described by the length-tension relationship.

Unlike skeletal muscle, the contractions of [smooth](#) and [cardiac muscles](#) are [myogenic](#) (meaning that they are initiated by the smooth or heart muscle cells themselves instead of being stimulated by an outside event such as nerve stimulation), although they can be modulated by stimuli from the [autonomic nervous system](#).

The mechanisms of contraction in these [muscle tissues](#) are similar to those in skeletal muscle tissues.



Types of muscle contractions

Isometric contraction

An isometric contraction of a muscle generates tension without changing length. An example can be found when the muscles of the [hand](#) and [forearm](#) grip an object; the [joints](#) of the hand do not move, but muscles generate sufficient force to prevent the object from being dropped.

Isotonic contraction

In [isotonic contraction](#), the tension in the muscle remains constant despite a change in muscle length. This occurs when a muscle's force of contraction matches the total load on the muscle.

Concentric contraction

In [concentric contraction](#), muscle tension is sufficient to overcome the load, and the muscle shortens as it contracts. This occurs when the force generated by the muscle exceeds the load opposing its contraction. During a concentric contraction, a muscle is stimulated to contract according to the [sliding filament theory](#). This occurs throughout the length of the muscle, generating a force at the origin and insertion, causing the muscle to shorten and changing the angle of the joint.

In relation to the [elbow](#), a concentric contraction of the [biceps](#) would cause the [arm](#) to bend at the elbow as the hand moved from the leg to the shoulder (a [biceps curl](#)). A concentric contraction of the [triceps](#) would change the angle of the joint in the opposite direction, straightening the arm and moving the hand towards the leg.

Eccentric contraction

In *eccentric contraction*, the tension generated while isometric is insufficient to overcome the external load on the muscle and the muscle fibers lengthen as they contract. Rather than working to pull a joint in the direction of the muscle contraction, the muscle acts to [decelerate](#) the joint at the end of a movement or otherwise control the repositioning of a load.

This can occur involuntarily (e.g., when attempting to move a weight too heavy for the muscle to lift) or voluntarily (e.g., when the muscle is 'smoothing out' a movement or resisting gravity such as during downhill walking). Over the short-term, [strength training](#) involving both eccentric and concentric contractions appear to increase [muscular strength](#) more than training with concentric contractions alone.

However, exercise-induced muscle damage is also greater during lengthening contractions. During an eccentric contraction of the [biceps muscle](#), the [elbow](#) starts the movement while bent and then straightens as the hand moves away from the [shoulder](#).

During an eccentric contraction of the [triceps muscle](#), the elbow starts the movement straight and then bends as the hand moves towards the shoulder. [Desmin](#), [titin](#), and other z-line [proteins](#) are involved in eccentric contractions, but their mechanism is poorly understood in comparison to crossbridge cycling in concentric contractions.

Though the muscle is doing a negative amount of [mechanical work](#), (work is being done *on* the muscle), chemical energy (originally of [oxygen](#), unlocked by [fat](#) or [glucose](#), and temporarily stored in [ATP](#)) is

nevertheless consumed, although less than would be consumed during a concentric contraction of the same force. For example, one expends more energy going up a flight of stairs than going down the same flight. Muscles undergoing heavy eccentric loading suffer greater damage when overloaded (such as during [muscle building](#) or [strength training](#) exercise) as compared to concentric loading. When eccentric contractions are used in weight training, they are normally called *negatives*.

During a concentric contraction, muscle [myofilaments](#) slide past each other, pulling the Z-lines together. During an eccentric contraction, the [myofilaments](#) slide past each other the opposite way, though the actual movement of the myosin heads during an eccentric contraction is not known.

Exercise featuring a heavy eccentric load can actually support a greater weight (muscles are approximately 40% stronger during eccentric contractions than during concentric contractions) and also results in greater muscular damage and [delayed onset muscle soreness](#) one to two days after training.

Exercise that incorporates both eccentric and concentric muscular contractions (i.e., involving a strong contraction and a controlled lowering of the weight) can produce greater gains in strength than concentric contractions alone. While unaccustomed heavy eccentric contractions can easily lead to [overtraining](#), moderate training may confer protection against injury.

Neuromuscular Junction

A neuromuscular junction is a [chemical synapse](#) formed by the contact between a [motor neuron](#) and a [muscle fiber](#).^[18] It is the site in which a motor neuron transmits a signal to a muscle fiber to initiate muscle contraction.

The sequence of events that results in the depolarization of the muscle fiber at the neuromuscular junction begins when an action potential is initiated in the cell body of a motor neuron, which is then propagated by [saltatory conduction](#) along its axon toward the neuromuscular junction.

Once it reaches the [terminal bouton](#), the action potential causes a [Ca²⁺ ion](#) influx into the terminal by way of the [voltage-gated calcium channels](#). The [Ca²⁺ influx](#) causes [synaptic vesicles](#) containing the neurotransmitter [acetylcholine](#) to fuse with the plasma membrane, releasing acetylcholine into the [synaptic cleft](#) between the motor neuron terminal and the neuromuscular junction of the skeletal muscle fiber. Acetylcholine diffuses across the synapse and binds to and activates [nicotinic acetylcholine receptors](#) on the neuromuscular junction.

Activation of the nicotinic receptor opens its intrinsic [sodium/potassium](#) channel, causing sodium to rush in and potassium to trickle out. As a result, the [sarcolemma](#) reverses polarity and its voltage quickly jumps from the resting membrane potential of -90mV to as high as +75mV as sodium enters. The membrane potential then becomes hyperpolarized when potassium exits and is then adjusted back to the resting membrane potential.

This rapid fluctuation is called the end-plate potential. The voltage-gated ion channels of the sarcolemma next to the end plate open in response to the end plate potential. They are sodium and potassium specific and only allow one through.

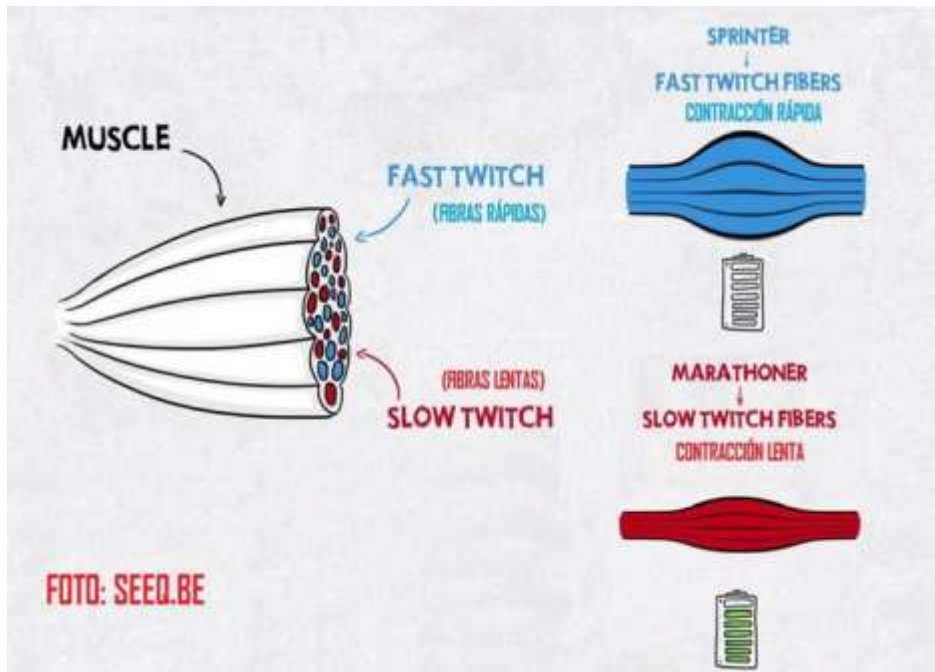
This wave of ion movements creates the action potential that spreads from the motor end plate in all directions. If action potentials stop arriving, then acetylcholine ceases to be released from the terminal bouton.

The remaining acetylcholine in the synaptic cleft is either degraded by active [acetylcholine esterase](#) or reabsorbed by the synaptic knob and none is left to replace the degraded acetylcholine.

Twitch Types

Muscle twitches can happen for lots of reasons, like stress, too much caffeine, a poor diet, exercise, or as a side effect of some medicines. Lots of people get **twitches** in the eyelid, thumb, or calf **muscles**. These types of **twitches** usually go away after a few days. They're often related to stress or anxiety.

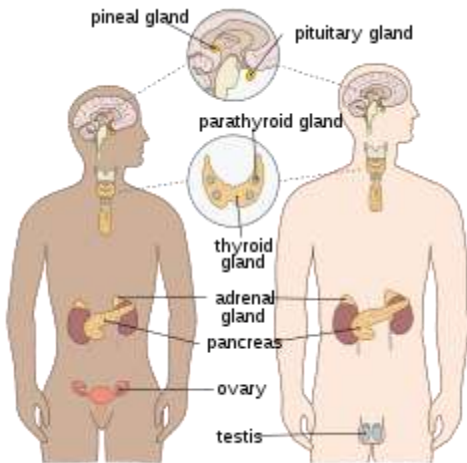
- [Type I, slow twitch](#), or "red" muscle, is dense with [capillaries](#) and is rich in [mitochondria](#) and [myoglobin](#), giving the muscle tissue its characteristic red color. It can carry more [oxygen](#) and sustain [aerobic](#) activity using fats or carbohydrates as fuel.^[8] Slow twitch fibers contract for long periods of time but with little force.
- [Type II, fast twitch muscle](#), has three major subtypes (IIa, IIx, and IIb) that vary in both contractile speed and force generated. Fast twitch fibers contract quickly and powerfully but fatigue very rapidly, sustaining only short, [anaerobic](#) bursts of activity before muscle contraction becomes painful. They contribute most to muscle strength and have greater potential for increase in mass. Type IIb is anaerobic, [glycolytic](#), "white" muscle that is least dense in mitochondria and myoglobin. In small animals (e.g., rodents) this is the major fast muscle type, explaining the pale color of their flesh.



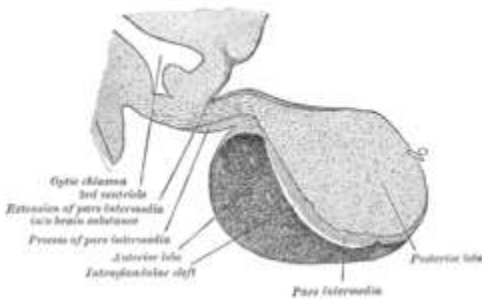
UNIT-IV

STRUCTURE AND FUNCTIONS OF ENDOCRINE GLANDS

Endocrine glands are ductless glands of the endocrine system that secrete their products, hormones, directly into the blood. The major glands of the endocrine system include the pineal gland, pituitary gland, pancreas, ovaries, testes, thyroid gland, parathyroid gland, hypothalamus and adrenal glands. The hypothalamus and pituitary glands are neuroendocrine organs..



Pituitary gland



The **pituitary gland**, or **hypophysis**, is an [endocrine gland](#), about the size of a [pea](#) and weighing 0.5 grams (0.018 oz) in humans. It is a protrusion off the bottom of the [hypothalamus](#) at the base of the [brain](#).

The [anterior pituitary](#) (or adenohypophysis) is a lobe of the gland that regulates several physiological processes (including stress, growth, reproduction, and [lactation](#)). The [intermediate lobe](#) synthesizes and secretes [melanocyte-stimulating hormone](#). The [posterior pituitary](#) (or neurohypophysis) is a lobe of the gland that is functionally connected to the [hypothalamus](#) by the [median eminence](#) via a small tube called the [pituitary stalk](#) (also called the infundibular stalk or the infundibulum).

The Anterior lobe hormones

The anterior lobe of the pituitary produces and releases (secretes) six main hormones:

- Growth hormone, which regulates growth and physical development and has important effects on body shape by stimulating muscle formation and reducing fat tissue
- Thyroid-stimulating hormone, which stimulates the thyroid gland to produce thyroid hormones

- Adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH), also called corticotropin, which stimulates the adrenal glands to produce cortisol and other hormones
- Follicle-stimulating hormone and luteinizing hormone (the gonadotropins), which stimulate the testes to produce sperm, the ovaries to produce eggs, and the sex organs to produce sex hormones (testosterone and estrogen)
- Prolactin, which stimulates the mammary glands of the breasts to produce milk

The anterior lobe also produces several other hormones, including one that causes the skin to darken (beta-melanocyte–stimulating hormone) and ones that inhibit pain sensations (enkephalins and endorphins) and help control the immune system (endorphins).

Posterior lobe hormones

The posterior lobe of the pituitary produces only two hormones:

Vasopressin (also called antidiuretic hormone)

It regulates the amount of water excreted by the kidneys and is therefore important in maintaining [water balance in the body](#).

Oxytocin

It causes the uterus to contract during childbirth and immediately after delivery to prevent excessive bleeding. Oxytocin also stimulates contractions of the milk ducts in the breast, which move milk to the nipple (the let-down) in lactating women.

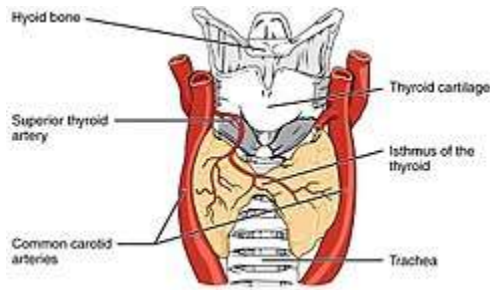
Disorders that result from overproduction of pituitary hormones include

- [Acromegaly or gigantism](#): Growth hormone
- [Cushing disease](#): Adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH),
- [Galactorrhea](#) (the secretion of breast milk by men or by women when not pregnant): Prolactin
- [Erectile dysfunction](#): Prolactin
- [Infertility](#) (particularly in women): Prolactin

Disorders that result from underproduction of pituitary hormones include

- [Central diabetes insipidus](#): Vasopressin
- [Hypopituitarism](#): Multiple hormones

[Thyroid gland](#)



The **thyroid**, or **thyroid gland**, is an endocrine gland in the neck consisting of two connected lobes. The lower two thirds of the lobes are connected by a thin band of tissue called the thyroid isthmus. The thyroid is located at the front of the neck, below the Adam's apple

The thyroid gland secretes three hormones: the two thyroid hormones – triiodothyronine (T₃) and thyroxine (T₄) – and a peptide hormone, calcitonin.

The thyroid hormones influence the metabolic rate and protein synthesis, and in children, growth and development. Calcitonin plays a role in calcium homeostasis.

Secretion of the two thyroid hormones is regulated by thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH), which is secreted from the anterior pituitary gland. TSH is regulated by thyrotropin-releasing hormone (TRH), which is produced by the hypothalamus.

The thyroid hormones have a wide range of effects on the human body. These include:

- **Metabolic.** The thyroid hormones increase the basal metabolic rate and have effects on almost all body tissues.
- **Cardiovascular.** The hormones increase the rate and strength of the heartbeat. They increase the rate of breathing, intake and consumption of oxygen, and increase the activity of mitochondria.
- **Developmental.** Thyroid hormones are important for normal development: <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Thyroid> - [cite note-FOOTNOTE Guyton & Hall 2011 936-28](#) They increase the growth rate of young people.
- The thyroid hormones also play a role in maintaining normal sexual function, sleep, and thought patterns.

Functional disorders

Hyperthyroidism

Excessive production of the thyroid hormones is called [hyperthyroidism](#). Causes include [Graves' disease](#), [toxic multinodular goitre](#), solitary [thyroid adenoma](#), inflammation, and a [pituitary adenoma](#) which secretes excess TSH.

Hyperthyroidism often causes a variety of [non-specific symptoms](#) including weight loss, increased appetite, insomnia, decreased tolerance of heat, tremor, [palpitations](#), anxiety and nervousness. In some cases it can cause [chest pain](#), [diarrhoea](#), hair loss and muscle weakness.

Hypothyroidism

An underactive thyroid gland results in [hypothyroidism](#). Typical symptoms are abnormal weight gain, tiredness, [constipation](#), [heavy menstrual bleeding](#), hair loss, cold intolerance, and [a slow heart rate](#).

Some forms of hypothyroidism can result in [myxedema](#) and severe cases can result in [myxedema coma](#).

Diseases]

Graves' disease

[Graves' disease](#) is an autoimmune disorder that is the most common cause of hyperthyroidism.

Goitre

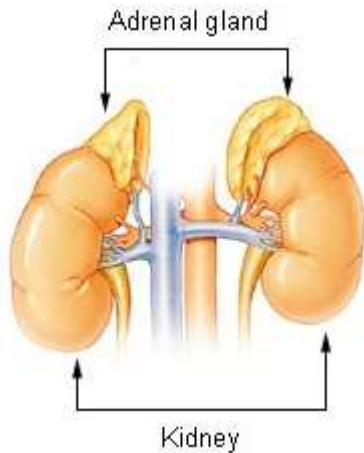
An enlarged thyroid gland is called a [goitre](#). Goitres are present in some form in about 5% of people, and are the result of a large number of causes, including iodine deficiency, [autoimmune disease](#) (both Graves' disease and Hashimoto's thyroiditis), infection, inflammation, and infiltrative disease such as [sarcoidosis](#) and [amyloidosis](#).

PARATHYROID GLANDS

The parathyroid glands, of which there are 4–6, are found on the back of the thyroid glands, and secrete [parathyroid hormone](#). This causes an increase in blood calcium levels by targeting bone, the intestine, and the kidneys.

The parathyroid hormone is the antagonist of [calcitonin](#). Parathyroid hormone release is triggered by falling blood calcium levels and is inhibited by rising blood calcium levels.

ADRENAL GLANDS



The adrenal glands (also known as suprarenal glands) are [endocrine glands](#) that produce a variety of hormones including [adrenaline](#) and the steroids [aldosterone](#) and [cortisol](#).

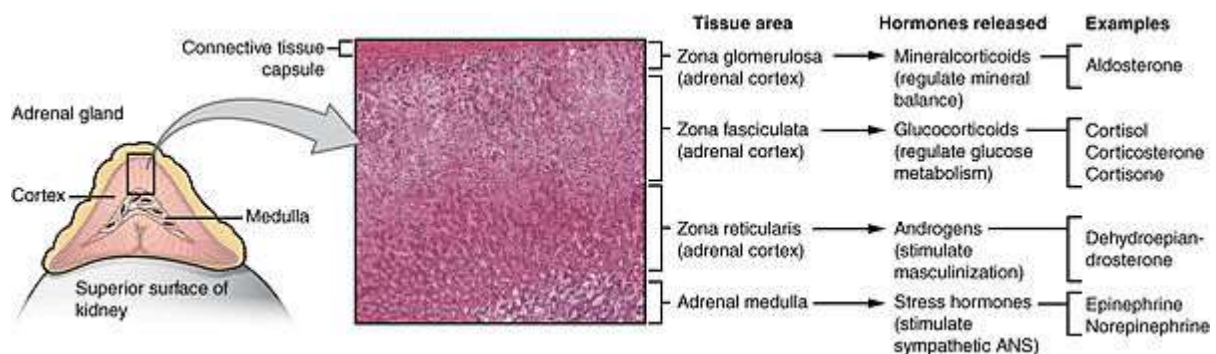
They are found above the [kidneys](#). Each gland has an outer [cortex](#) which produces [steroid hormones](#) and an inner [medulla](#). The [adrenal cortex](#) itself is divided into three zones: the [zona glomerulosa](#), the [zona fasciculata](#) and the [zona reticularis](#).

The adrenal cortex produces three main types of [steroid hormones](#): [mineralocorticoids](#), [glucocorticoids](#), and [androgens](#).

Mineralocorticoids (such as [aldosterone](#)) produced in the zona glomerulosa help in the regulation of blood pressure and [electrolyte balance](#).

The glucocorticoids [cortisol](#) and [cortisone](#) are synthesized in the zona fasciculata; their functions include the regulation of [metabolism](#) and [immune system](#) suppression.

The innermost layer of the cortex, the zona reticularis, produces androgens that are converted to fully functional sex hormones in the [gonads](#) and other target organs.



The production of steroid hormones is called [steroidogenesis](#), and involves a number of reactions and processes that take place in cortical cells.

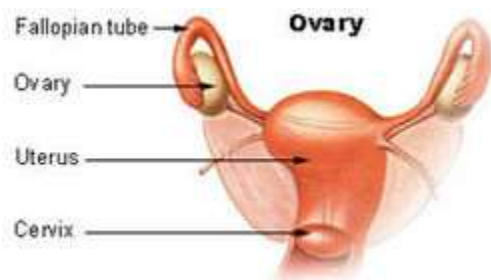
The medulla produces the [catecholamines](#), which function to produce a [rapid response](#) throughout the body in [stress](#) situations.

A number of [endocrine diseases](#) involve dysfunctions of the adrenal gland. Overproduction of cortisol leads to [Cushing's syndrome](#), whereas insufficient production is associated with [Addison's disease](#). [Congenital adrenal hyperplasia](#) is a genetic disease produced by dysregulation of endocrine control mechanisms.

REPRODUCTIVE GLANDS

OVARIES

The ovaries of the female, located in the pelvic cavity, release two main hormones. Secretion of [estrogens](#) by the ovarian follicles begins at [puberty](#) under the influence of follicle-stimulating hormone.

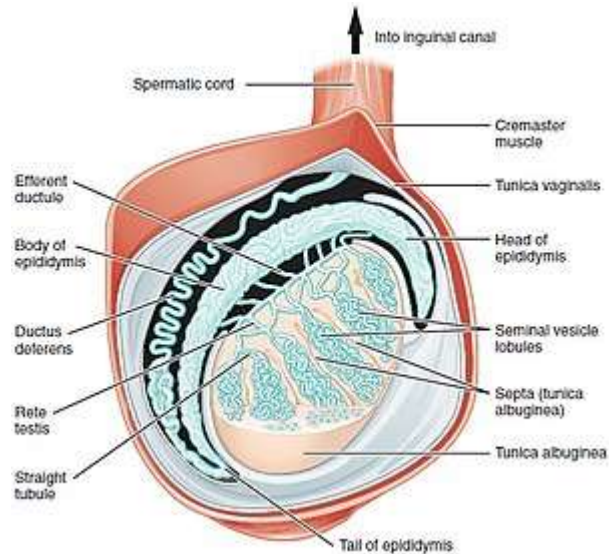


Estrogens stimulate the maturation of the female reproductive system and the development of secondary sexual characteristics.

[Progesterone](#) is released in response to high blood levels of luteinizing hormone. It works with estrogens in establishing the [menstrual cycle](#).

TESTES

The testes of the male begin to produce [testosterone](#) at puberty in response to luteinizing hormone. The functions of the testes are to produce both [sperm](#) and [androgens](#), primarily [testosterone](#). Testosterone release is controlled by the anterior pituitary [luteinizing hormone](#); whereas sperm production is controlled both by the [anterior pituitary follicle-stimulating hormone](#) and [gonadal](#) testosterone.



Testosterone promotes maturation of the male reproductive organs, development of secondary sex characteristics.

MENSTRUAL CYCLE

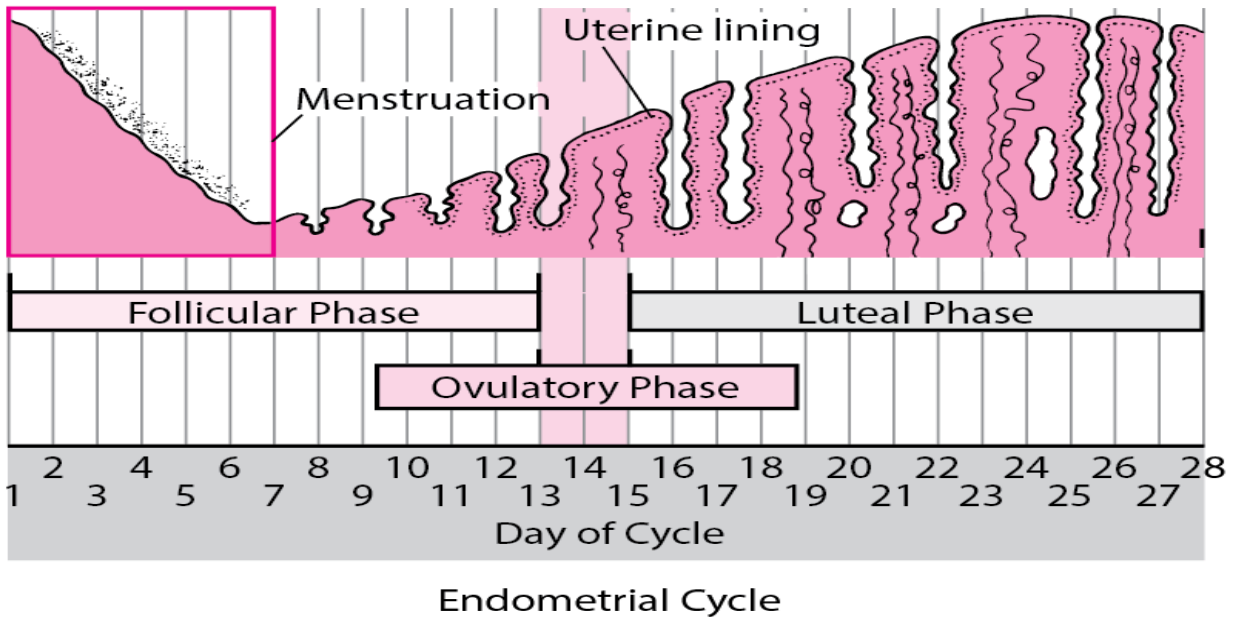
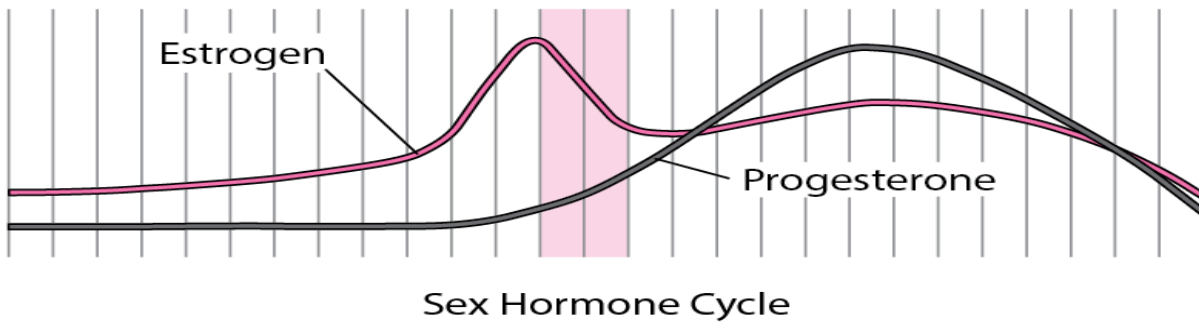
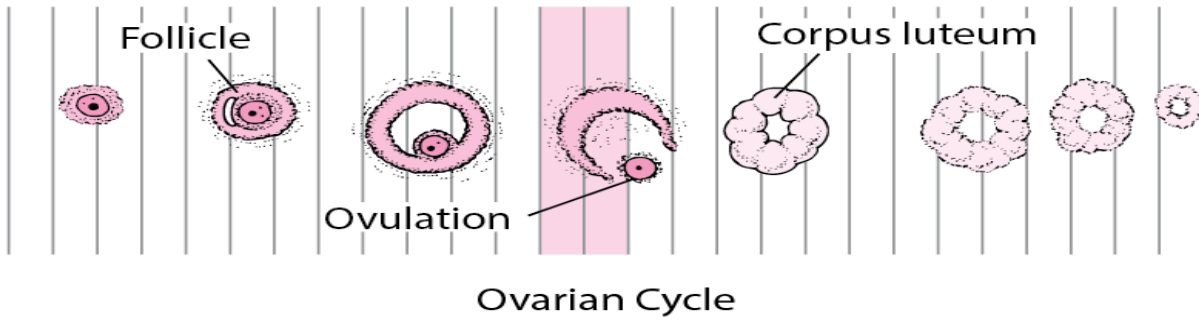
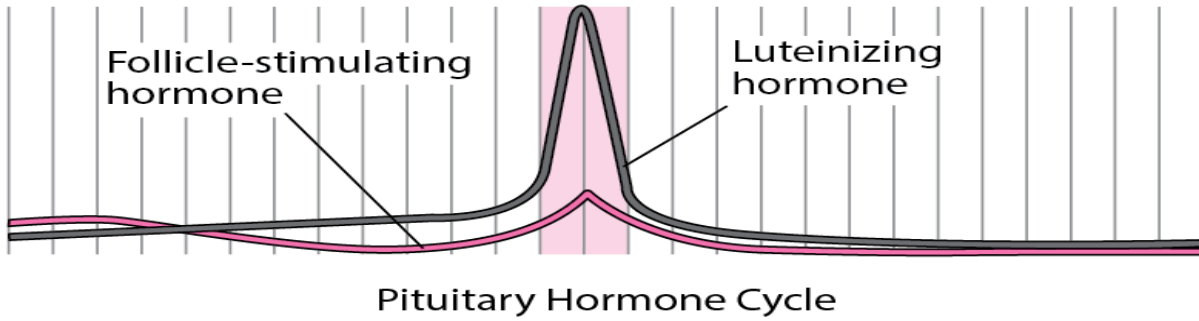
Menstruation is the shedding of the lining of the uterus (endometrium) accompanied by bleeding. It occurs in approximately monthly cycles throughout a woman's reproductive life, except during pregnancy. Menstruation starts during [puberty](#) (at menarche) and stops permanently at [menopause](#).

By definition, the menstrual cycle begins with the first day of bleeding, which is counted as day 1. The cycle ends just before the next menstrual period. Menstrual cycles normally range from about 25 to 36 days. Only 10 to 15% of women have cycles that are exactly 28 days.

Menstrual bleeding lasts 3 to 7 days, averaging 5 days. Blood loss during a cycle usually ranges from 1/2 to 2 1/2 ounces.

The menstrual cycle is regulated by hormones. Luteinizing hormone and follicle-stimulating hormone, which are produced by the pituitary gland, promote ovulation and stimulate the ovaries to produce estrogen and progesterone.

Estrogen and progesterone stimulate the uterus and breasts to prepare for possible fertilization.



The menstrual cycle is regulated by the complex interaction of hormones: luteinizing hormone, follicle-stimulating hormone, and the female sex hormones estrogen and progesterone.

The menstrual cycle has three phases:

- Follicular (before release of the egg)
- Ovulatory (egg release)
- Luteal (after egg release)

The menstrual cycle begins with menstrual bleeding (menstruation), which marks the first day of the follicular phase.

When the **follicular phase** begins, levels of estrogen and progesterone are low. As a result, the top layers of the thickened lining of the uterus (endometrium) break down and are shed, and menstrual bleeding occurs. About this time, the follicle-stimulating hormone level increases slightly, stimulating the development of several follicles in the ovaries. Each follicle contains an egg. Later in this phase, as the follicle-stimulating hormone level decreases, only one follicle continues to develop. This follicle produces estrogen.

The **ovulatory phase** begins with a surge in luteinizing hormone and follicle-stimulating hormone levels. Luteinizing hormone stimulates egg release (ovulation), which usually occurs 16 to 32 hours after the surge begins. The estrogen level decreases during the surge, and the progesterone level starts to increase.

During the **luteal phase**, luteinizing hormone and follicle-stimulating hormone levels decrease. The ruptured follicle closes after releasing the egg and forms a corpus luteum, which produces progesterone. During most of this phase, the estrogen level is high. Progesterone and estrogen cause the lining of the uterus to thicken more, to prepare for possible fertilization.

If the egg is not fertilized, the corpus luteum degenerates and no longer produces progesterone, the estrogen level decreases, the top layers of the lining break down and are shed, and menstrual bleeding occurs (the start of a new menstrual cycle).

If the egg is fertilized, the corpus luteum continues to function during early pregnancy. It helps maintain the pregnancy.

ANIMAL PHYSIOLOGY
UNIT – IV
Section – A (7 x 2 =14 Marks)

Define the terms:

1. Hormones
`hh;Nkhd;
2. Endocrine glands
ehshkpy;yhr; Rug;gp
3. Growth Hormone
tsh;r;rp `hh;Nkhd;
4. Goitre
Kd;fOj;J foiy
5. ADH
V.b.n `r;
6. Androgen and Estrogen
Mz;l;Nuh[d; kw;Wk; <];l;Nuh[d;
7. Endometrium
vz;Nlhnl;hpak;

Section – B (3 x 5 =15 Marks)

8. Explain the structure and functions of Pituitary gland.
gpl;A+l;lhp Rug;gpapd; mikg;G kw;Wk; gzpfs; gw;wp tpthp.
9. Draw the structure of Thyroid gland and explain its functions.
ijuha;L Rug;gpapd; glk; tiue;J gzpfs tpthp.
10. Explain the adrenal gland and its hormones.
ml;hPdy; Rug;gp kw;Wk; mjd; `hh;Nkhd;fs; gw;wp tpthp.

Section – C (3 x 10 =30 Marks)

11. Give detail account on structure and functions of endocrine glands.
ehshkpy;yhr; Rug;gpfspd; mikg;G kw;Wk; mjd; gzpfs; gw;wp tpsf;Ff.

12. Discuss the Hormonal control of reproduction.

kdpj ,dg;ngUf;fj;jpy; `hh;Nkhd;fspd; fl;LghL gw;wp tpthp.

13. Explain in detail the menstrual cycle.

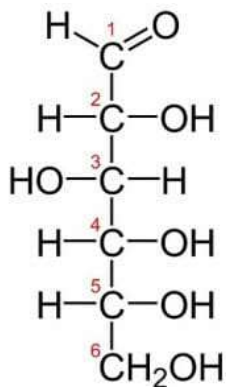
khjtplha; Row;rp gw;wp tpsf;fk; jUf.

UNIT- V

Monosaccharide Structure

All monosaccharides have the same general formula of $(CH_2O)_n$, which designates a central carbon molecule bonded to two hydrogens and one oxygen. The oxygen will also bond to a hydrogen, creating a hydroxyl group. Because carbon can form 4 bonds, several of these carbon molecules can bond together. One of the carbons in the chain will form a double bond with an oxygen, which is called a carbonyl group. If this carbonyl occurs at the end of the chain, the monosaccharide is in the aldose family. If the carbonyl group is in the middle of the chain, the monosaccharide is in the ketose family.

Glucose chain



Above is a picture of glucose. Glucose is one of the most common monosaccharides in nature, used by nearly every form of life. This simple monosaccharide is composed of 6 carbons, each labeled in the image. The first carbon is the carbonyl group. Because it is at the end of the molecule, glucose is in the aldose family. Typically, monosaccharides with more than 5 carbons exist as rings in solutions of water. The hydroxyl group on the fifth carbon will react with the first carbon. The hydroxyl group gives up its hydrogen atom when it forms a bond with the first carbon. The double

bonded oxygen on the first carbon bonds with a new hydrogen when the second bond with the carbon is broken. This forms a fully connected and stable ring of carbons.

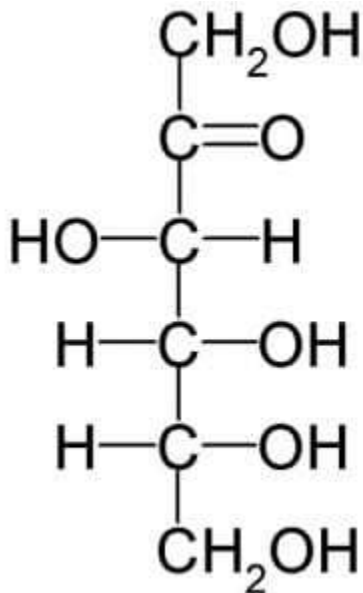
Glucose

Glucose is an important monosaccharide in that it provides both energy and structure to many organism. Glucose molecules can be broken down in glycolysis, providing energy and precursors for cellular respiration. If a cell does not need any more energy at the moment, glucose can be stored by combining it with other monosaccharides. Plants store these long chains as starch, which can be disassembled and used as energy later. Animals store chains of glucose in the polysaccharide glycogen, which can store a lot of energy.

Glucose can also be connected in long strings of monosaccharides to form polysaccharides that resemble fibers. Plants typically produce this as cellulose. Cellulose is one of the most abundant molecules on the planet, and if we could weigh all of it at once it would weigh millions of tons. Each plant uses cellulose to surround each cell, creating rigid cell walls that help the plants stand tall and remain turgid. Without the ability of monosaccharides to combine into these long chains, plants would be flat and squishy.

Fructose

Although almost identical to glucose, fructose is a slightly different molecule. The formula $((\text{CH}_2\text{O})_6)$ is the same, but the structure is much different. Below is an image of fructose:



Fructose

Notice that instead of the carbonyl group being at the end of the molecule, as in glucose, it is the second carbon down. This makes fructose a ketose, instead of an aldose. Like glucose, fructose still has 6 carbons, each with a hydroxyl group attached. However, because the double bonded oxygen in fructose exists in a different place, a slightly different shaped ring is formed. In nature, this makes a big difference in how the sugar is processed. Most reactions in cells are catalyzed by specific enzymes. Different shaped monosaccharides each need a specific enzyme to be broken down.

Compound Lipids

Phospholipids

They are abundant in all biological membranes.

A phospholipid molecule is constructed from four components: fatty acids, a platform to which the fatty acids are attached, a phosphate, and an alcohol attached to the phosphate.

The fatty acid components provide a hydrophobic barrier, whereas the remainder of the molecule has hydrophilic properties to enable interaction with the environment.

In phospholipids, two of the OH groups in glycerol are linked to fatty acids while the third OH group is linked to phosphoric acid.

Phospholipids are further divided into phosphoglycerides, phosphoinositides and phosphosphingosides.

Glycolipids (Cerebrosides or Glycosphingosides)

Glycolipids are present in all tissues on the outer surface of the plasma membrane.

They consist of sphingosine, a fatty acid, and an oligosaccharide residue, which can sometimes be quite large.

The phosphate residue typical of phospholipids is absent.

Galactosylceramide and glucosylceramide (known as cerebroside) are simple representatives of this group.

Cerebrosides in which the sugar is esterified with sulfuric acid are known as sulfatides.

Cerebrosides have a single sugar linked to ceramide; those with galactose are characteristically found in the plasma membranes of cells in neural tissue, and those with glucose in the plasma membranes of cells in nonneural tissues.

Globosides are glycosphingolipids with two or more sugars, usually D-glucose, D-galactose, or N-acetyl-D-galactosamine.

Cerebrosides and globosides are sometimes called neutral glycolipids, as they have no charge at pH 7.

Gangliosides, the most complex sphingolipids, have oligosaccharides as their polar head groups and one or more residues of N-acetylneuraminic acid (Neu5Ac), a sialic acid (often simply called “sialic acid”), at the termini.

Protein catabolism

protein catabolism is the breakdown of proteins into amino acids and simple derivative compounds, for transport into the cell through the plasma membrane and ultimately for the polymerization into new proteins via the use of ribonucleic acids (RNA) and ribosomes. Protein catabolism, which is the breakdown of macromolecules, is essentially a digestion process.

Protein catabolism is most commonly carried out by non-specific endo- and exo-proteases. However, specific proteases are used for cleaving of proteins for regulatory and protein trafficking purposes. One example is the subclass of proteolytic enzymes called oligopeptidase.

The amino acids produced by catabolism may be directly recycled to form new proteins, converted into different amino acids, or can undergo amino acid catabolism to be converted to other compounds via the Krebs cycle.

Protein degradation

The degradation of proteins occurs within the cells, as the amino acids have to pass through certain membranes before being able to be used for different processes. This first step to protein catabolism is breaking the protein down into amino acids by cleaving their peptide bonds, also known as proteolysis. The peptide bonds are broken up by the proteasome, which is able to hydrolyze the peptide bonds by using ATP energy. This process is further helped by the use of enzymes called proteases. The proteases help cleave off the remaining peptide residues to produce individual amino acids, ready to be converted into usable molecules for either glycolysis or the TCA cycle, to produce energy for the organisms, or to be used to create new proteins.

Different types of proteases help cleave the proteins in different formats. There are serine, aspartate, metalloproteases, and many other classes. All use different mechanisms to cleave the peptide bonds to begin protein degradation. For example, the serine proteases, such as trypsin, engage in a nucleophilic attack on the hydroxyl oxygen of the serine on the peptide bond's carbonyl carbon in order to cleave this bond. An acyl-enzyme intermediate is created and the mechanism continues to hydrolyze the other remaining linkages. On the other hand,

metalloproteases, such as zinc proteases, incorporate metals to break the bonds. With zinc, its active site incorporates the zinc ion, water, and histidines (which are ligands to the zinc ion). The zinc protease also engages in a nucleophilic attack but on the carbonyl carbon, using the water's oxygen atom. The active site's base helps this process along by taking a proton from that water.

Amino acid degradation

Oxidative deamination is the first step to breaking down the amino acids so that they can be converted to sugars. The process begins by removing the amino group of the amino acids. The amino group becomes ammonium as it is lost and later undergoes the urea cycle to become urea, in the liver. It is then released into the blood stream, where it is transferred to the kidneys, which will secrete the urea as urine. The remaining portion of the amino acid becomes oxidized, resulting in an alpha-keto acid. The alpha-keto acid will then proceed into the TCA cycle, in order to produce energy. The acid can also enter glycolysis, where it will be eventually converted into pyruvate. The pyruvate is then converted into acetyl-CoA so that it can enter the TCA cycle and convert the original pyruvate molecules into ATP, or usable energy for the organism.

Transamination leads to the same end result as deamination: the remaining acid will undergo either glycolysis or the TCA cycle to produce energy that the organism's body will use for various purposes. This process transfers the amino group instead of losing the amino group to be converted into ammonium. The amino group is transferred to alpha-ketoglutarate, so that it can be converted to glutamate. Then glutamate transfers the amino group to oxaloacetate. This transfer is so that the oxaloacetate can be converted to aspartate or other amino acids. Eventually, this product will also proceed into oxidative deamination to once again produce alpha-ketoglutarate, an alpha-keto acid that will undergo the TCA cycle, and ammonium, which will eventually undergo the urea cycle.

Transaminases are enzymes that help catalyze the reactions that take place in transamination. They help catalyze the reaction at the point when the amino group is transferred from the original amino acid, like glutamate to alpha-ketoglutarate, and hold onto it to transfer it to another alpha-ketoacid.

Vitamins

- Vitamins are organic compounds that are required as nutrients in small amounts by an organism.
- A vitamin is: – An organic compound distinct from fats, carbohydrates and proteins – Natural component of foods, present in minute amounts – Is essential for normal physiological function,

usually in minute amounts – Cause a specific deficiency syndrome when absent or underutilized
 – Is NOT synthesized by the host in amounts adequate to meet normal physiological needs: human can make vitamins D3 and B3

- Vitamers are different forms of a particular vitamin, e.g. vitamins K1 and K2, vitamins D2 and D3, retinol and retinal (vitamin A), etc.

Classification of Vitamins Based on Solubility

- Fat-soluble vitamins: A, D, E, K
- Water-soluble vitamins: B's and C – B1, thiamine; B2, riboflavin; B3, niacin; B5, pantothenic acid; B6, pyridoxine, pyridoxal, or pyridoxamine; B7, biotin; B9, folate; B12, cobalamin

Water-soluble vitamins

Nutrient	Function	Sources
Thiamine (vitamin B1)	Part of an enzyme needed for energy metabolism; important to nerve function	Found in all nutritious foods in moderate amounts: pork, whole grain foods or enriched breads and cereals, legumes, nuts and seeds
Riboflavin (vitamin B2)	Part of an enzyme needed for energy metabolism; important for normal vision and skin health	Milk and milk products; leafy green vegetables; whole grain foods, enriched breads and cereals
Niacin (vitamin B3)	Part of an enzyme needed for energy metabolism; important for nervous system, digestive system, and skin health	Meat, poultry, fish, whole grain foods, enriched breads and cereals, vegetables (especially mushrooms,

		asparagus, and leafy green vegetables), peanut butter
Pantothenic acid	Part of an enzyme needed for energy metabolism	Widespread in foods
Biotin	Part of an enzyme needed for energy metabolism	Widespread in foods; also produced in intestinal tract by bacteria
Pyridoxine (vitamin B6)	Part of an enzyme needed for protein metabolism; helps make red blood cells	Meat, fish, poultry, vegetables, fruits
Folic acid	Part of an enzyme needed for making DNA and new cells, especially red blood cells	Leafy green vegetables and legumes, seeds, orange juice, and liver; now added to most refined grains
Cobalamin (vitamin B12)	Part of an enzyme needed for making new cells; important to nerve function	Meat, poultry, fish, seafood, eggs, milk and milk products; not found in plant foods

Ascorbic acid (vitamin C)	Antioxidant ; part of an enzyme needed for protein metabolism; important for immune system health; aids in iron absorption	Found only in fruits and vegetables, especially citrus fruits, vegetables in the cabbage family, cantaloupe, strawberries, peppers, tomatoes, potatoes, lettuce, papayas, mangoes, kiwifruit
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Fat-soluble vitamins

Nutrient	Function	Sources
Vitamin A (and its precursor*, beta-carotene) *A precursor is converted by the body to the vitamin.	Needed for vision, healthy skin and mucous membranes, bone and tooth growth, immune system health	Vitamin A from animal sources (retinol): fortified milk, cheese, cream, butter, fortified margarine, eggs, liver Beta-carotene (from plant sources): Leafy, dark green vegetables; dark orange fruits (apricots, cantaloupe) and vegetables (carrots, winter squash, sweet potatoes, pumpkin)
Vitamin D	Needed for proper absorption of calcium ; stored in bones	Egg yolks, liver, fatty fish, fortified milk, fortified margarine. When exposed to sunlight, the skin can make vitamin D.
Vitamin E	Antioxidant; protects cell walls	Polyunsaturated plant oils (soybean, corn, cottonseed, safflower); leafy green vegetables; wheat germ; whole-grain products; liver; egg yolks; nuts and seeds

Vitamin K	Needed for proper blood clotting	Leafy green vegetables such as kale, collard greens, and spinach; green vegetables such as broccoli, Brussels sprouts, and asparagus; also produced in intestinal tract by bacteria
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Minerals

The body needs many minerals; these are called essential minerals. Essential minerals are sometimes divided up into major minerals (macrominerals) and trace minerals (microminerals). These two groups of minerals are equally important, but trace minerals are needed in smaller amounts than major minerals. The amounts needed in the body are not an indication of their importance.

A balanced diet usually provides all of the essential minerals. The two tables below list minerals, what they do in the body (their functions), and their sources in food.

Mineral	Function	Sources
Sodium	Needed for proper fluid balance, nerve transmission, and muscle contraction	Table salt, soy sauce; large amounts in processed foods; small amounts in milk, breads, vegetables, and unprocessed meats
Chloride	Needed for proper fluid balance, stomach acid	Table salt, soy sauce; large amounts in processed foods; small amounts in milk, meats, breads, and vegetables

Potassium	Needed for proper fluid balance, nerve transmission, and muscle contraction	Meats, milk, fresh fruits and vegetables, whole grains, legumes
Calcium	Important for healthy bones and teeth; helps muscles relax and contract; important in nerve functioning, blood clotting, blood pressure regulation, immune system health	Milk and milk products; canned fish with bones (salmon, sardines); fortified tofu and fortified soy milk; greens (broccoli, mustard greens); legumes
Phosphorus	Important for healthy bones and teeth; found in every cell; part of the system that maintains acid-base balance	Meat, fish, poultry, eggs, milk, processed foods (including soda pop)
Magnesium	Found in bones; needed for making protein, muscle contraction, nerve transmission, immune system health	Nuts and seeds; legumes; leafy, green vegetables; seafood; chocolate; artichokes; "hard" drinking water
Sulfur	Found in protein molecules	Occurs in foods as part of protein: meats, poultry, fish, eggs, milk, legumes, nuts

Structure of protein

Primary structure

The simplest level of protein structure, primary structure, is simply the sequence of amino acids in a polypeptide chain. For example, the hormone insulin has two polypeptide chains, A and B, shown in diagram below. (The insulin molecule shown here is cow insulin, although its structure is similar to that of human insulin.) Each chain has its own set of amino acids, assembled in a particular order. For instance, the sequence of the A chain starts with

glycine at the N-terminus and ends with asparagine at the C-terminus, and is different from the sequence of the B chain.

Secondary structure

The next level of protein structure, secondary structure, refers to local folded structures that form within a polypeptide due to interactions between atoms of the backbone. (The backbone just refers to the polypeptide chain apart from the R groups – so all we mean here is that secondary structure does not involve R group atoms.) The most common types of secondary structures are the α helix and the β pleated sheet. Both structures are held in shape by hydrogen bonds, which form between the carbonyl O of one amino acid and the amino H of another.

In an α helix, the carbonyl (C=O) of one amino acid is hydrogen bonded to the amino H (N-H) of an amino acid that is four down the chain. (E.g., the carbonyl of amino acid 1 would form a hydrogen bond to the N-H of amino acid 5.) This pattern of bonding pulls the polypeptide chain into a helical structure that resembles a curled ribbon, with each turn of the helix containing 3.6 amino acids. The R groups of the amino acids stick outward from the α helix, where they are free to interact

In a β pleated sheet, two or more segments of a polypeptide chain line up next to each other, forming a sheet-like structure held together by hydrogen bonds. The hydrogen bonds form between carbonyl and amino groups of backbone, while the R groups extend above and below the plane of the sheet

The strands of a β pleated sheet may be parallel, pointing in the same direction (meaning that their N- and C-termini match up), or antiparallel, pointing in opposite directions (meaning that the N-terminus of one strand is positioned next to the C-terminus of the other).

Tertiary structure

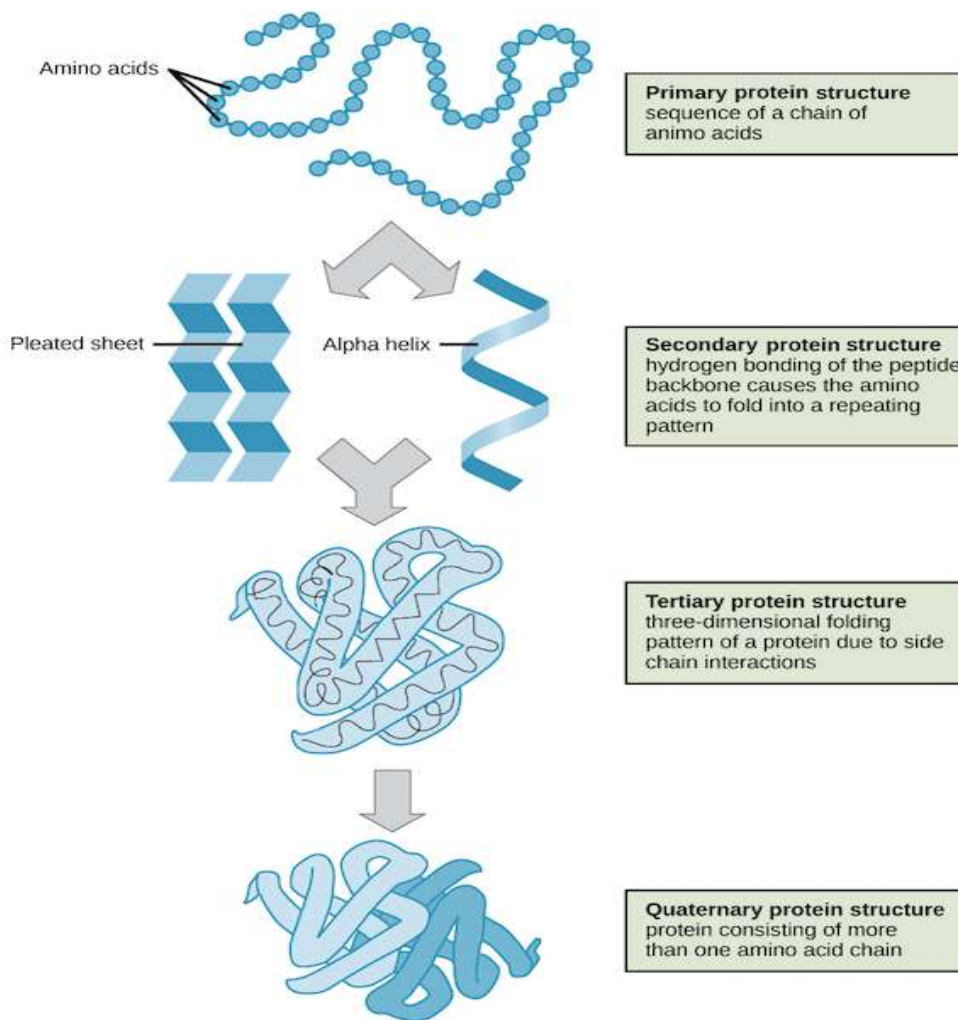
The overall three-dimensional structure of a polypeptide is called its tertiary structure. The tertiary structure is primarily due to interactions between the R groups of the amino acids that make up the protein.

R group interactions that contribute to tertiary structure include hydrogen bonding, ionic bonding, dipole-dipole interactions, and London dispersion forces – basically, the whole gamut of non-covalent bonds. For example, R groups with like charges repel one another, while those with opposite charges can form an ionic bond. Similarly, polar R groups can form hydrogen bonds and

other dipole-dipole interactions. Finally, there's one special type of covalent bond that can contribute to tertiary structure: the disulfide bond. Disulfide bonds, covalent linkages between the sulfur-containing side chains of cysteines, are much stronger than the other types of bonds that contribute to tertiary structure. They act like molecular "safety pins," keeping parts of the polypeptide firmly attached to one another.

Quaternary structure

Many proteins are made up of a single polypeptide chain and have only three levels of structure (the ones we've just discussed). However, some proteins are made up of multiple polypeptide chains, also known as subunits. When these subunits come together, they give the protein its quaternary structure.



Questions

5 marks

1. Briefly explain the structure of monosaccharides
2. Give a note on protein catabolism
3. Write about compound lipids
4. Write a brief account on minerals

10 marks

1. Describe in detail about vitamins
2. Explain the structure of proteins