The Nervous System

Chapter 37 - Campbell Biology in Focus

37.1 - Neuron structure and organization reflect function in information transfer

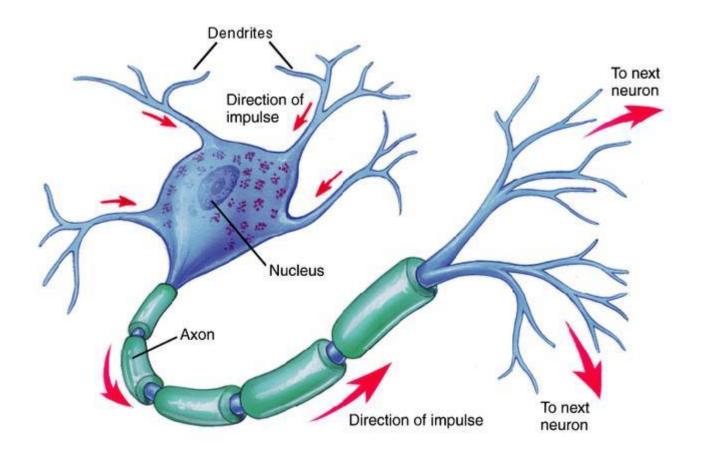
- The specialized cells of the nervous system are called *neurons*.
 - They are responsible for transferring information within the body
- All neurons transmit electrical signals within the cell in an identical manner → Action Potentials
- In more complex animals neurons are usually grouped into highly organized clusters called *brains* – or simpler structures called *ganglia*.

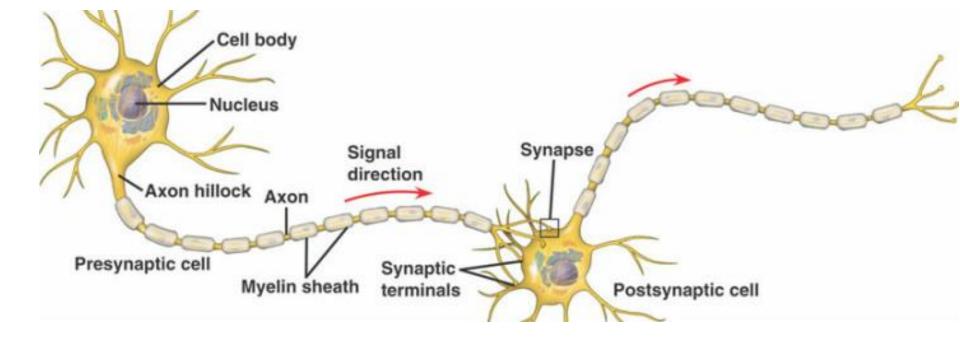
Neuron Structure & Function

1. <u>Cell body</u>

- Contains nucleus and organelles
- Carries out normal cell functions
- 2. <u>Dendrites</u>
 - Extensions leading towards cell body
 - *Receive signals* from other neurons and direct them toward cell body
- 3. <u>Axon</u>
 - Extension leading away from cell body
 - Transmits signals (nerve impulses) away from cell body towards other neurons or effectors
 - Usually much longer than dendrites

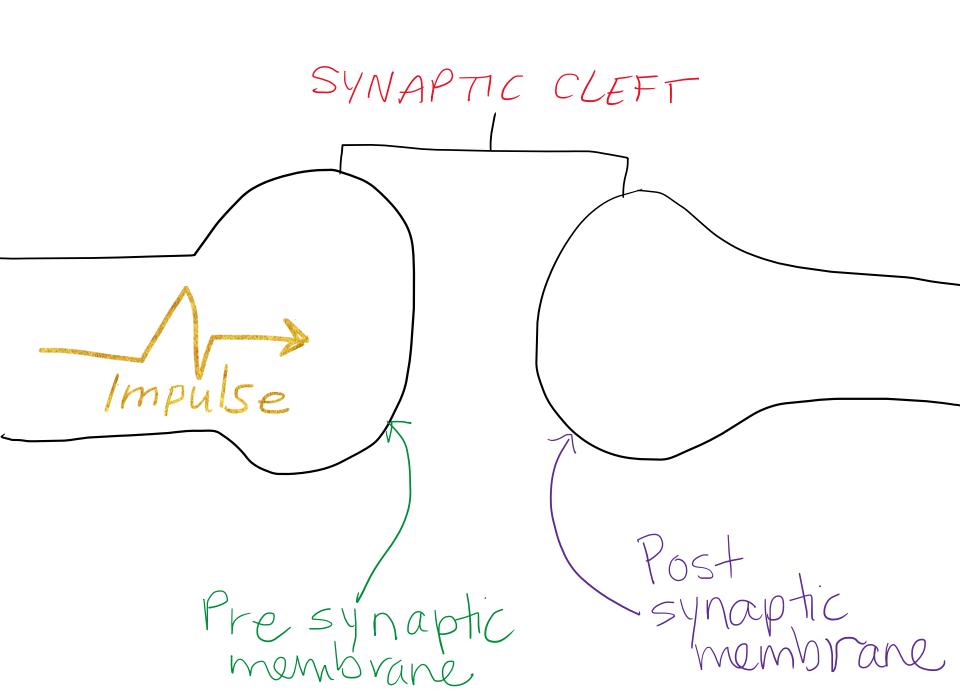
Remember: $D \rightarrow CB \rightarrow A$





At the end of an axon ...

- The axon hillock (attached to the cell body) is where most signals are generated
- At its other end, the axon usually divides into many branches
- Each branched end of an axon transmits impulses to other cells at junctions called <u>synapses</u>
 - There can be thousands of synapses at the end of a single axon.
- <u>Chemical messengers</u> called *neurotransmitters* at the synapse pass the information from transmitting neuron to the receiving cell



2 Types Of Cells In The N.S.

NEURONS

- Transmit impulses
 - SENSORY NEURON
 - INTERNEURON
 - MOTOR NEURON

<u>NEUROGLIA</u>

- Support and nourish neurons
- Maintain homeostasis
- Form myelin
- May aid in signal transmission

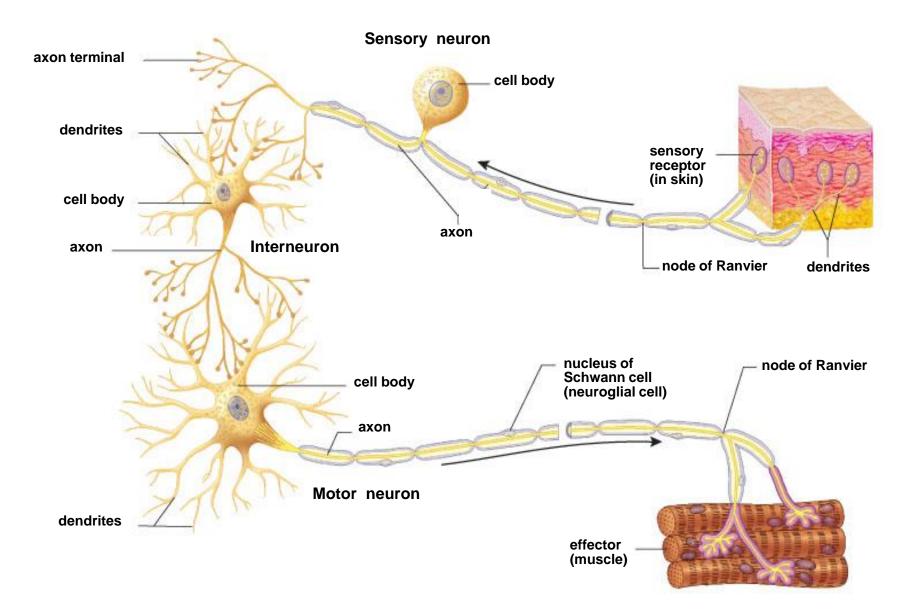
Introduction to Information Processing

Sensory Neurons

- Transmit info about external stimuli
- Ex. Light, touch or smell or blood pressure and muscle tension

<u>Interneurons</u>

- Form local circuits connecting neurons of the brain
- Integrate sensory input
- Motor Neurons
 - Transmit signals to effectors glands or muscle cells

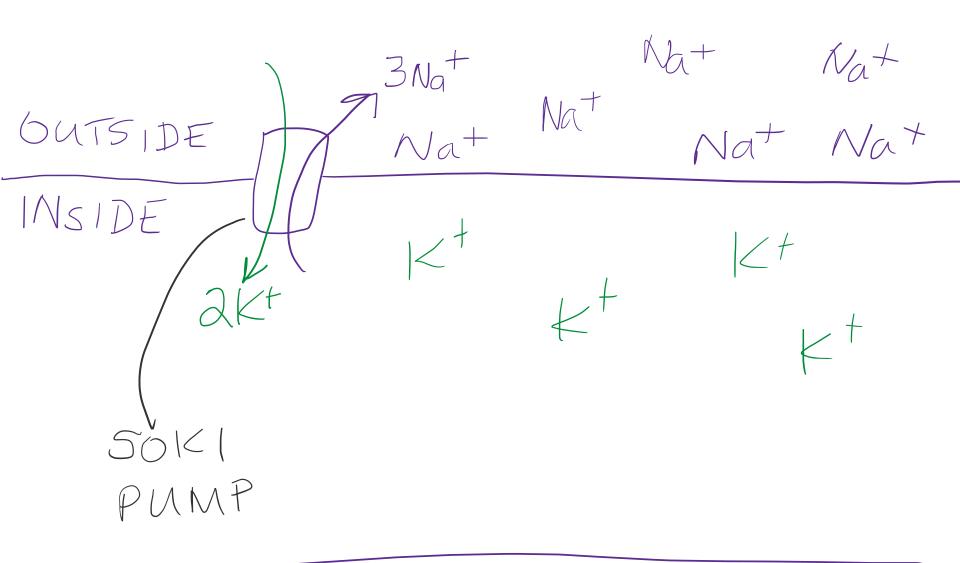


37.2 - Ion pumps and ion channels establish the resting potential of a neuron

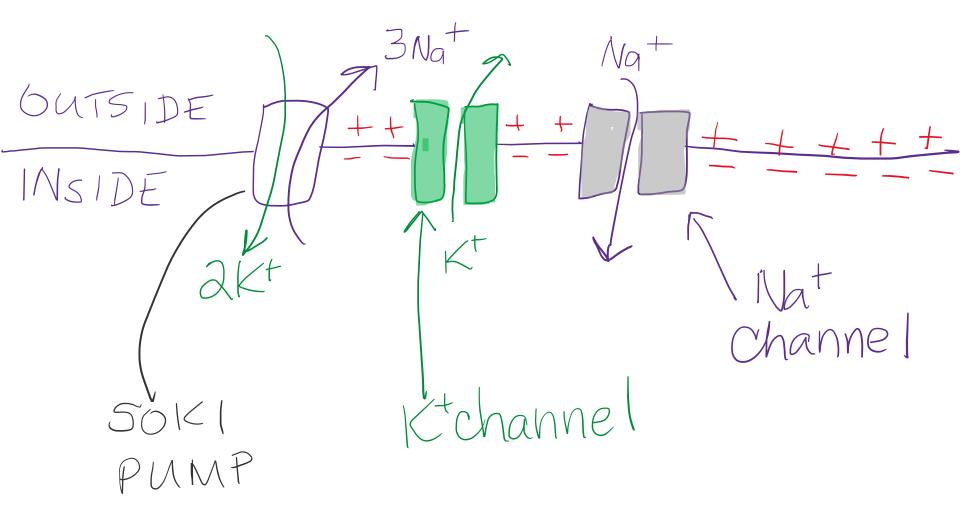
- In neurons ions are unequally distributed between the interior and exterior of the cell
- This results in a charge difference
- This charge difference, or *voltage*, across the membrane is called the <u>membrane potential</u>
- The membrane potential of a neuron at rest is called the RESTING POTENTIAL
 - Resting potential of a cell is between -60mV and -80mV
 - The inside of the cell is more negative than the outside...

Formation of the Resting Potential

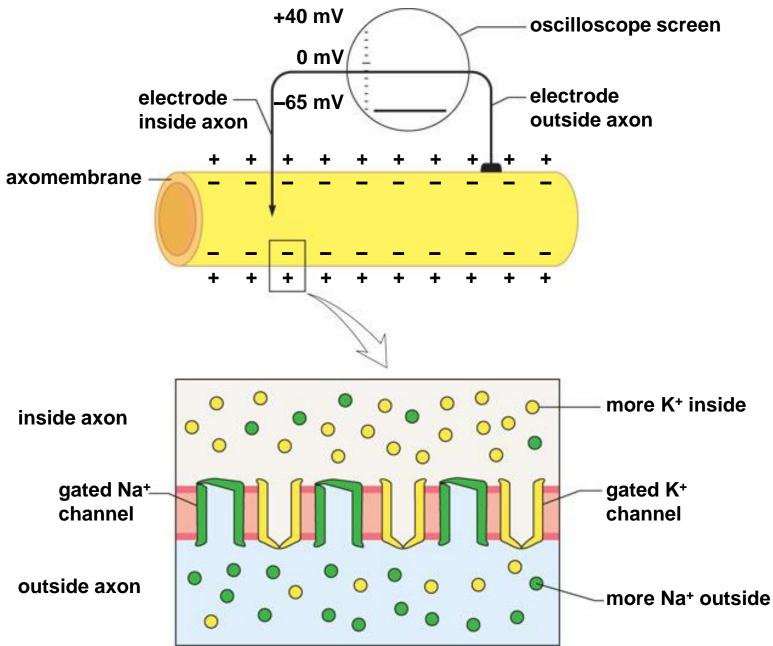
- Sodium and Potassium ions help establish the resting potential of a neuron
- The sodium-potassium (SOKI) pump pumps Na+ out (SO) and K+ in (KI)
 - The protein pump uses energy from ATP hydrolysis to create these gradients



The membrane is much more permeable to K+ so it flows out of the cell continuously. This contributes to a more negative charge in the axoplasm (the cytoplasm inside the neuron)



a. Resting potential



37.3 - Action Potentials are the signals conducted by axons

- When a neuron responds to a stimulus the membrane potential changes
- This is because some channels in the neuron's membrane are GATED ION CHANNELS that open in response to stimuli!
- When these channels open it allows ions to move through the membrane which in turns alters the membrane potential
- When there is a significant change in the membrane potential we call it an ACTION POTENTIAL
 - There are 3 distinct phases to an action potential

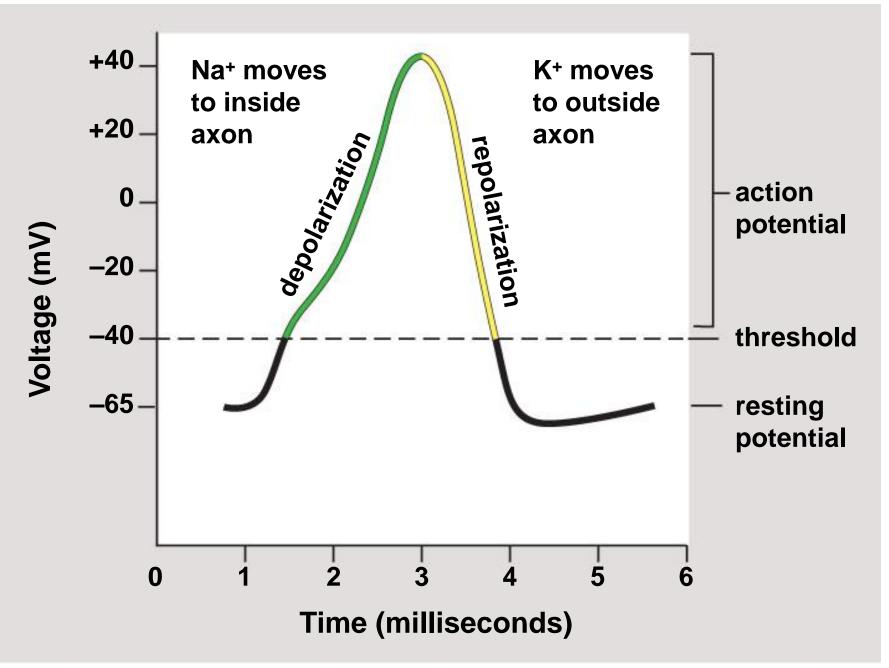
A closer look at Action Potentials

It all starts with a stimulus that opens a gated channel – this will change the membrane potential locally and can lead to other channels nearby opening too...

- 1. DEPOLARIZATION: Rising Phase (Upswing)
 - Na+ gated channels open and Na+ rushed into the cell
 - Membrane potential rises to around +45mV
- 2. REPOLARIZATION: Falling Phase (Downswing)
 - K+ gated channels open next and K+ rushes out of the cell
 - Membrane potential drops below resting potential (*Undershoot*)
- 3. REFRACTORY PERIOD: "The Downtime"
 - During this time the Na+ gated channels are closed and cannot reopen so if there's another stimulus another AP cannot be generated

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d. Enlargement of action potential



The "All-or-none" Response

- An action potential (AP) is considered to be an <u>all-or-none</u> phenomena
- If a stimulus causes depolarization of the axonal membrane to a certain level (<u>threshold</u>) an AP occurs
 - Usually around -40mV is all it takes to start an AP
- That is, the strength of an AP never changes
 - There is either an AP, or there isn't
- The only variable that may change is frequency of APs
 - The stronger a stimulus, the more frequent the APs

An Overview: what's happening and when?

<u>RESTING POTENTIAL</u>

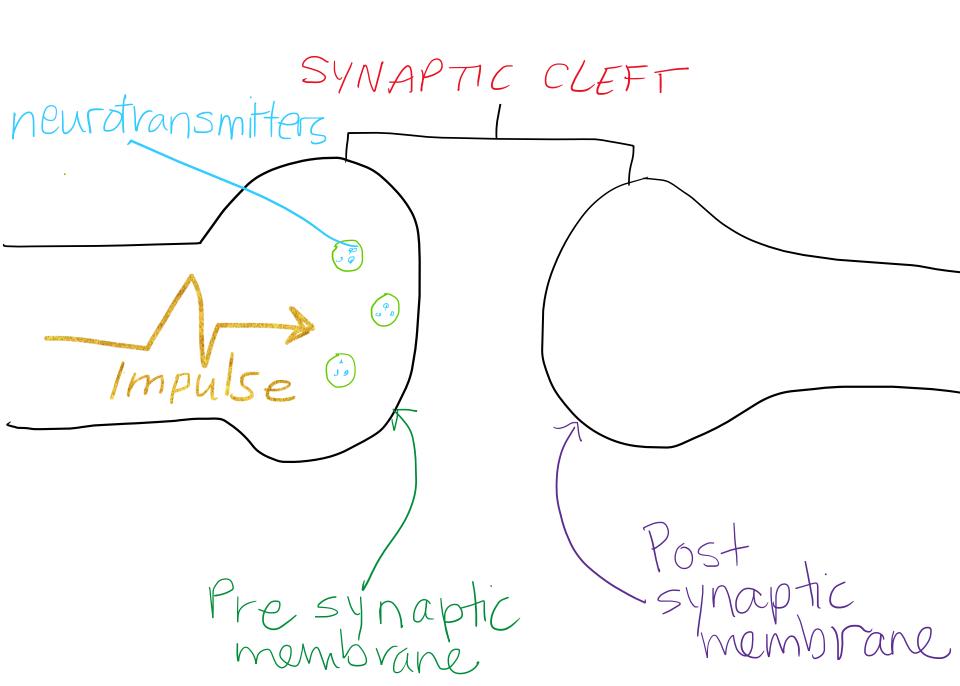
Na+/K+ pump at work

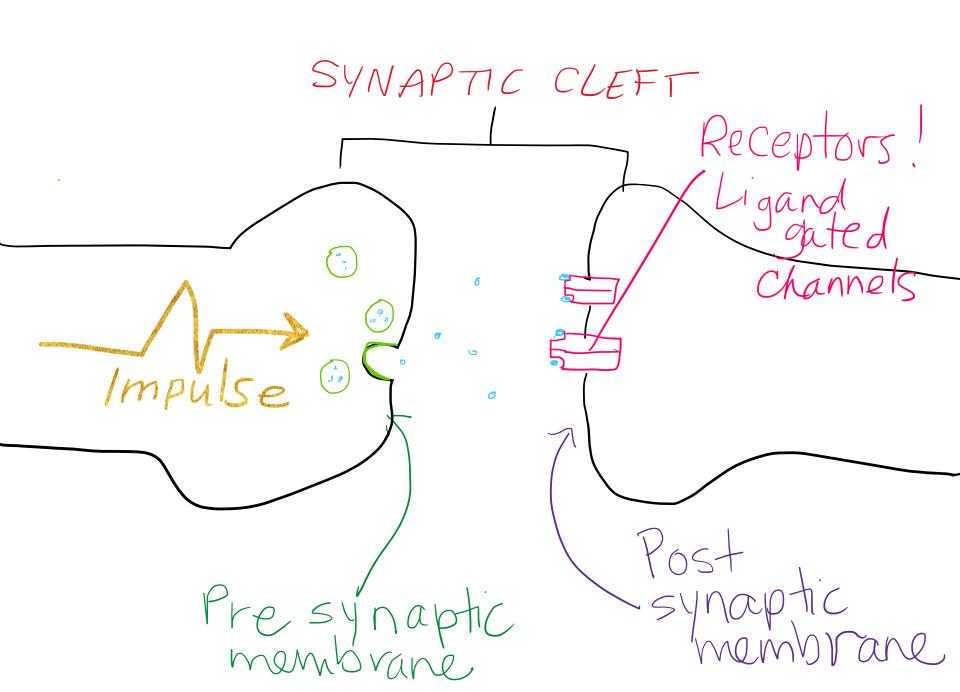
<u>ACTION POTENTIAL</u>

- Depolarization: Na+ gates open
- Repolarization: K+ gates open
- Refractory Period: Na+ gates unable to open
- <u>RECOVERY PHASE (simultaneous w/ refractory period)</u>
 - Na+/K+ pump at work to reestablish the ion distribution at rest

37.4 - Neurons communicate with other cells at synapses

- 1. Action potential arrives at synaptic terminal depolarizing the presynaptic membrane
- Voltage-gated Ca²⁺ channels open triggering an influx of Ca²⁺
- 3. Elevated Ca²⁺ causes synaptic vesicles to fuse with presynaptic membrane releasing NTs into synaptic cleft
- NTs bind to ligand-gated ion channels in the postsynaptic membrane causing them to open (Na+ and K+ diffuse into the receiving cell)





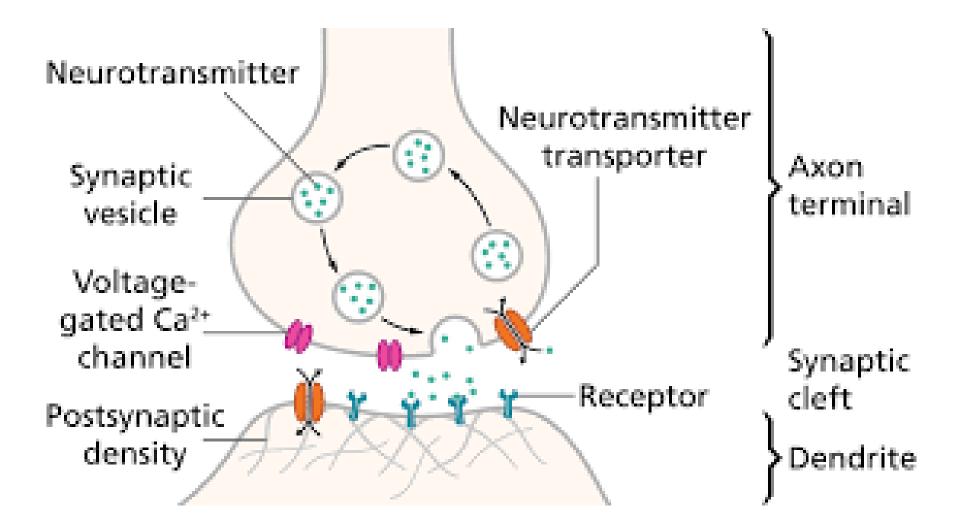
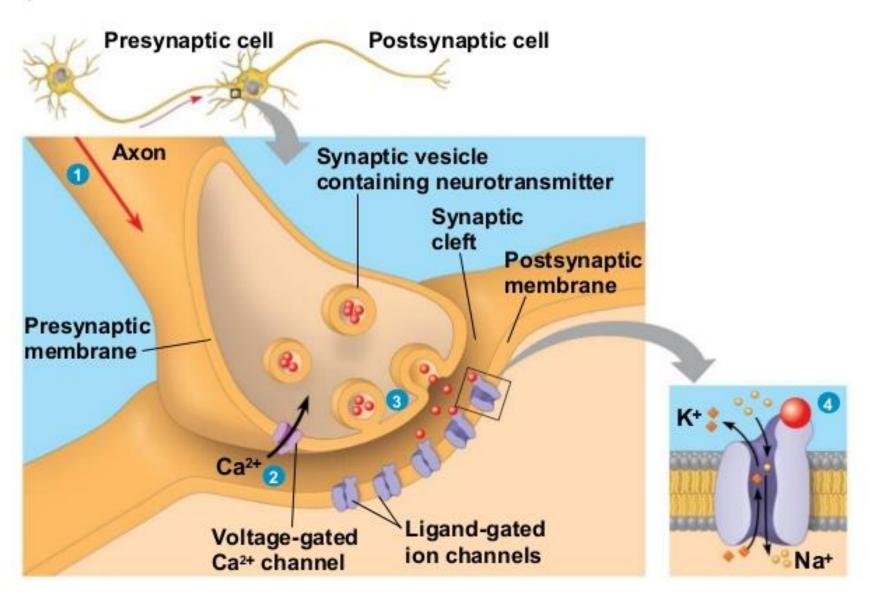
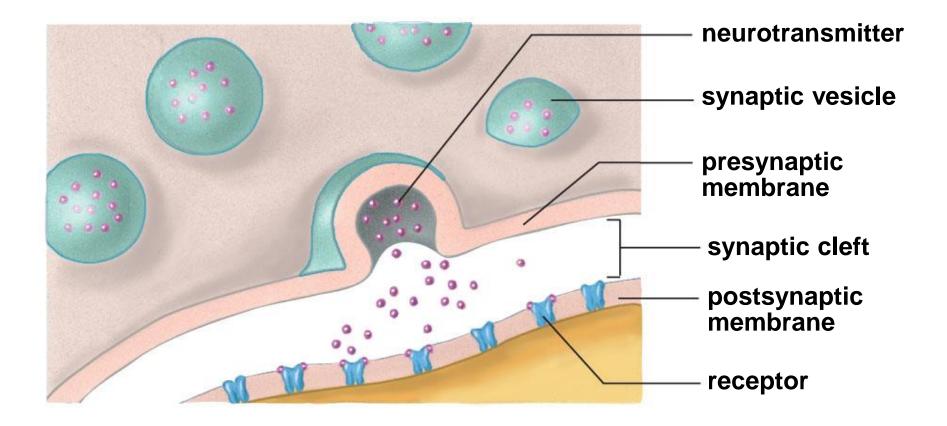


Figure 37.15



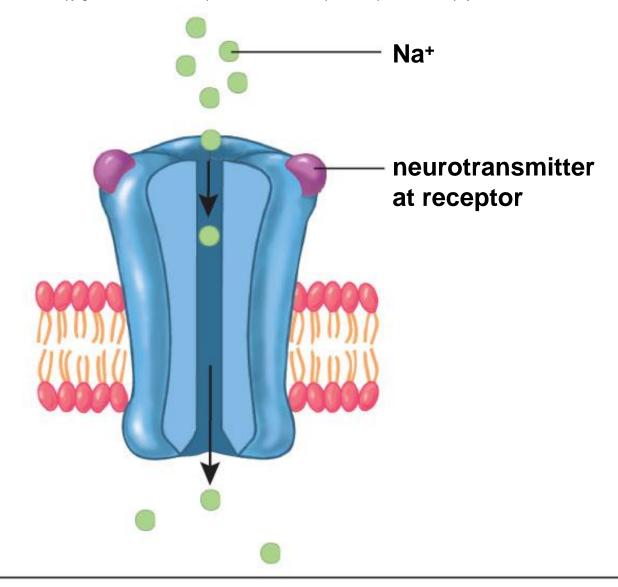


Neurotransmitter molecules are released and bind to receptors on the postsynaptic membrane.

Neurotransmitters:

- Can be single amino acids, chains of a.a.'s, or protein derivatives
- Excitatory neurotransmitters cause an AP to occur at the next neuron
 - Eg. Norepinephrine (NE), adrenalin, acetylcholine (Ach)
- Inhibitory neurotransmitters prevent an AP from occurring at the next neuron
 - Eg. Serotonin, GABA

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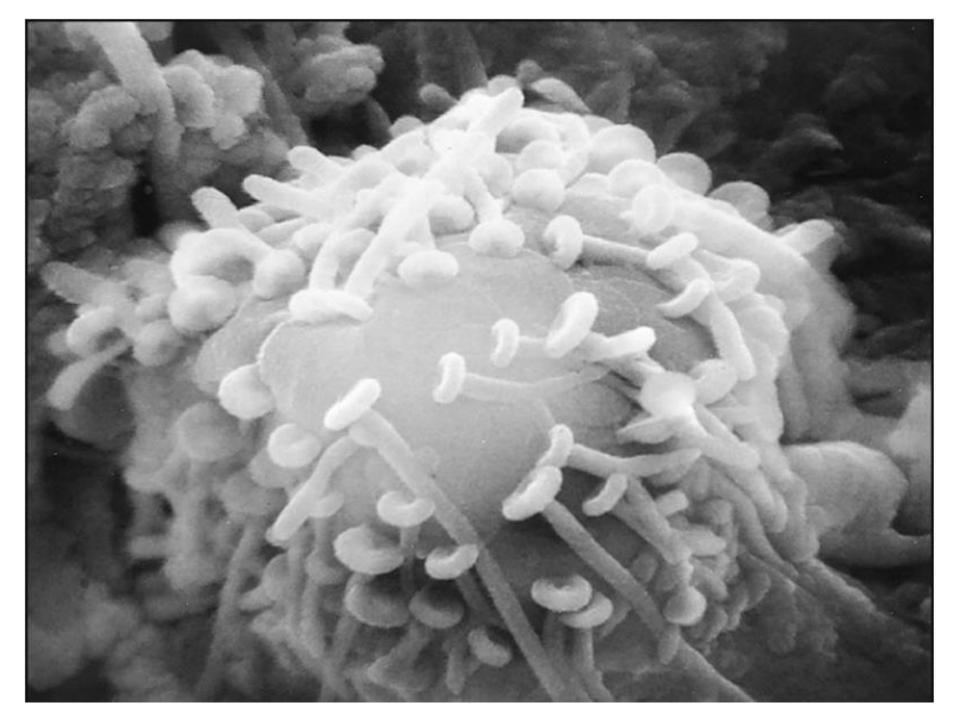
When a stimulatory neurotransmitter binds to a receptor, Na⁺ diffuses into the postsynaptic neuron.

NT Degradation

- NTs are quickly *degraded by enzymes* on the postsynaptic membrane or *reabsorbed* into the pre-synaptic axon terminal
- This prevents continual binding at the post-synaptic receptors
 - Which would lead to continual stimulation or inhibition of the next neuron
- Ach is degraded by acetylcholinesterase
- **NE** is degraded by **monoamine oxidase**
- Serotonin is reabsorbed by reuptake carrier proteins

Summation Of Signals...

- A single neuron may receive info from thousands of neighboring neurons
 - That is, there may be thousands of synapses around a neuron
- A neuron will **sum up** the excitatory inhibitory signals it receives
 - If a neuron receives significantly more excitatory signals than inhibitory ones, it will "fire"



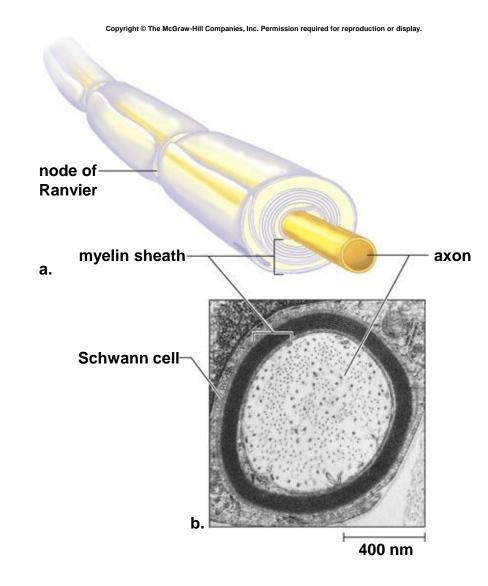
Drugs Action At A Synapse:

At a synapse drugs can:

- 1. Cause NTs to leak out of a synaptic vesicle into the axon terminal
- 2. Prevent release of NTs into the synaptic cleft
- 3. Promote release of NTs into the synaptic cleft
- 4. Prevent reuptake of NTs by the presynaptic membrane
- 5. Block the enzyme that causes breakdown of the NT
- 6. Bind to a receptor, mimicking the action of an NT

Consideration: Myelin Sheath

- Some axons are covered with a protective lipid layer called <u>myelin</u>
- Myelin sheath is formed by types of neuroglia called <u>Schwann</u>
 <u>cells</u> (PNS) and oligodendroglial cells (CNS)
- Schwann cells wrap themselves up to 100 times around an axon, laying down multiple layers of plasma membrane
 - Each cell myelinates only a small portion of an axon (~1mm) so there are gaps between each segment
 - These gaps are called the <u>Nodes of Ranvier</u>
 - Speeds up AP transmission as signal can "jump" from node to node



why Myelin?

- Myelin serves as an insulator
 - Nerve impulses travel faster in myelinated cells:
 - Ie. Non-myelinated = 5 m/s
 - Myelinated = 100-200 m/s
 - Saltatory conduction:

• Can **protect** nerve cells in the PNS to help them to regenerate if they are damaged