LECTURE PRESENTATIONS

For CAMPBELL BIOLOGY, NINTH EDITION

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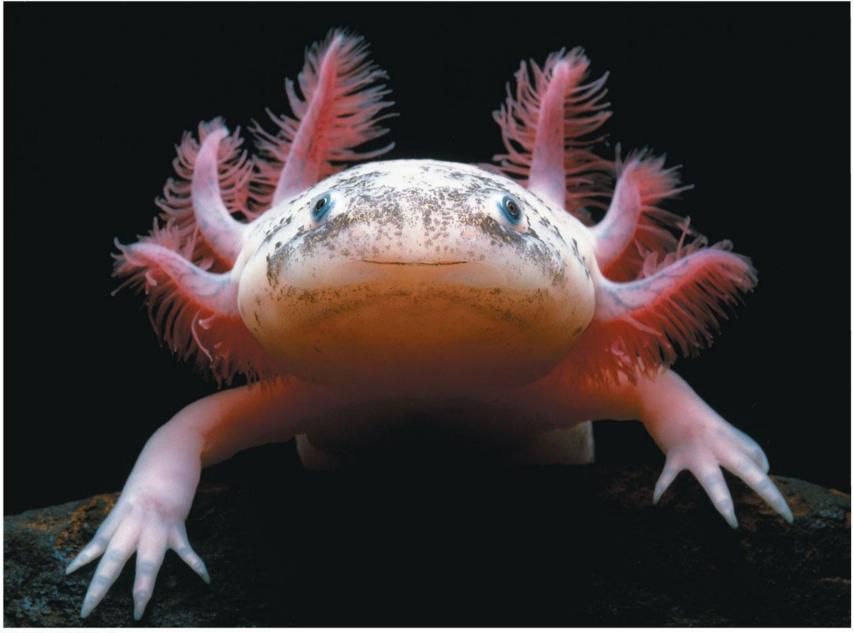


Overview: Trading Places

- Every organism must exchange materials with its environment
- Exchanges ultimately occur at the cellular level by crossing the plasma membrane
- In unicellular organisms, these exchanges occur directly with the environment

- For most cells making up multicellular organisms, direct exchange with the environment is not possible
- Gills are an example of a specialized exchange system in animals
 - O₂ diffuses from the water into blood vessels
 - CO₂ diffuses from blood into the water
- Internal transport and gas exchange are functionally related in most animals

Figure 42.1



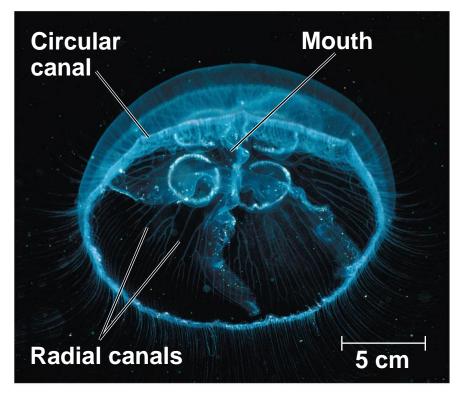
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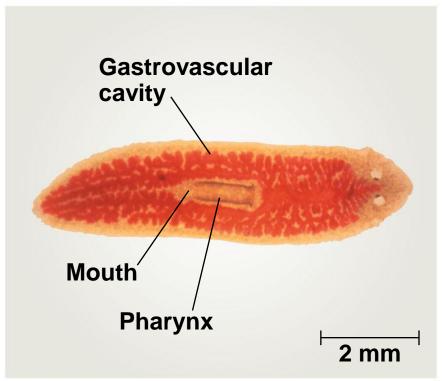
Concept 42.1: Circulatory systems link exchange surfaces with cells throughout the body

- Diffusion time is proportional to the square of the distance
- Diffusion is only efficient over small distances
- In small and/or thin animals, cells can exchange materials directly with the surrounding medium
- In most animals, cells exchange materials with the environment via a fluid-filled circulatory system

Gastrovascular Cavities

- Some animals lack a circulatory system
- Some cnidarians, such as jellies, have elaborate gastrovascular cavities
- A gastrovascular cavity functions in both digestion and distribution of substances throughout the body
- The body wall that encloses the gastrovascular cavity is only two cells thick
- Flatworms have a gastrovascular cavity and a large surface area to volume ratio





(a) The moon jelly Aurelia, a cnidarian (b) The planarian Dugesia, a flatworm

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Evolutionary Variation in Circulatory Systems

 A circulatory system minimizes the diffusion distance in animals with many cell layers

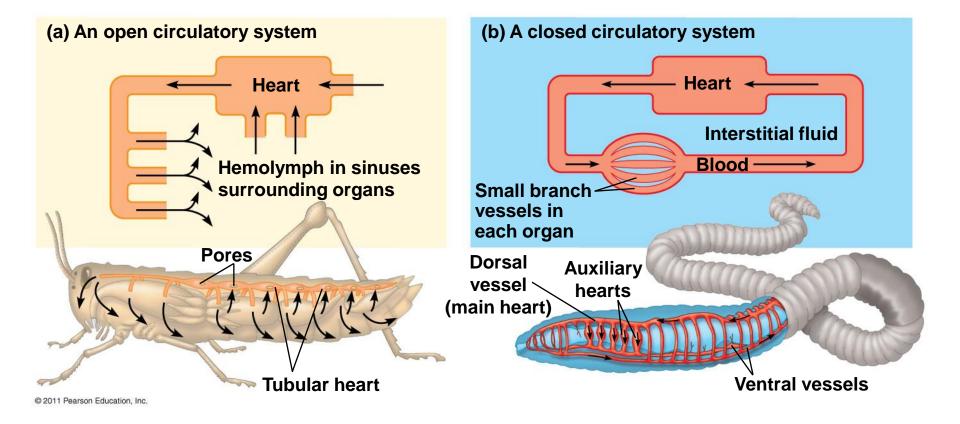
General Properties of Circulatory Systems

- A circulatory system has
 - A circulatory fluid
 - A set of interconnecting vessels
 - A muscular pump, the heart
- The circulatory system connects the fluid that surrounds cells with the organs that exchange gases, absorb nutrients, and dispose of wastes
- Circulatory systems can be open or closed and vary in the number of circuits in the body

Open and Closed Circulatory Systems

- In insects, other arthropods, and most molluscs, blood bathes the organs directly in an open circulatory system
- In an open circulatory system, there is no distinction between blood and interstitial fluid, and this general body fluid is called hemolymph

- In a closed circulatory system, blood is confined to vessels and is distinct from the interstitial fluid
- Closed systems are more efficient at transporting circulatory fluids to tissues and cells
- Annelids, cephalopods, and vertebrates have closed circulatory systems



Organization of Vertebrate Circulatory Systems

- Humans and other vertebrates have a closed circulatory system called the cardiovascular system
- The three main types of blood vessels are arteries, veins, and capillaries
- Blood flow is one way in these vessels

- Arteries branch into arterioles and carry blood away from the heart to capillaries
- Networks of capillaries called capillary beds are the sites of chemical exchange between the blood and interstitial fluid
- Venules converge into veins and return blood from capillaries to the heart

- Arteries and veins are distinguished by the direction of blood flow, not by O₂ content
- Vertebrate hearts contain two or more chambers
- Blood enters through an atrium and is pumped out through a ventricle

Single Circulation

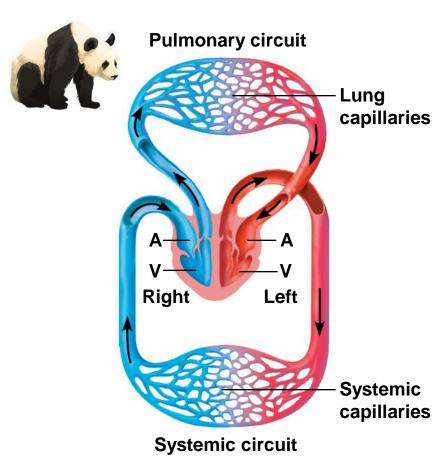
- Bony fishes, rays, and sharks have single circulation with a two-chambered heart
- In single circulation, blood leaving the heart passes through two capillary beds before returning

Double Circulation

- Amphibian, reptiles, and mammals have double circulation
- Oxygen-poor and oxygen-rich blood are pumped separately from the right and left sides of the heart

(a) Single circulation Gill capillaries **Artery Heart:** Atrium (A) Ventricle (V) **Vein Body** capillaries Key Oxygen-rich blood

(b) Double circulation



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Oxygen-poor blood

- In reptiles and mammals, oxygen-poor blood flows through the pulmonary circuit to pick up oxygen through the lungs
- In amphibians, oxygen-poor blood flows through a pulmocutaneous circuit to pick up oxygen through the lungs and skin
- Oxygen-rich blood delivers oxygen through the systemic circuit
- Double circulation maintains higher blood pressure in the organs than does single circulation

Adaptations of Double Circulatory Systems

Hearts vary in different vertebrate groups

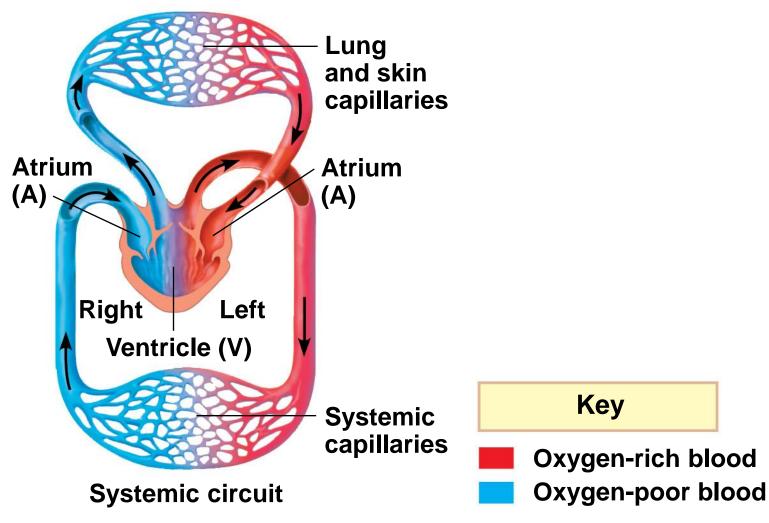
Amphibians

- Frogs and other amphibians have a threechambered heart: two atria and one ventricle
- The ventricle pumps blood into a forked artery that splits the ventricle's output into the pulmocutaneous circuit and the systemic circuit
- When underwater, blood flow to the lungs is nearly shut off



Amphibians

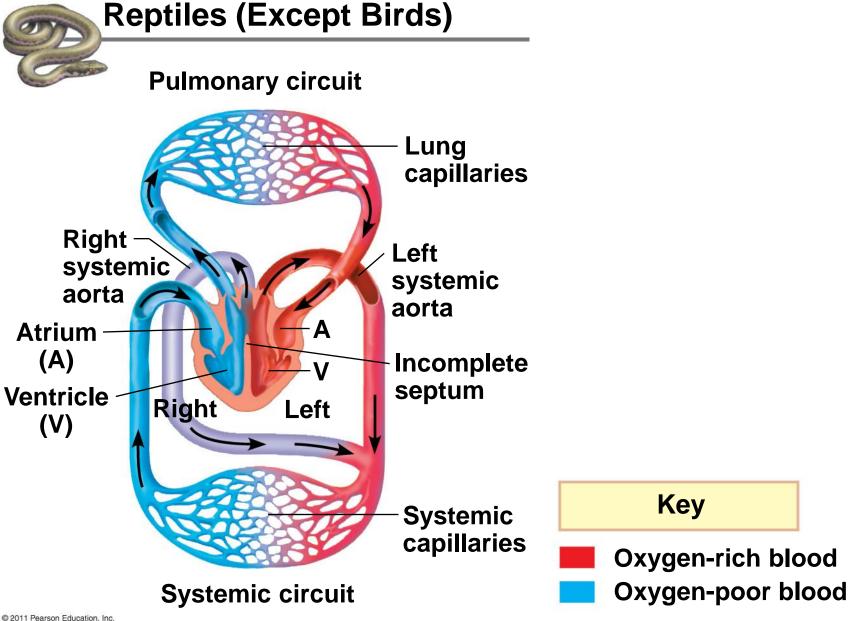
Pulmocutaneous circuit



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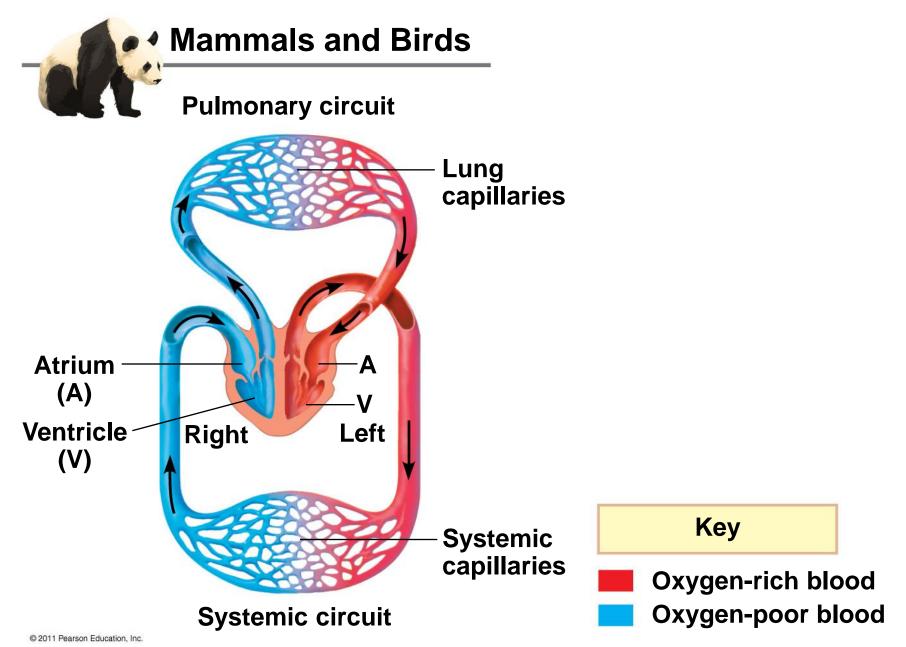
Reptiles (Except Birds)

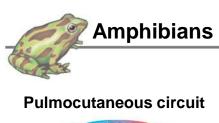
- Turtles, snakes, and lizards have a threechambered heart: two atria and one ventricle
- In alligators, caimans, and other crocodilians a septum divides the ventricle
- Reptiles have double circulation, with a pulmonary circuit (lungs) and a systemic circuit

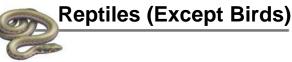


Mammals and Birds

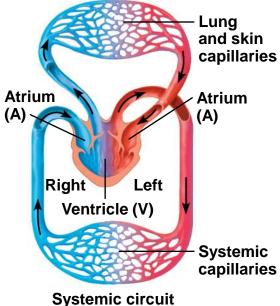
- Mammals and birds have a four-chambered heart with two atria and two ventricles
- The left side of the heart pumps and receives only oxygen-rich blood, while the right side receives and pumps only oxygen-poor blood
- Mammals and birds are endotherms and require more O₂ than ectotherms

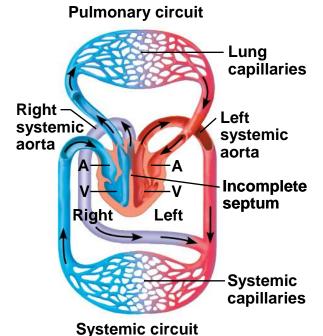


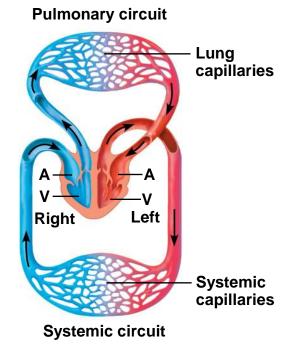












Key Oxygen-rich blood Oxygen-poor blood © 2011 Pearson Education, Inc.

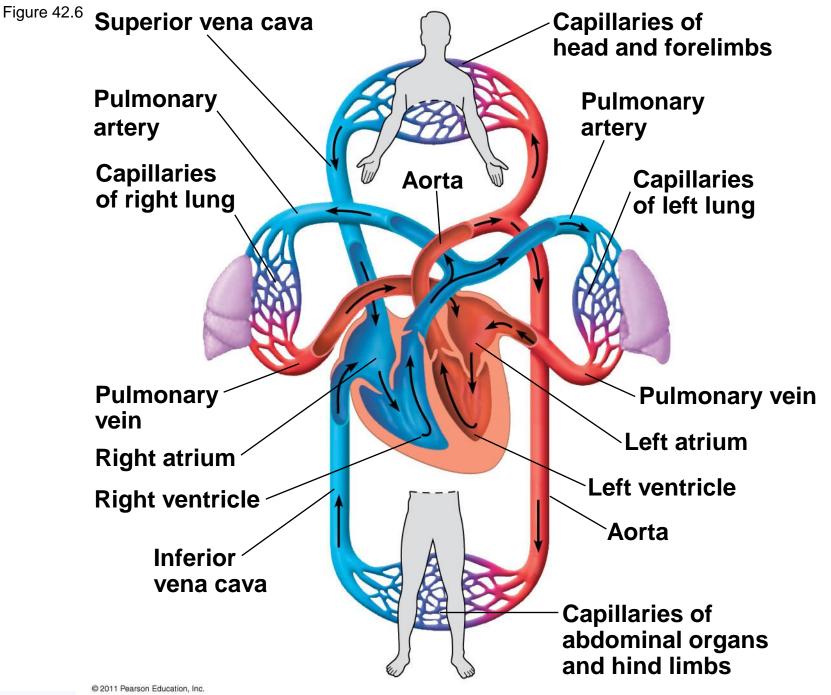
Concept 42.2: Coordinated cycles of heart contraction drive double circulation in mammals

 The mammalian cardiovascular system meets the body's continuous demand for O₂

Mammalian Circulation

- Blood begins its flow with the right ventricle pumping blood to the lungs
- In the lungs, the blood loads O₂ and unloads CO₂
- Oxygen-rich blood from the lungs enters the heart at the left atrium and is pumped through the aorta to the body tissues by the left ventricle
- The aorta provides blood to the heart through the coronary arteries

- Blood returns to the heart through the superior vena cava (blood from head, neck, and forelimbs) and inferior vena cava (blood from trunk and hind limbs)
- The superior vena cava and inferior vena cava flow into the right atrium

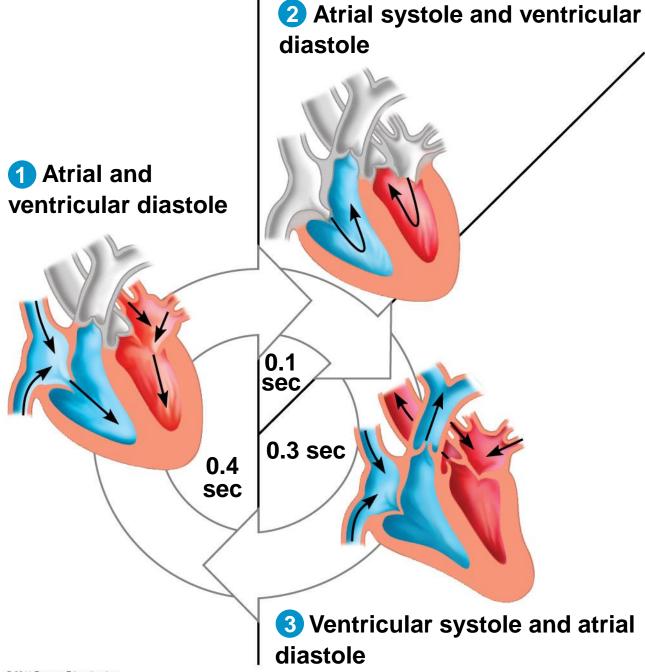


The Mammalian Heart: A Closer Look

 A closer look at the mammalian heart provides a better understanding of double circulation

Figure 42.7 Pulmonary artery **Aorta Pulmonary** artery **Right** Left atrium atrium **Semilunar Semilunar** valve valve **Atrioventricular Atrioventricular** valve valve **Right** Left ventricle ventricle

- The heart contracts and relaxes in a rhythmic cycle called the cardiac cycle
- The contraction, or pumping, phase is called systole
- The relaxation, or filling, phase is called diastole



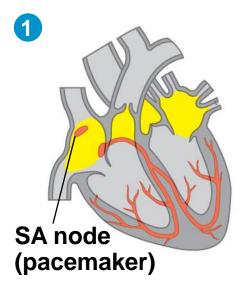
- The heart rate, also called the pulse, is the number of beats per minute
- The stroke volume is the amount of blood pumped in a single contraction
- The cardiac output is the volume of blood pumped into the systemic circulation per minute and depends on both the heart rate and stroke volume

- Four valves prevent backflow of blood in the heart
- The atrioventricular (AV) valves separate each atrium and ventricle
- The semilunar valves control blood flow to the aorta and the pulmonary artery

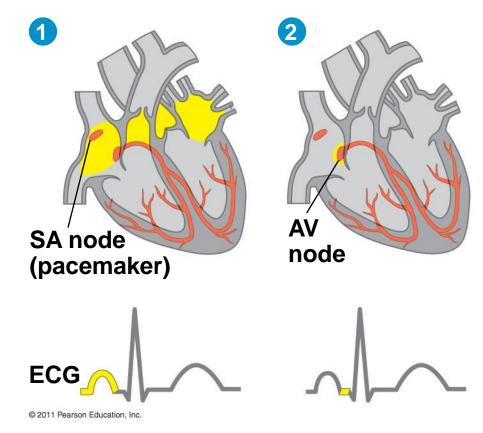
- The "lub-dup" sound of a heart beat is caused by the recoil of blood against the AV valves (lub) then against the semilunar (dup) valves
- Backflow of blood through a defective valve causes a heart murmur

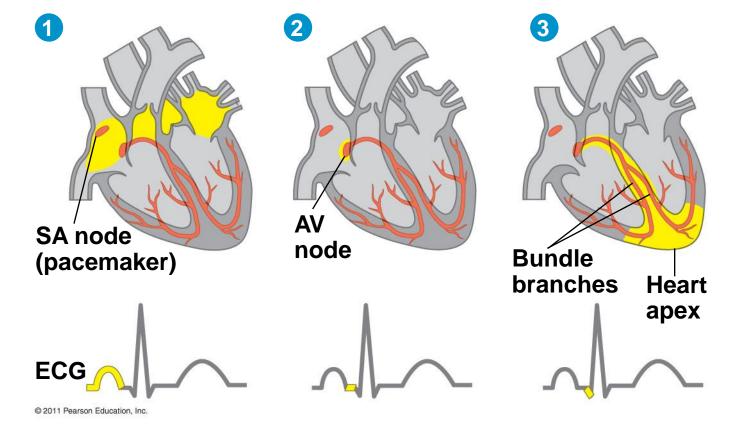
Maintaining the Heart's Rhythmic Beat

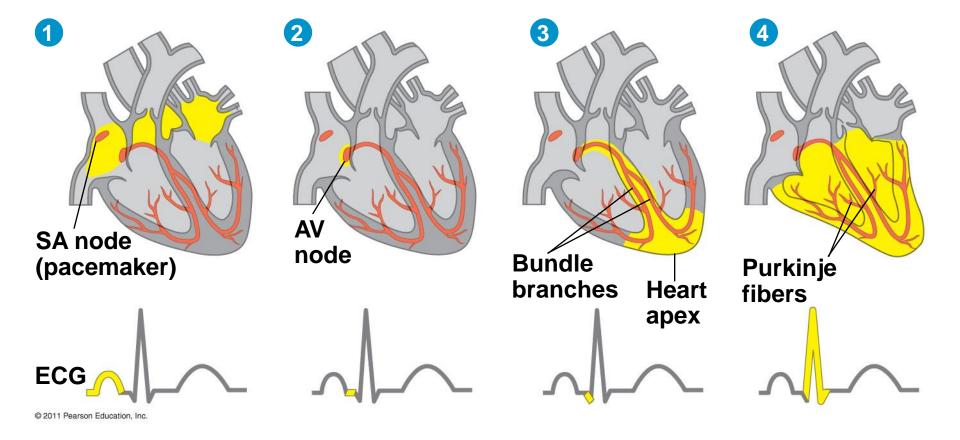
- Some cardiac muscle cells are self-excitable, meaning they contract without any signal from the nervous system
- The sinoatrial (SA) node, or pacemaker, sets the rate and timing at which cardiac muscle cells contract
- Impulses that travel during the cardiac cycle can be recorded as an electrocardiogram (ECG or EKG)











- Impulses from the SA node travel to the atrioventricular (AV) node
- At the AV node, the impulses are delayed and then travel to the Purkinje fibers that make the ventricles contract

- The pacemaker is regulated by two portions of the nervous system: the sympathetic and parasympathetic divisions
- The sympathetic division speeds up the pacemaker
- The parasympathetic division slows down the pacemaker
- The pacemaker is also regulated by hormones and temperature

Concept 42.3: Patterns of blood pressure and flow reflect the structure and arrangement of blood vessels

 The physical principles that govern movement of water in plumbing systems also influence the functioning of animal circulatory systems

Blood Vessel Structure and Function

- A vessel's cavity is called the central lumen
- The epithelial layer that lines blood vessels is called the endothelium
- The endothelium is smooth and minimizes resistance

Figure 42.10

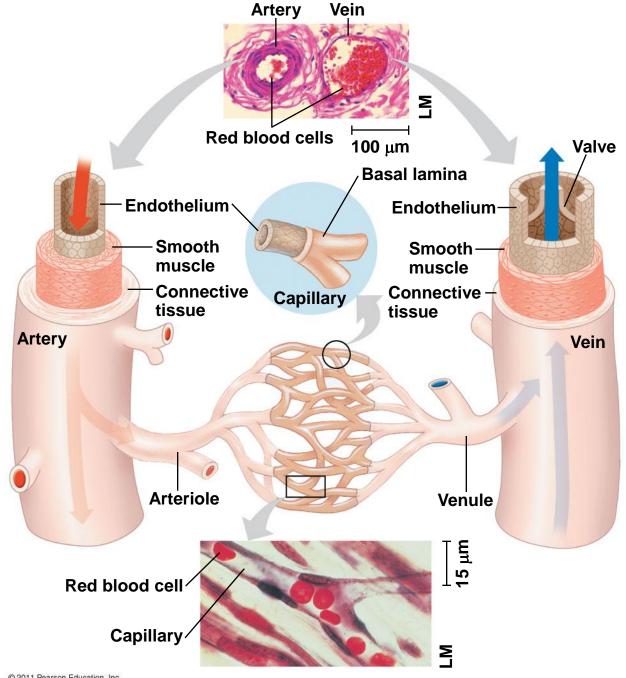
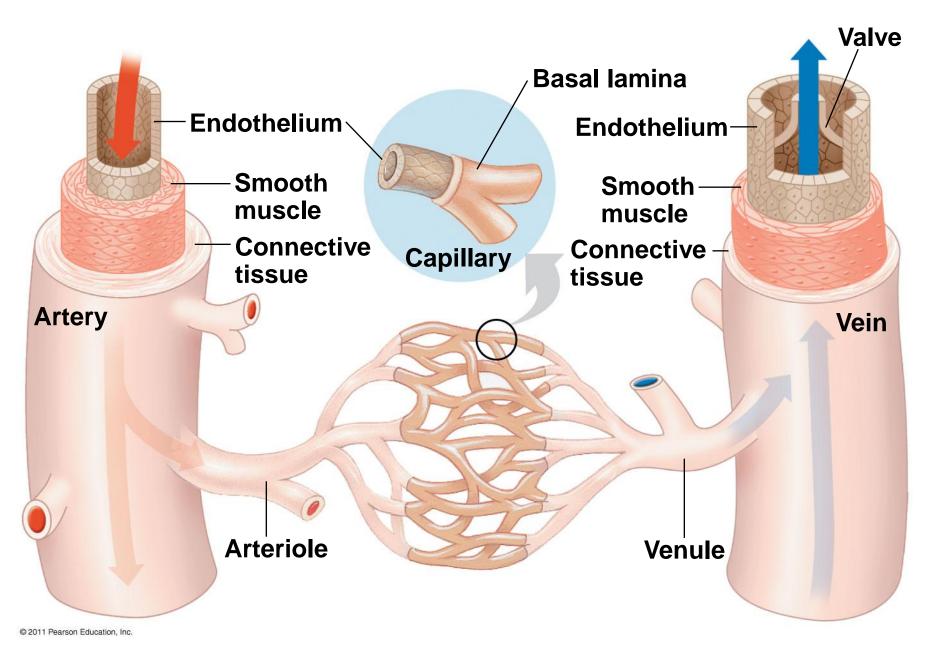
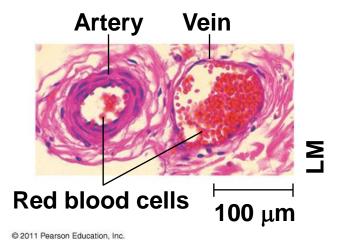
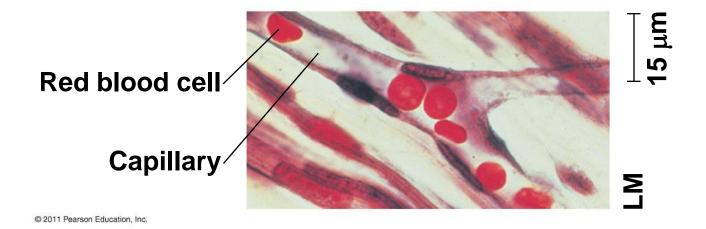


Figure 42.10a





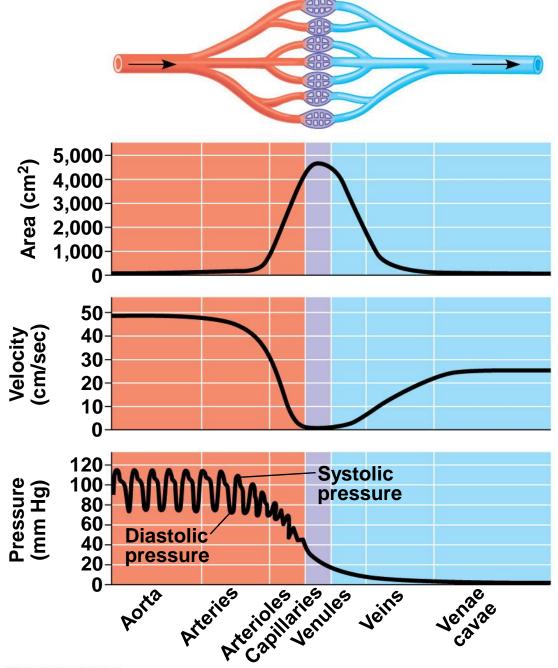


- Capillaries have thin walls, the endothelium plus its basal lamina, to facilitate the exchange of materials
- Arteries and veins have an endothelium, smooth muscle, and connective tissue
- Arteries have thicker walls than veins to accommodate the high pressure of blood pumped from the heart
- In the thinner-walled veins, blood flows back to the heart mainly as a result of muscle action

Blood Flow Velocity

- Physical laws governing movement of fluids through pipes affect blood flow and blood pressure
- Velocity of blood flow is slowest in the capillary beds, as a result of the high resistance and large total cross-sectional area
- Blood flow in capillaries is necessarily slow for exchange of materials

Figure 42.11



Blood Pressure

- Blood flows from areas of higher pressure to areas of lower pressure
- Blood pressure is the pressure that blood exerts against the wall of a vessel
- In rigid vessels blood pressure is maintained; less rigid vessels deform and blood pressure is lost

Changes in Blood Pressure During the Cardiac Cycle

- Systolic pressure is the pressure in the arteries during ventricular systole; it is the highest pressure in the arteries
- Diastolic pressure is the pressure in the arteries during diastole; it is lower than systolic pressure
- A pulse is the rhythmic bulging of artery walls with each heartbeat

Regulation of Blood Pressure

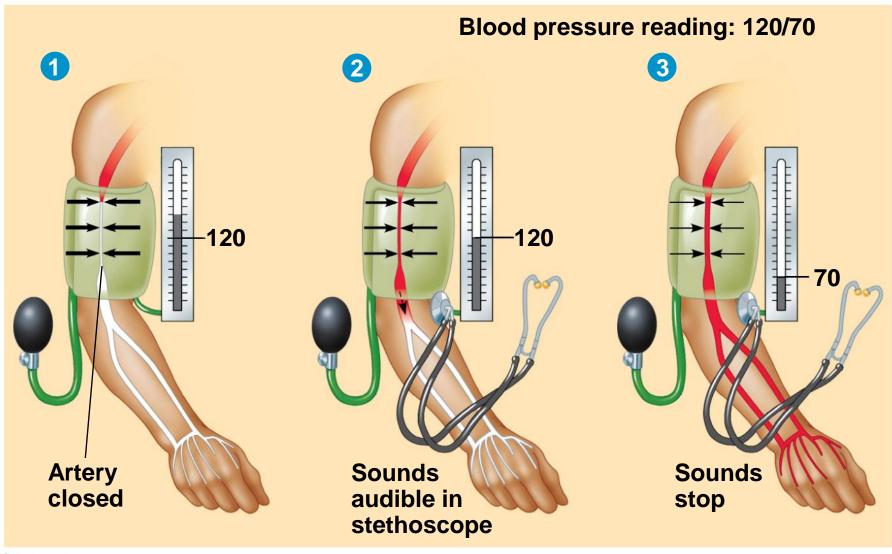
- Blood pressure is determined by cardiac output and peripheral resistance due to constriction of arterioles
- Vasoconstriction is the contraction of smooth muscle in arteriole walls; it increases blood pressure
- Vasodilation is the relaxation of smooth muscles in the arterioles; it causes blood pressure to fall

- Vasoconstriction and vasodilation help maintain adequate blood flow as the body's demands change
- Nitric oxide is a major inducer of vasodilation
- The peptide endothelin is an important inducer of vasoconstriction

Blood Pressure and Gravity

- Blood pressure is generally measured for an artery in the arm at the same height as the heart
- Blood pressure for a healthy 20-year-old at rest is 120 mm Hg at systole and 70 mm Hg at diastole

Figure 42.12



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- Fainting is caused by inadequate blood flow to the head
- Animals with longer necks require a higher systolic pressure to pump blood a greater distance against gravity
- Blood is moved through veins by smooth muscle contraction, skeletal muscle contraction, and expansion of the vena cava with inhalation
- One-way valves in veins prevent backflow of blood

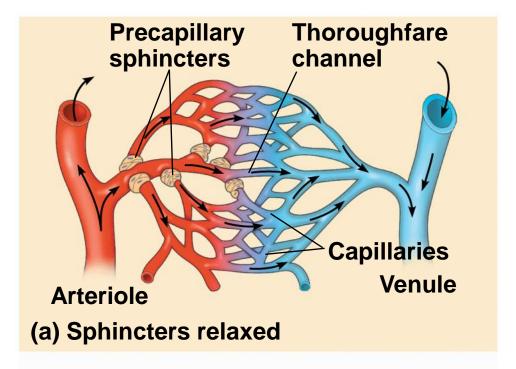
Direction of blood flowin vein (toward heart) Valve (open) **Skeletal muscle** Valve (closed)

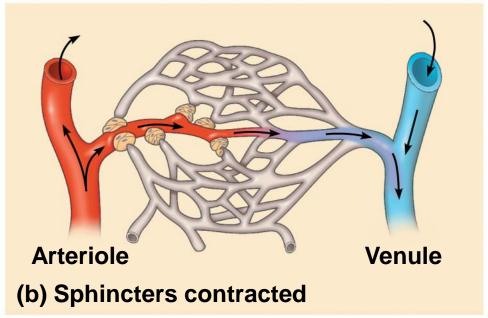
Capillary Function

- Blood flows through only 5–10% of the body's capillaries at a time
- Capillaries in major organs are usually filled to capacity
- Blood supply varies in many other sites

- Two mechanisms regulate distribution of blood in capillary beds
 - Contraction of the smooth muscle layer in the wall of an arteriole constricts the vessel
 - Precapillary sphincters control flow of blood between arterioles and venules
- Blood flow is regulated by nerve impulses, hormones, and other chemicals

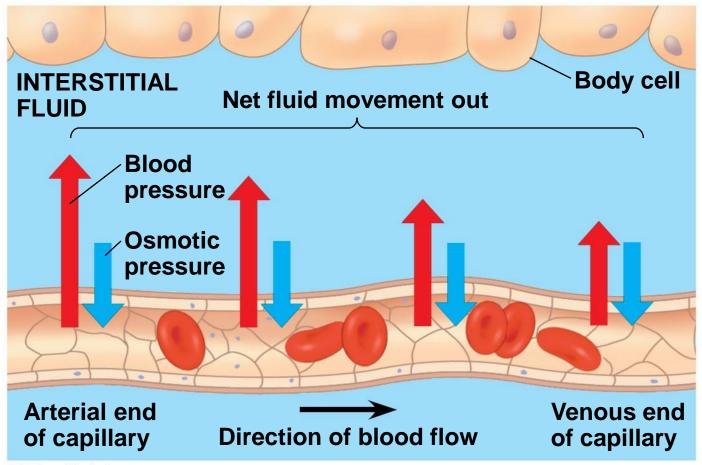
Figure 42.14





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- The exchange of substances between the blood and interstitial fluid takes place across the thin endothelial walls of the capillaries
- The difference between blood pressure and osmotic pressure drives fluids out of capillaries at the arteriole end and into capillaries at the venule end
- Most blood proteins and all blood cells are too large to pass through the endothelium



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Fluid Return by the Lymphatic System

- The lymphatic system returns fluid that leaks out from the capillary beds
- Fluid, called lymph, reenters the circulation directly at the venous end of the capillary bed and indirectly through the lymphatic system
- The lymphatic system drains into veins in the neck
- Valves in lymph vessels prevent the backflow of fluid

- Lymph nodes are organs that filter lymph and play an important role in the body's defense
- Edema is swelling caused by disruptions in the flow of lymph

Concept 42.4: Blood components contribute to exchange, transport, and defense

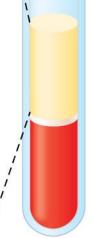
- With open circulation, the fluid that is pumped comes into direct contact with all cells
- The closed circulatory systems of vertebrates contain blood, a specialized connective tissue

Blood Composition and Function

- Blood consists of several kinds of cells suspended in a liquid matrix called plasma
- The cellular elements occupy about 45% of the volume of blood

Plasma 55%	
Constituent	Major functions
Water	Solvent for carrying other substances
lons (blood electrolytes) Sodium Potassium Calcium Magnesium Chloride Bicarbonate	Osmotic balance, pH buffering, and regulation of membrane permeablity
Plasma proteins Albumin Fibrinogen Immunoglobulins (antibodies)	Osmotic balance, pH buffering Clotting Defense
Substances transported by blood Nutrients Respiratory gases	

Separated blood elements



Hormones

Waste products

re 42.17b	Cellular elements 45%		
	Cell type	Number per μL (mm ³) of blood	Functions
Separated blood elements	Leukocytes (white blood cells) Basophils Eosinophils Monocytes	5,000-10,000	Defense and immunity
	Platelets	250,000–400,000	Blood clotting
	Erythrocytes (red blood cells)	5–6 million	Transport of O ₂ and some CO ₂

Cardiovascular Disease

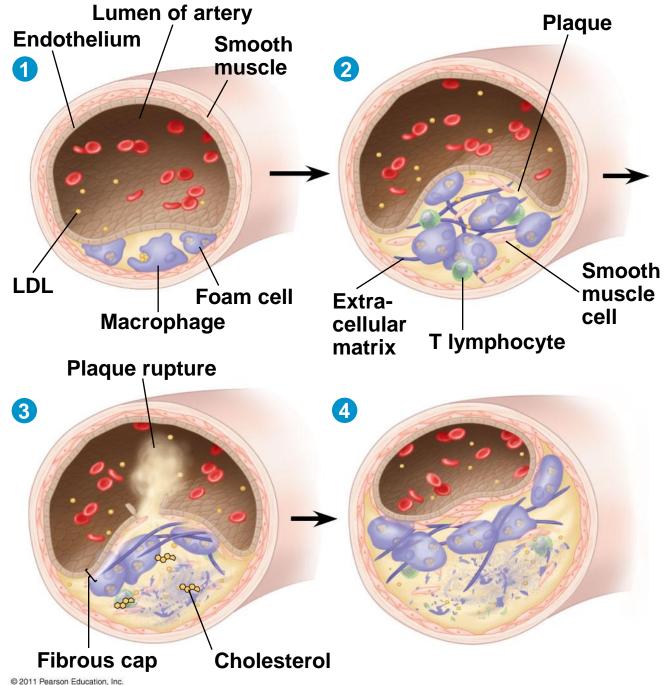
- Cardiovascular diseases are disorders of the heart and the blood vessels
- Cardiovascular diseases account for more than half the deaths in the United States
- Cholesterol, a steroid, helps maintain membrane fluidity

- Low-density lipoprotein (LDL) delivers cholesterol to cells for membrane production
- High-density lipoprotein (HDL) scavenges cholesterol for return to the liver
- Risk for heart disease increases with a high LDL to HDL ratio
- Inflammation is also a factor in cardiovascular disease

Atherosclerosis, Heart Attacks, and Stroke

 One type of cardiovascular disease, atherosclerosis, is caused by the buildup of plaque deposits within arteries

Figure 42.20



- A heart attack, or myocardial infarction, is the death of cardiac muscle tissue resulting from blockage of one or more coronary arteries
- Coronary arteries supply oxygen-rich blood to the heart muscle
- A stroke is the death of nervous tissue in the brain, usually resulting from rupture or blockage of arteries in the head
- Angina pectoris is caused by partial blockage of the coronary arteries and results in chest pains

Concept 42.5: Gas exchange occurs across specialized respiratory surfaces

 Gas exchange supplies O₂ for cellular respiration and disposes of CO₂

Partial Pressure Gradients in Gas Exchange

- A gas diffuses from a region of higher partial pressure to a region of lower partial pressure
- Partial pressure is the pressure exerted by a particular gas in a mixture of gases
- Gases diffuse down pressure gradients in the lungs and other organs as a result of differences in partial pressure

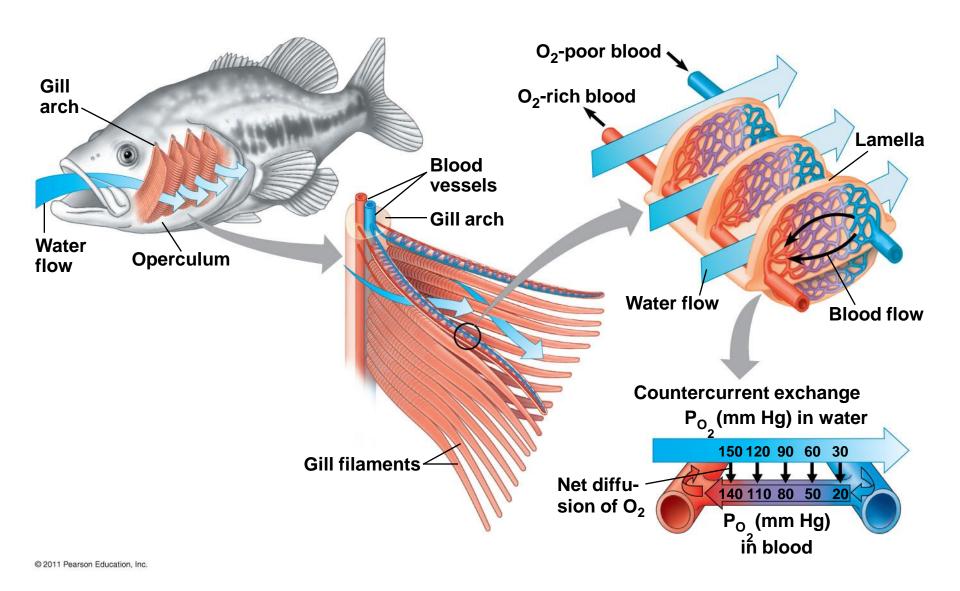
Respiratory Media

- Animals can use air or water as a source of O₂, or respiratory medium
- In a given volume, there is less O₂ available in water than in air
- Obtaining O₂ from water requires greater efficiency than air breathing

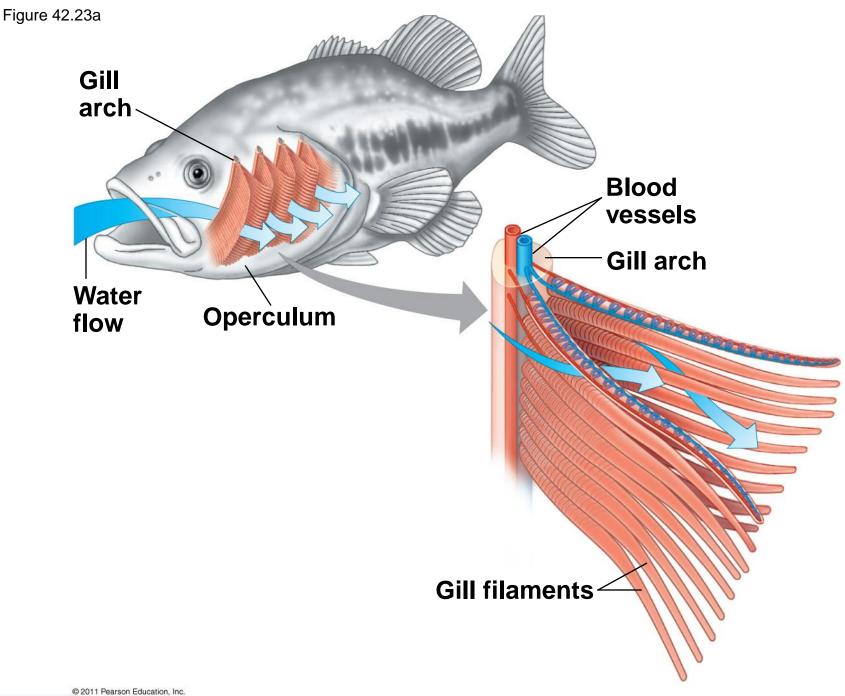
Respiratory Surfaces

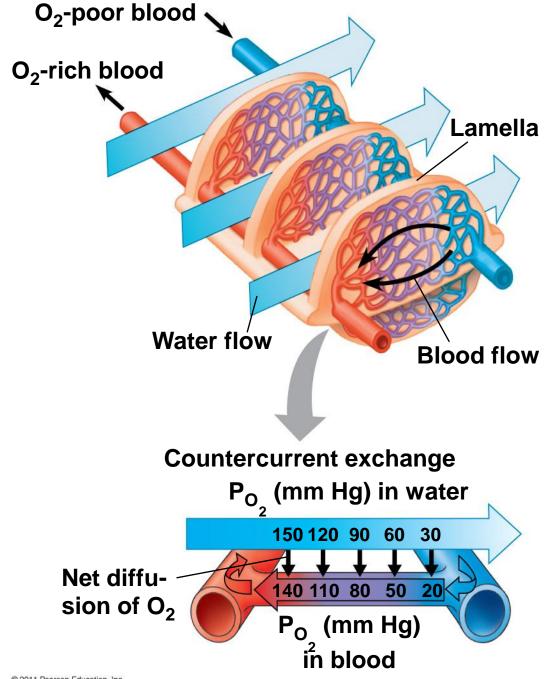
- Animals require large, moist respiratory surfaces for exchange of gases between their cells and the respiratory medium, either air or water
- Gas exchange across respiratory surfaces takes place by diffusion
- Respiratory surfaces vary by animal and can include the outer surface, skin, gills, tracheae, and lungs

- Ventilation moves the respiratory medium over the respiratory surface
- Aquatic animals move through water or move water over their gills for ventilation
- Fish gills use a countercurrent exchange system, where blood flows in the opposite direction to water passing over the gills; blood is always less saturated with O₂ than the water it meets



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Lungs

- Lungs are an infolding of the body surface
- The circulatory system (open or closed) transports gases between the lungs and the rest of the body
- The size and complexity of lungs correlate with an animal's metabolic rate

Mammalian Respiratory Systems: A Closer Look

- A system of branching ducts conveys air to the lungs
- Air inhaled through the nostrils is warmed, humidified, and sampled for odors
- The pharynx directs air to the lungs and food to the stomach
- Swallowing tips the epiglottis over the glottis in the pharynx to prevent food from entering the trachea

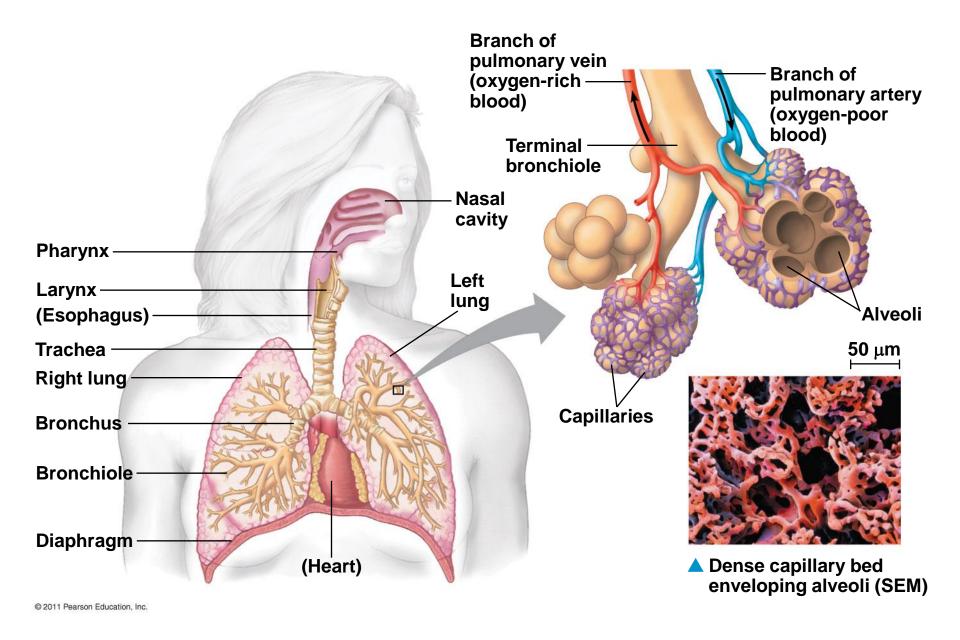
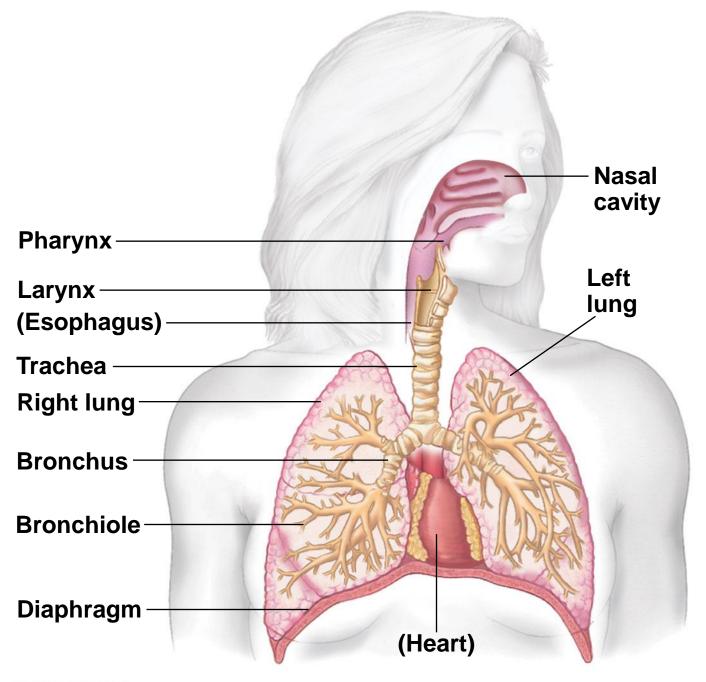
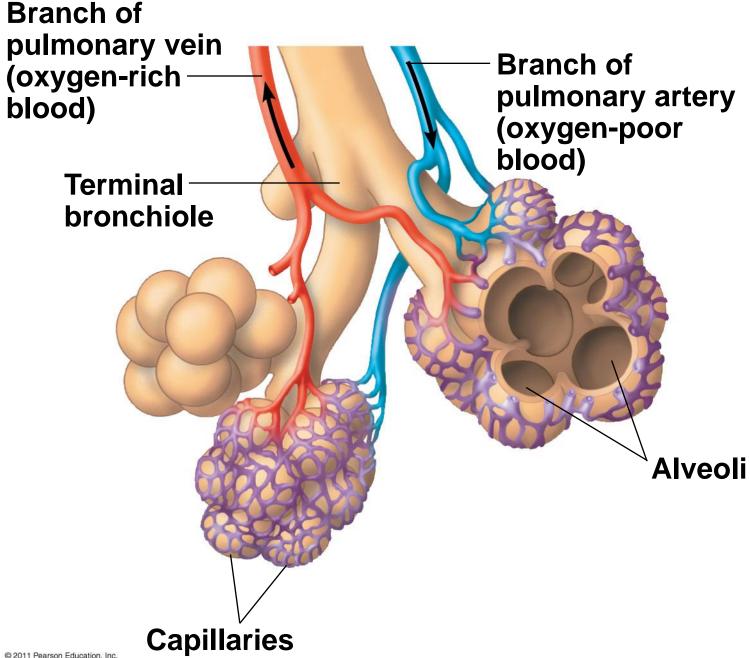
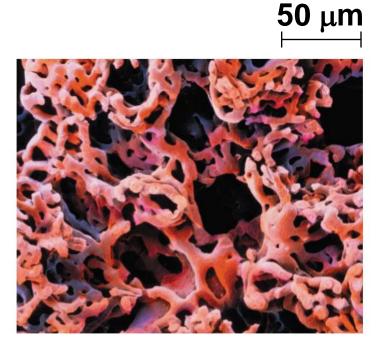


Figure 42.25a







▲ Dense capillary bed enveloping alveoli (SEM)

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- Air passes through the pharynx, larynx, trachea, bronchi, and bronchioles to the alveoli, where gas exchange occurs
- Exhaled air passes over the vocal cords in the larynx to create sounds
- Cilia and mucus line the epithelium of the air ducts and move particles up to the pharynx
- This "mucus escalator" cleans the respiratory system and allows particles to be swallowed into the esophagus

- Gas exchange takes place in alveoli, air sacs at the tips of bronchioles
- Oxygen diffuses through the moist film of the epithelium and into capillaries
- Carbon dioxide diffuses from the capillaries across the epithelium and into the air space

- Alveoli lack cilia and are susceptible to contamination
- Secretions called surfactants coat the surface of the alveoli
- Preterm babies lack surfactant and are vulnerable to respiratory distress syndrome; treatment is provided by artificial surfactants

Concept 42.6: Breathing ventilates the lungs

 The process that ventilates the lungs is breathing, the alternate inhalation and exhalation of air

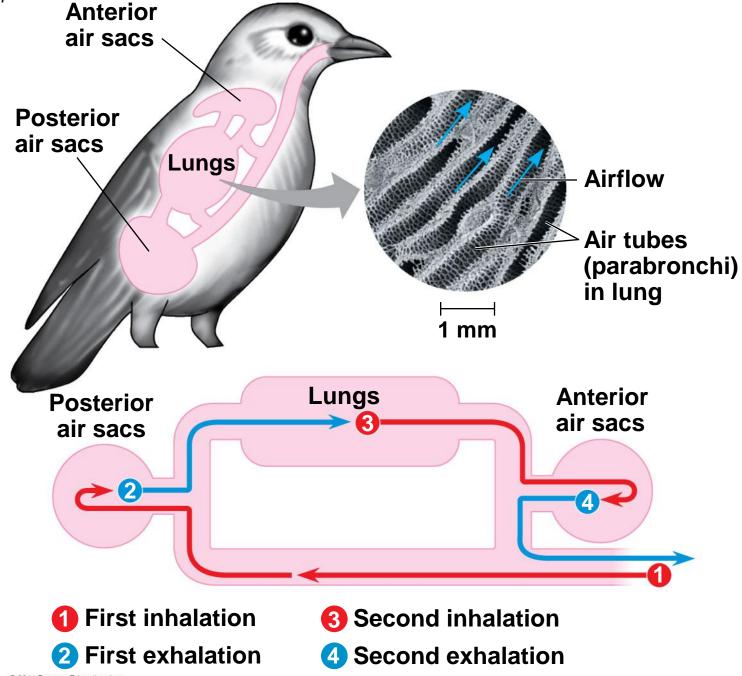
How an Amphibian Breathes

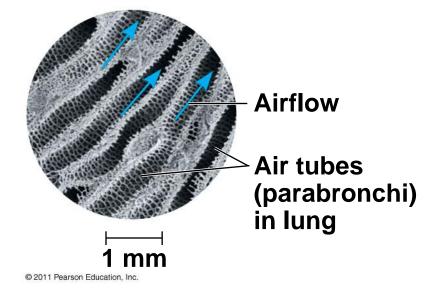
 An amphibian such as a frog ventilates its lungs by positive pressure breathing, which forces air down the trachea

How a Bird Breathes

- Birds have eight or nine air sacs that function as bellows that keep air flowing through the lungs
- Air passes through the lungs in one direction only
- Every exhalation completely renews the air in the lungs

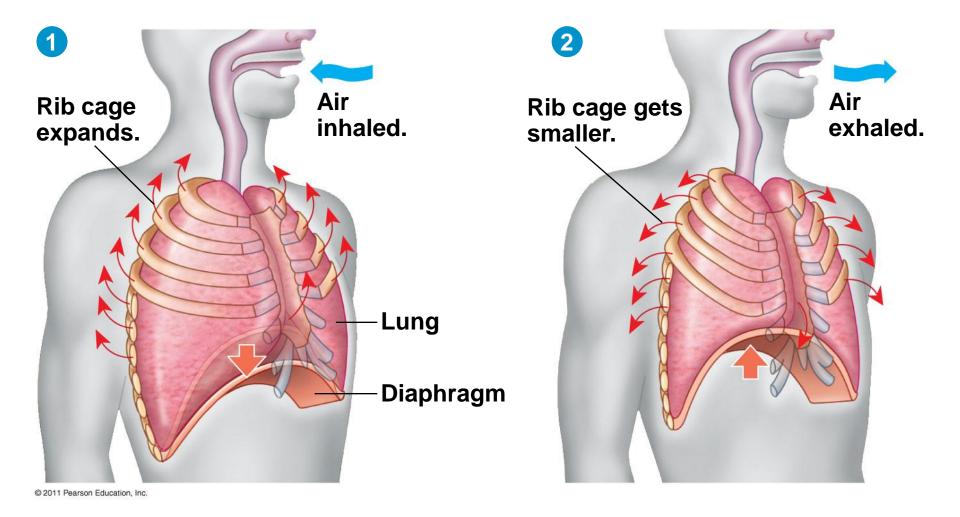
Figure 42.27





How a Mammal Breathes

- Mammals ventilate their lungs by negative pressure breathing, which pulls air into the lungs
- Lung volume increases as the rib muscles and diaphragm contract
- The tidal volume is the volume of air inhaled with each breath

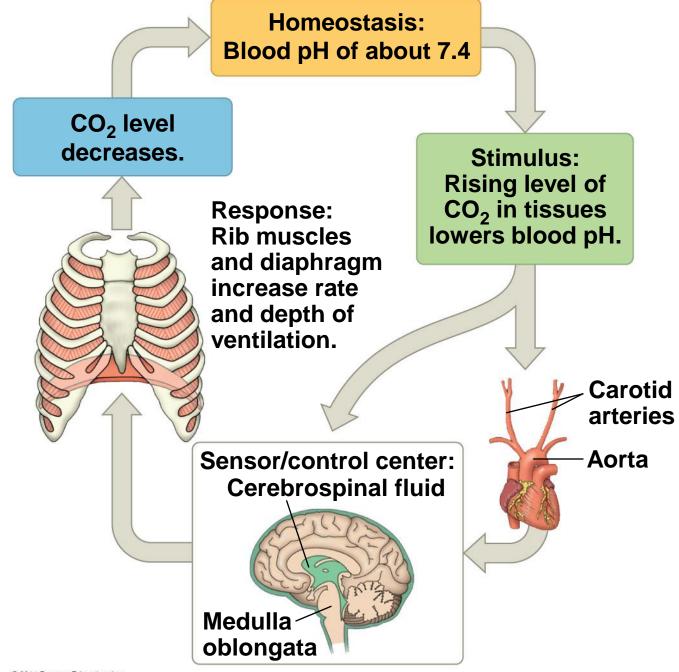


- The maximum tidal volume is the vital capacity
- After exhalation, a residual volume of air remains in the lungs

Control of Breathing in Humans

- In humans, the main breathing control centers are in two regions of the brain, the medulla oblongata and the pons
- The medulla regulates the rate and depth of breathing in response to pH changes in the cerebrospinal fluid
- The medulla adjusts breathing rate and depth to match metabolic demands
- The pons regulates the tempo

- Sensors in the aorta and carotid arteries monitor
 O₂ and CO₂ concentrations in the blood
- These sensors exert secondary control over breathing

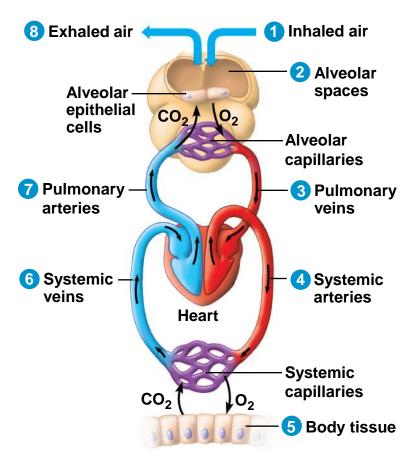


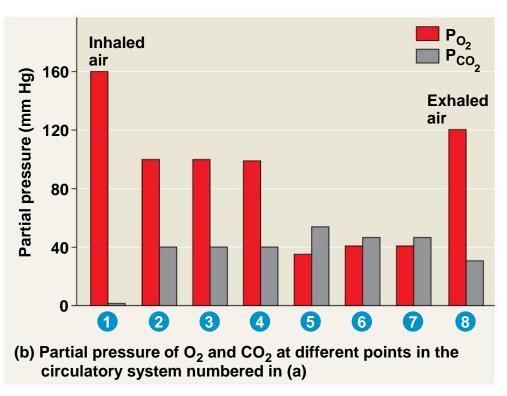
Concept 42.7: Adaptations for gas exchange include pigments that bind and transport gases

 The metabolic demands of many organisms require that the blood transport large quantities of O₂ and CO₂

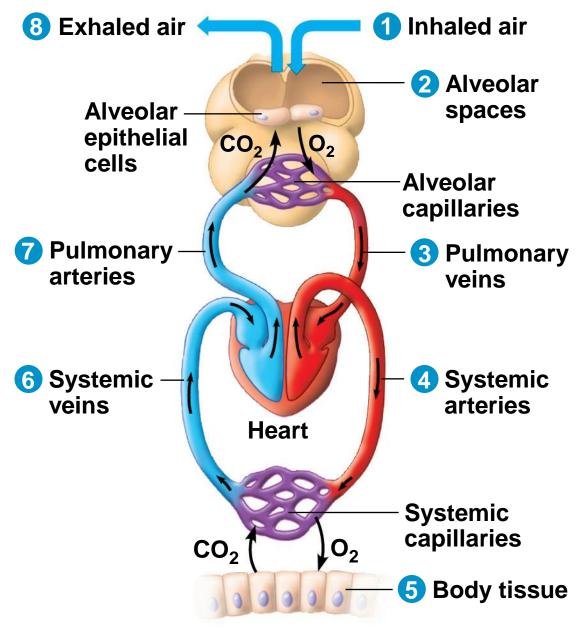
Coordination of Circulation and Gas Exchange

- Blood arriving in the lungs has a low partial pressure of O₂ and a high partial pressure of CO₂ relative to air in the alveoli
- In the alveoli, O₂ diffuses into the blood and CO₂ diffuses into the air
- In tissue capillaries, partial pressure gradients favor diffusion of O₂ into the interstitial fluids and CO₂ into the blood



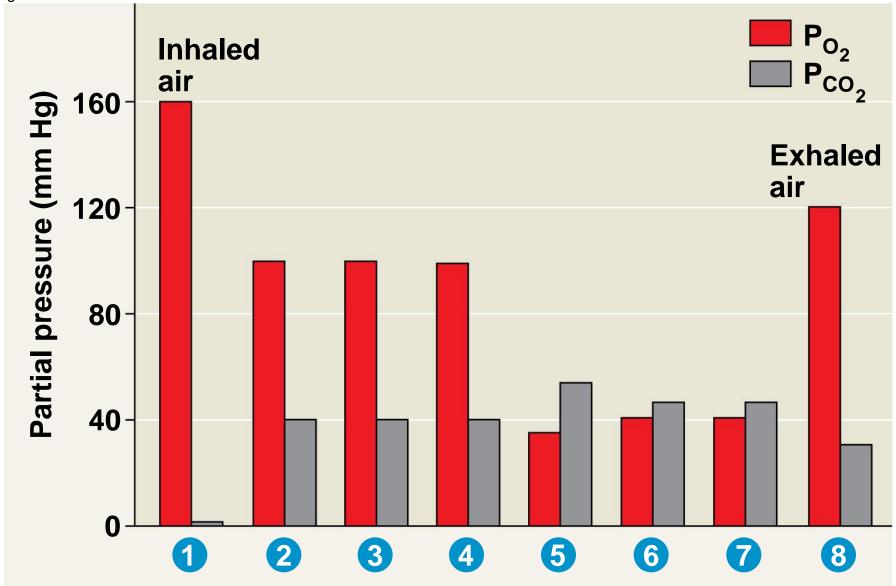


(a) The path of respiratory gases in the circulatory system



(a) The path of respiratory gases in the circulatory system

Figure 42.30b



(b) Partial pressure of O₂ and CO₂ at different points in the circulatory system numbered in (a)

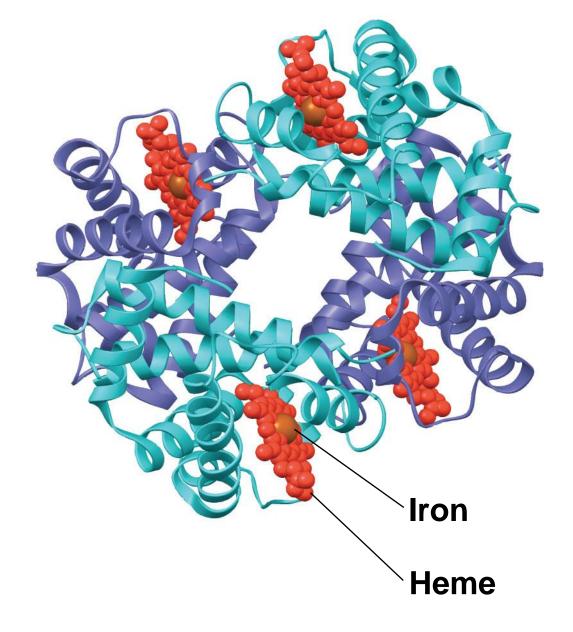
Respiratory Pigments

- Respiratory pigments, proteins that transport oxygen, greatly increase the amount of oxygen that blood can carry
- Arthropods and many molluscs have hemocyanin with copper as the oxygen-binding component
- Most vertebrates and some invertebrates use hemoglobin
- In vertebrates, hemoglobin is contained within erythrocytes

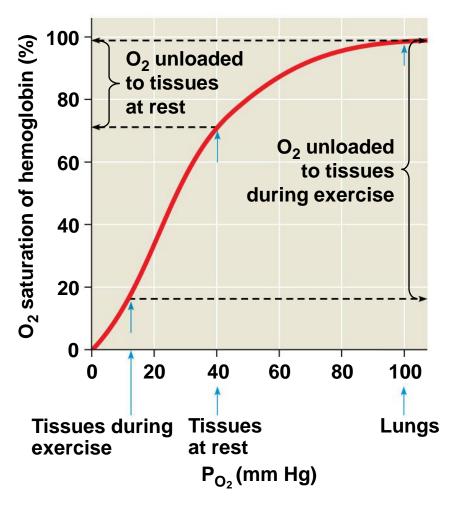
Hemoglobin

- A single hemoglobin molecule can carry four molecules of O₂, one molecule for each ironcontaining heme group
- The hemoglobin dissociation curve shows that a small change in the partial pressure of oxygen can result in a large change in delivery of O₂
- CO₂ produced during cellular respiration lowers blood pH and decreases the affinity of hemoglobin for O₂; this is called the **Bohr shift**

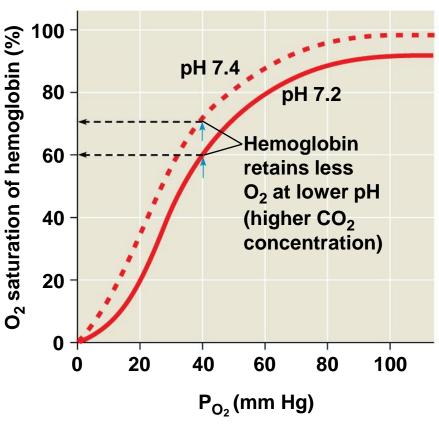
Figure 42.UN01



Hemoglobin

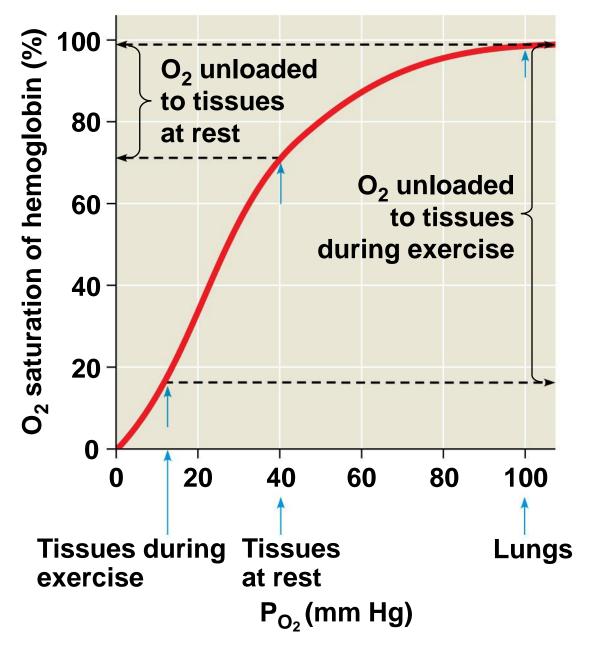


(a) P_{O2} and hemoglobin dissociation at pH 7.4



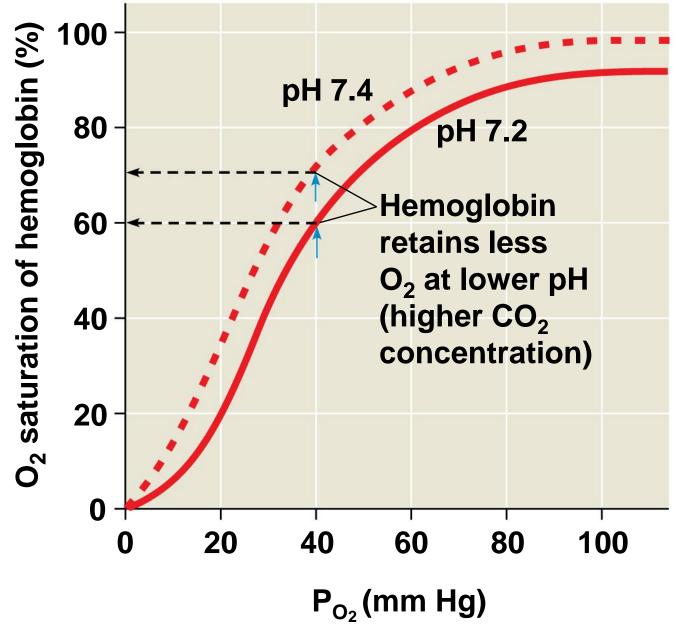
(b) pH and hemoglobin dissociation

Figure 42.31a



(a) P_{O_2} and hemoglobin dissociation at pH 7.4

Figure 42.31b



(b) pH and hemoglobin dissociation

Carbon Dioxide Transport

- Hemoglobin also helps transport CO₂ and assists in buffering the blood
- CO₂ from respiring cells diffuses into the blood and is transported in blood plasma, bound to hemoglobin, or as bicarbonate ions (HCO₃⁻)

Figure 42.32

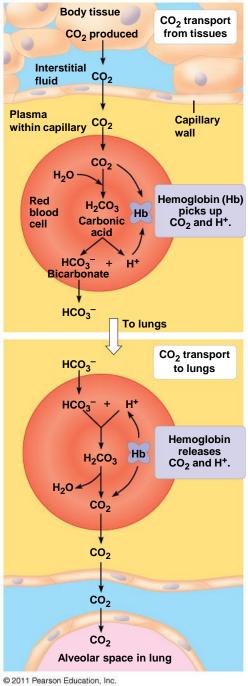


Figure 42.32a

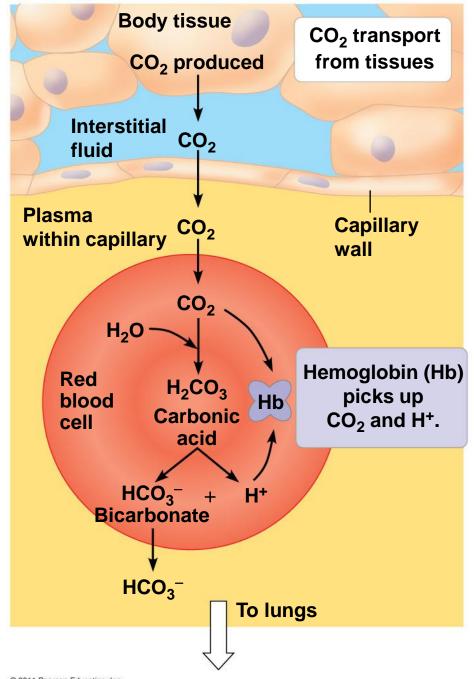


Figure 42.32b

