

Energy for Muscle Contraction

- Initially, muscles use stored ATP for energy
 - ATP bonds are broken to release energy
 - Only 4–6 seconds worth of ATP is stored by muscles
- After this initial time, other pathways must be utilized to produce ATP

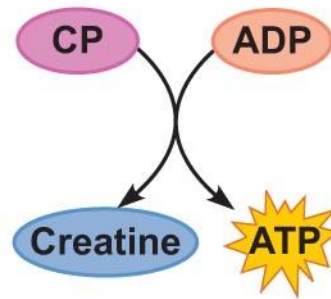
Energy for Muscle Contraction

- **Direct phosphorylation of ADP by creatine phosphate (CP)**
 - Muscle cells store CP
 - CP is a high-energy molecule
 - After ATP is depleted, ADP is left
 - CP transfers a phosphate group to ADP, to regenerate ATP
 - CP supplies are exhausted in less than 15 seconds
 - About 1 ATP is created per CP molecule

(a) Direct phosphorylation

Coupled reaction of creatine phosphate (CP) and ADP

Energy source: CP



Oxygen use: None

**Products: 1 ATP per CP,
creatine**

**Duration of energy provision:
15 seconds**

Figure 6.10a

Energy for Muscle Contraction

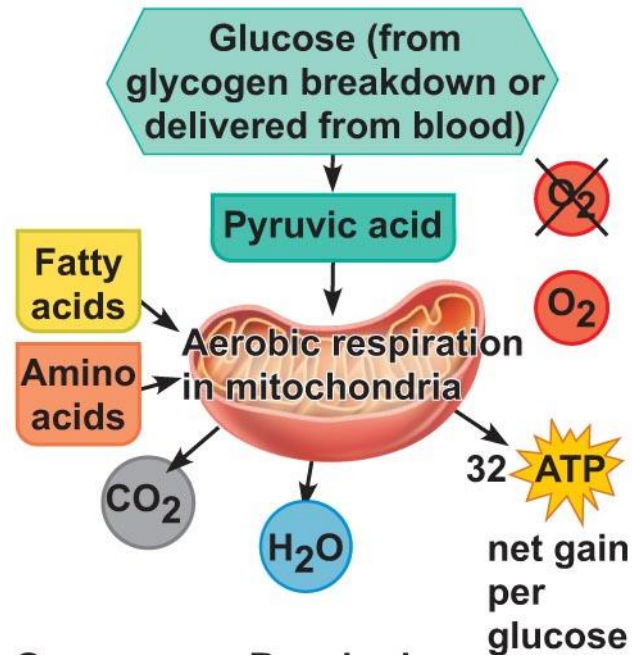
- **Aerobic respiration**

- Glucose is broken down to carbon dioxide and water, releasing energy (about 32 ATP)
- A series of metabolic pathways occur in the mitochondria
- This is a slower reaction that requires continuous oxygen
- Carbon dioxide and water are produced

(c) Aerobic pathway

Aerobic cellular respiration

Energy source: glucose; pyruvic acid; free fatty acids from adipose tissue; amino acids from protein catabolism



Oxygen use: Required
Products: 32 ATP per glucose,
 CO_2 , H_2O
Duration of energy provision:
Hours

Figure 6.10b

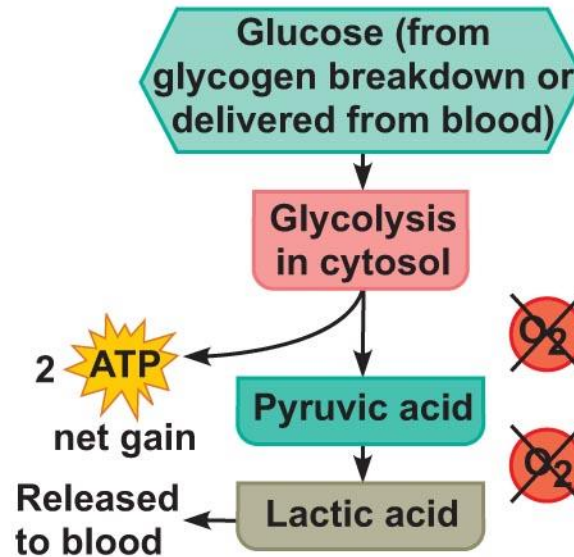
Energy for Muscle Contraction

- **Anaerobic glycolysis and lactic acid formation**
 - Reaction that breaks down glucose *without* oxygen
 - Glucose is broken down to pyruvic acid to produce about 2 ATP
 - Pyruvic acid is converted to lactic acid
- This reaction is not as efficient, but is fast
 - Huge amounts of glucose are needed
 - Lactic acid produces muscle fatigue

(b) Anaerobic pathway

Glycolysis and lactic acid formation

Energy source: glucose



Oxygen use: None

Products: 2 ATP per glucose, lactic acid

Duration of energy provision: 40 seconds, or slightly more

Figure 6.10c

Muscle Fatigue and Oxygen Deficit

- When a muscle is fatigued, it is unable to contract even with a stimulus
- Common cause for muscle fatigue is oxygen debt
 - Oxygen must be “repaid” to tissue to remove oxygen deficit
 - Oxygen is required to get rid of accumulated lactic acid
- Increasing acidity (from lactic acid) and lack of ATP causes the muscle to contract less

Types of Muscle Contractions

- **Isotonic contractions**

- Myofilaments are able to slide past each other during contractions
- The muscle shortens and movement occurs
- **Example:** bending the knee; rotating the arm

Types of Muscle Contractions

- **Isometric contractions**

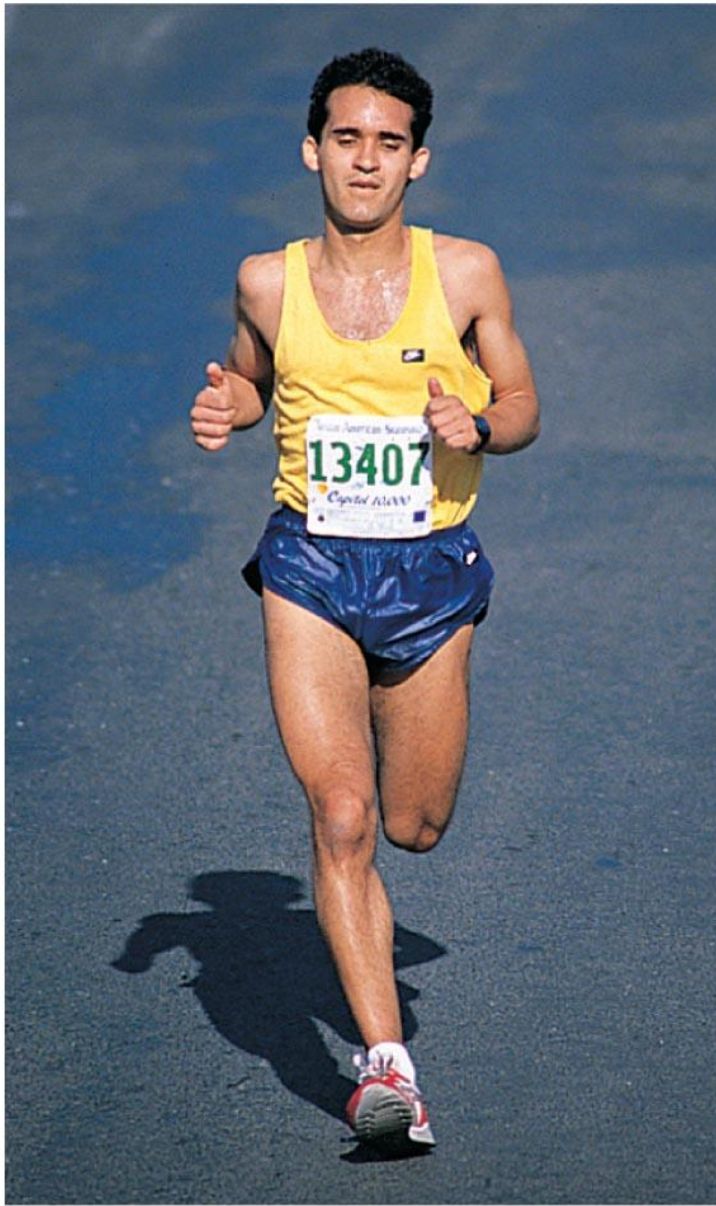
- Tension in the muscles increases
- The muscle is unable to shorten or produce movement
- **Example:** push against a wall with bent elbows

Muscle Tone

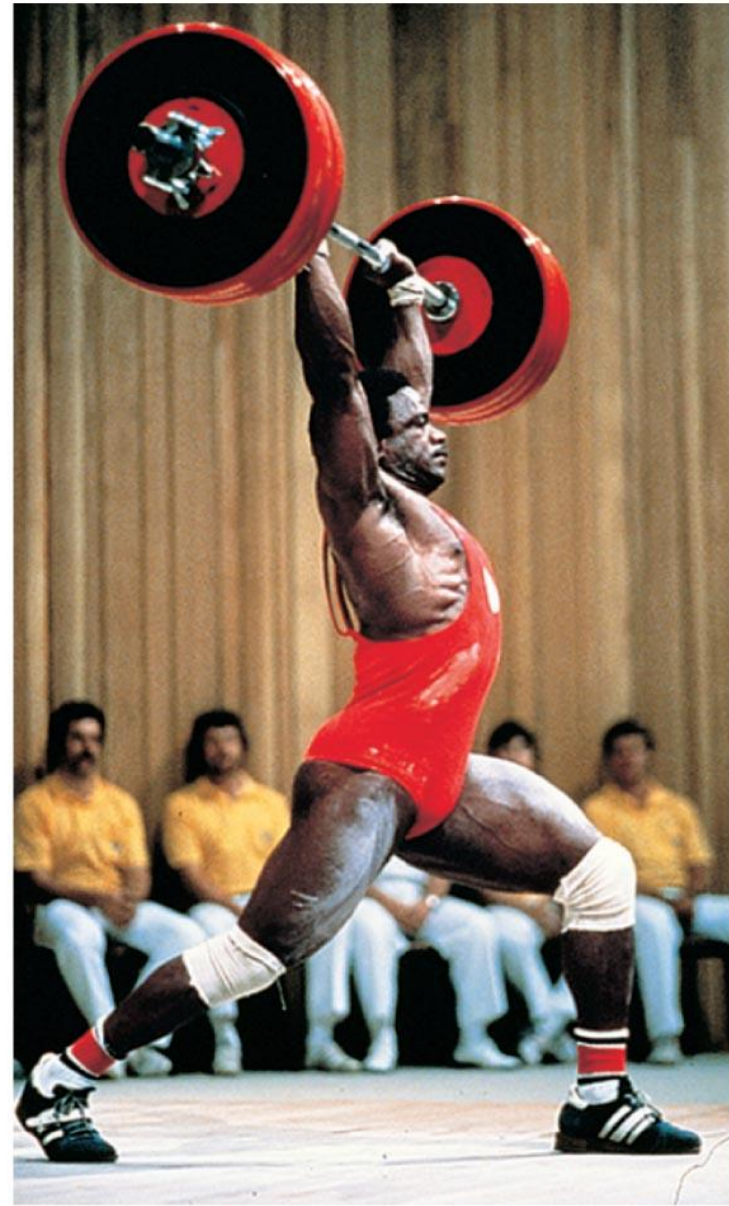
- Some fibers are contracted even in a relaxed muscle
- Different fibers contract at different times to provide muscle tone and to be constantly ready

Effect of Exercise on Muscles

- Exercise increases muscle size, strength, and endurance
 - Aerobic (endurance) exercise (biking, jogging) results in stronger, more flexible muscles with greater resistance to fatigue
 - Makes body metabolism more efficient
 - Improves digestion, coordination
 - Resistance (isometric) exercise (weight lifting) increases muscle size and strength



(a)



(b)

Figure 6.11a-b

Five Golden Rules of Skeletal Muscle Activity

1. With a few exceptions, all skeletal muscles **cross at least one joint**.
2. Typically, the **bulk of a skeletal muscle lies proximal to the joint crossed**.
3. All skeletal muscles have **at least two attachments: the origin and the insertion**.
4. Skeletal muscles **can only pull**; they never push.
5. **During contraction, a skeletal muscle insertion moves toward the origin**.

Muscles and Body Movements

- Movement is attained due to a muscle moving an attached bone
- Muscles are attached to at least two points
 - **Origin**
 - Attachment to a immoveable bone
 - **Insertion**
 - Attachment to an movable bone

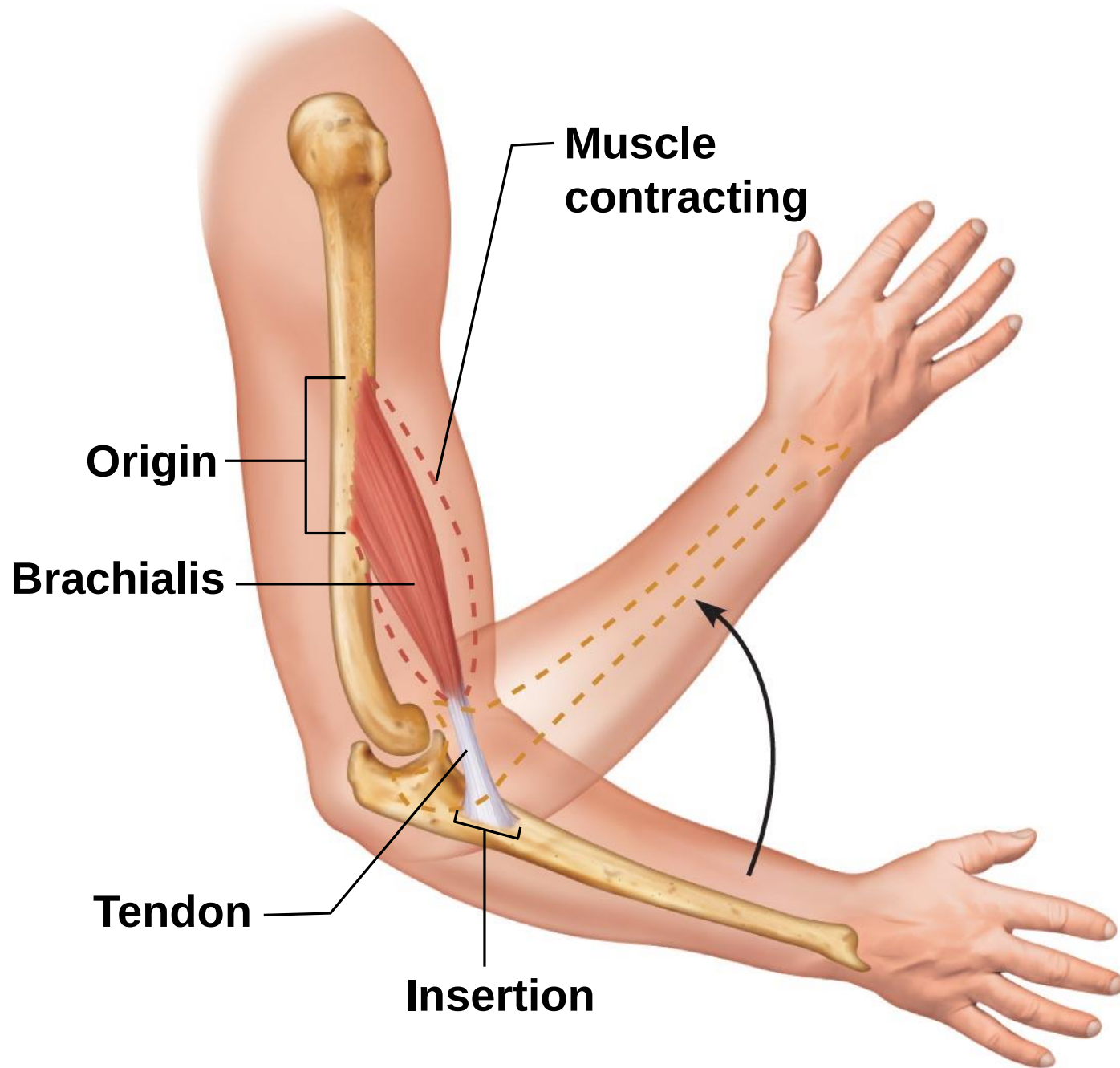


Figure 6.12

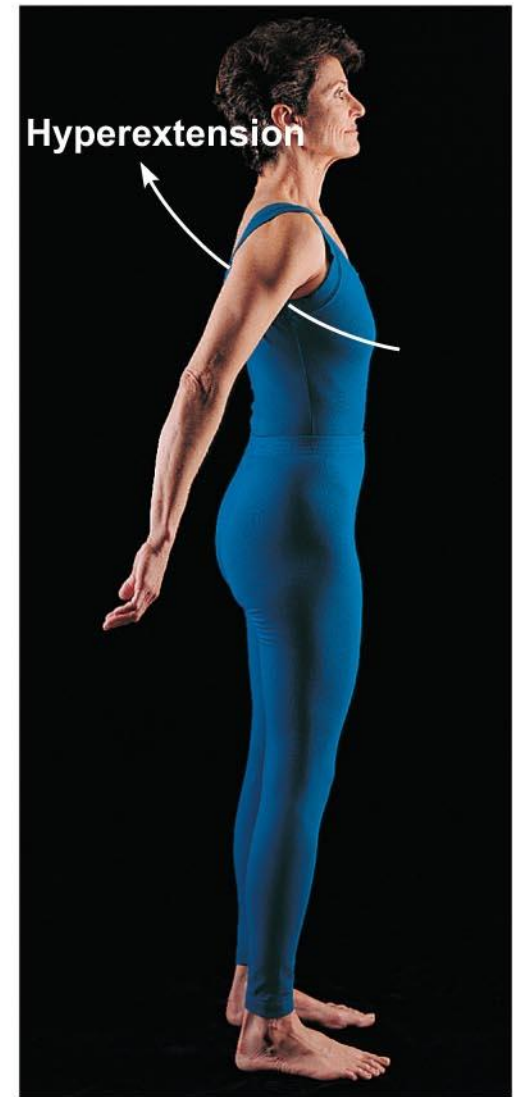
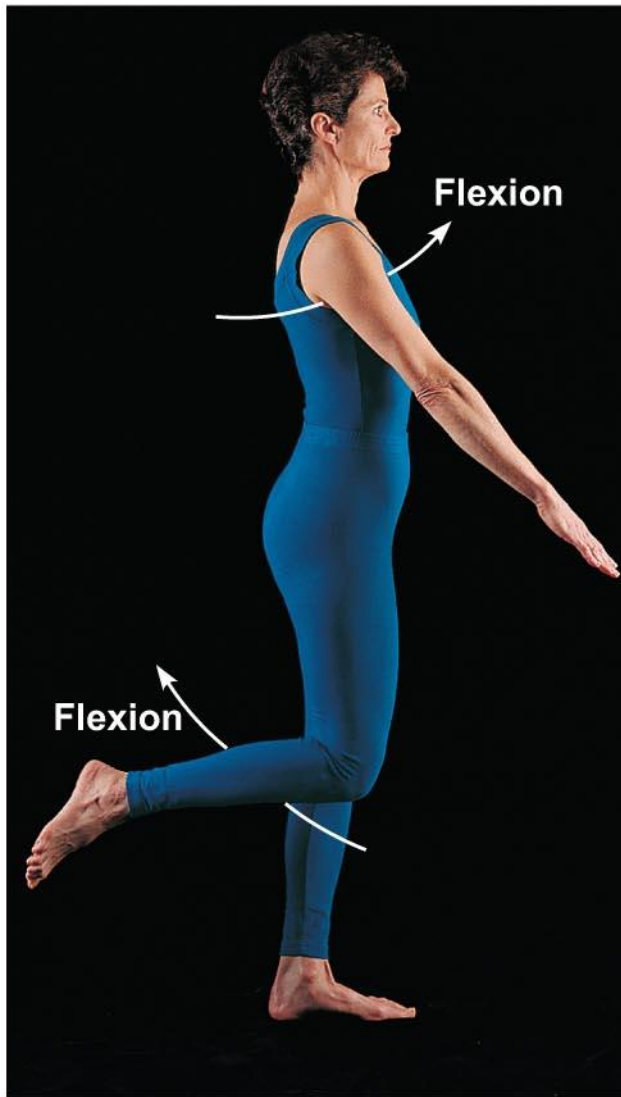
Types of Body Movements

- **Flexion**

- Decreases the angle of the joint
- Brings two bones closer together
- Typical of bending hinge joints like knee and elbow or ball-and-socket joints like the hip

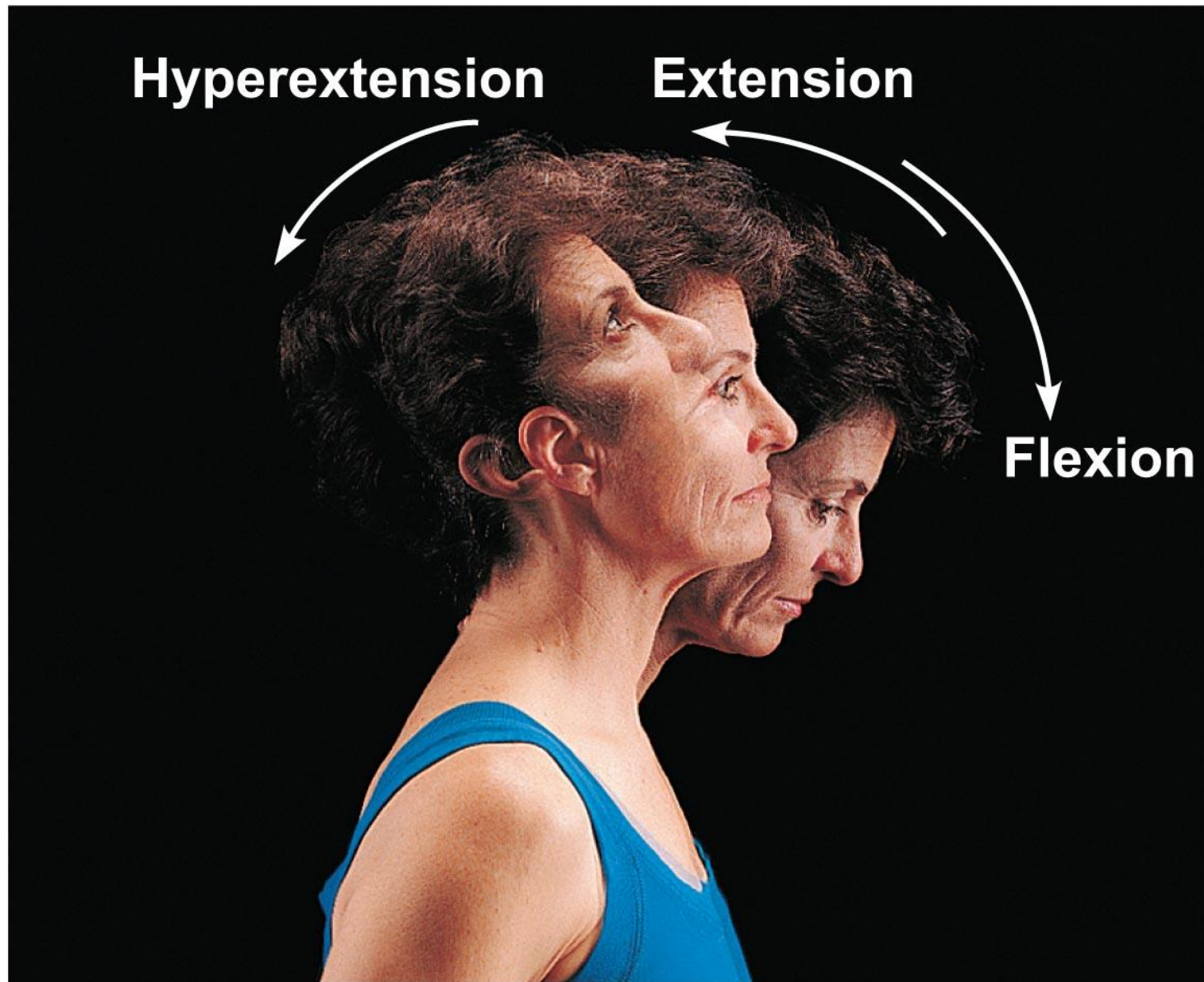
- **Extension**

- Opposite of flexion
- Increases angle between two bones
- Typical of straightening the elbow or knee
- Extension beyond 180° is hypertension



(a) Flexion and extension of the shoulder and knee

Figure 6.13a



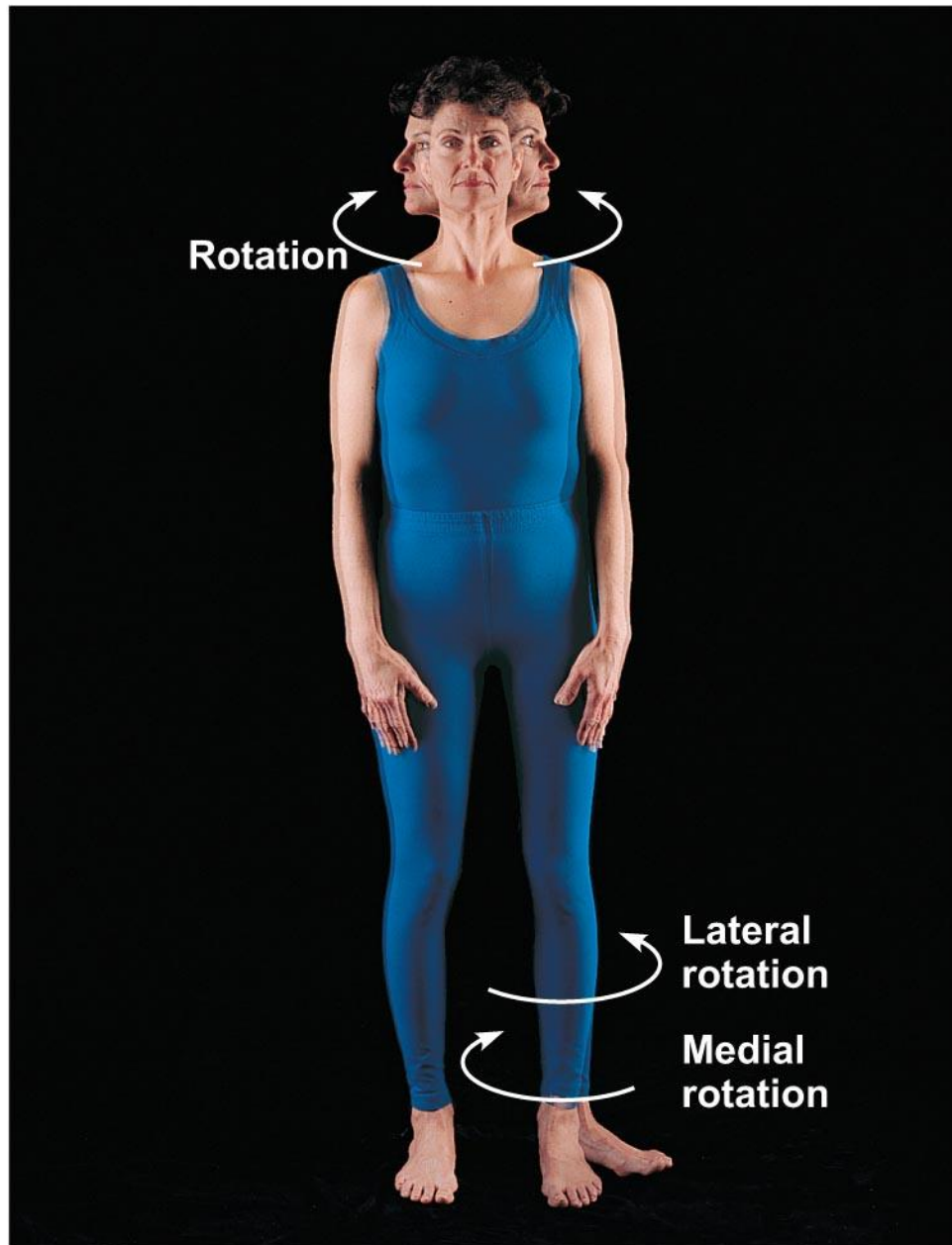
(b) Flexion, extension, and hyperextension

Figure 6.13b

Types of Body Movements

- **Rotation**

- Movement of a bone around its longitudinal axis
- Common in ball-and-socket joints
- Example is when you move atlas around the dens of axis (shake your head “no”)



(c) Rotation

Figure 6.13c

Types of Body Movements

- **Abduction**

- Movement of a limb away from the midline

- **Adduction**

- Opposite of abduction
- Movement of a limb toward the midline



(d) Abduction, adduction, and circumduction

Figure 6.13d

Types of Body Movements

- **Circumduction**

- Combination of flexion, extension, abduction, and adduction
- Common in ball-and-socket joints



(d) Abduction, adduction, and circumduction

Figure 6.13d

Special Movements

- **Dorsiflexion**

- Lifting the foot so that the superior surface approaches the shin (toward the dorsum)

- **Plantar flexion**

- Depressing the foot (pointing the toes)
- “Planting” the foot toward the sole



(e) Dorsiflexion and plantar flexion

Figure 6.13e

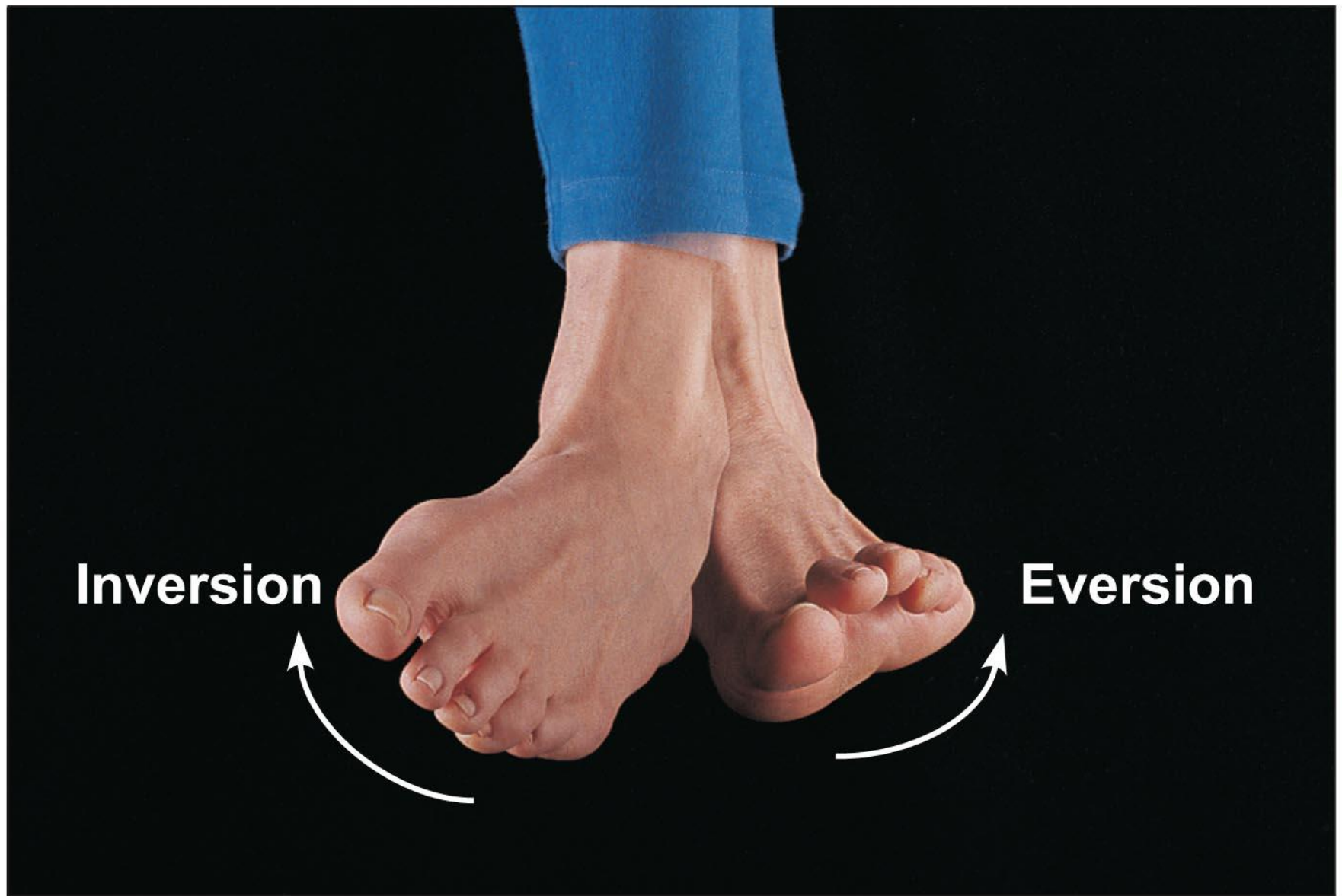
Special Movements

- **Inversion**

- Turn sole of foot medially

- **Eversion**

- Turn sole of foot laterally



(f) Inversion and eversion

Figure 6.13f

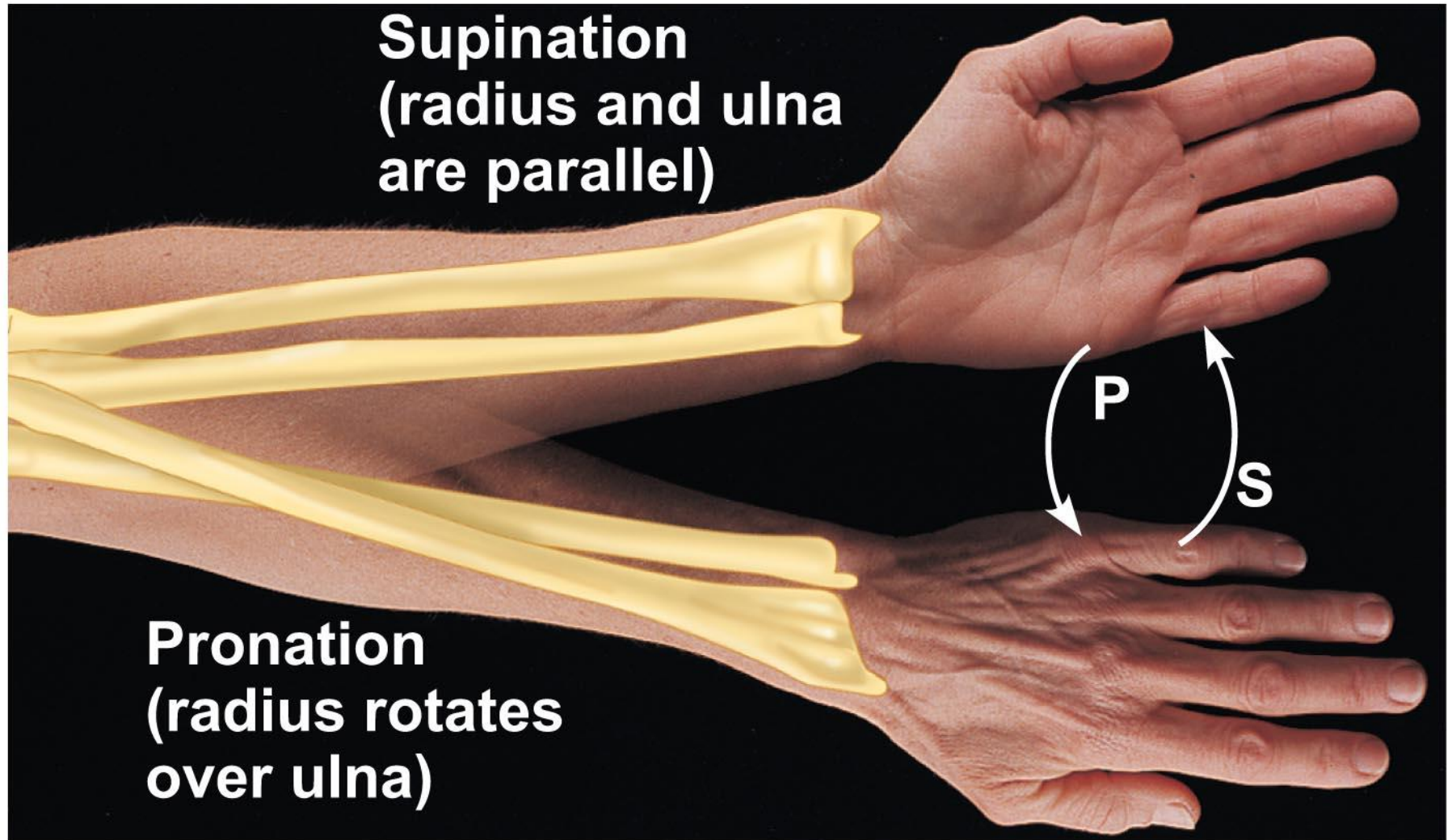
Special Movements

- **Supination**

- Forearm rotates laterally so palm faces anteriorly
- Radius and ulna are parallel

- **Pronation**

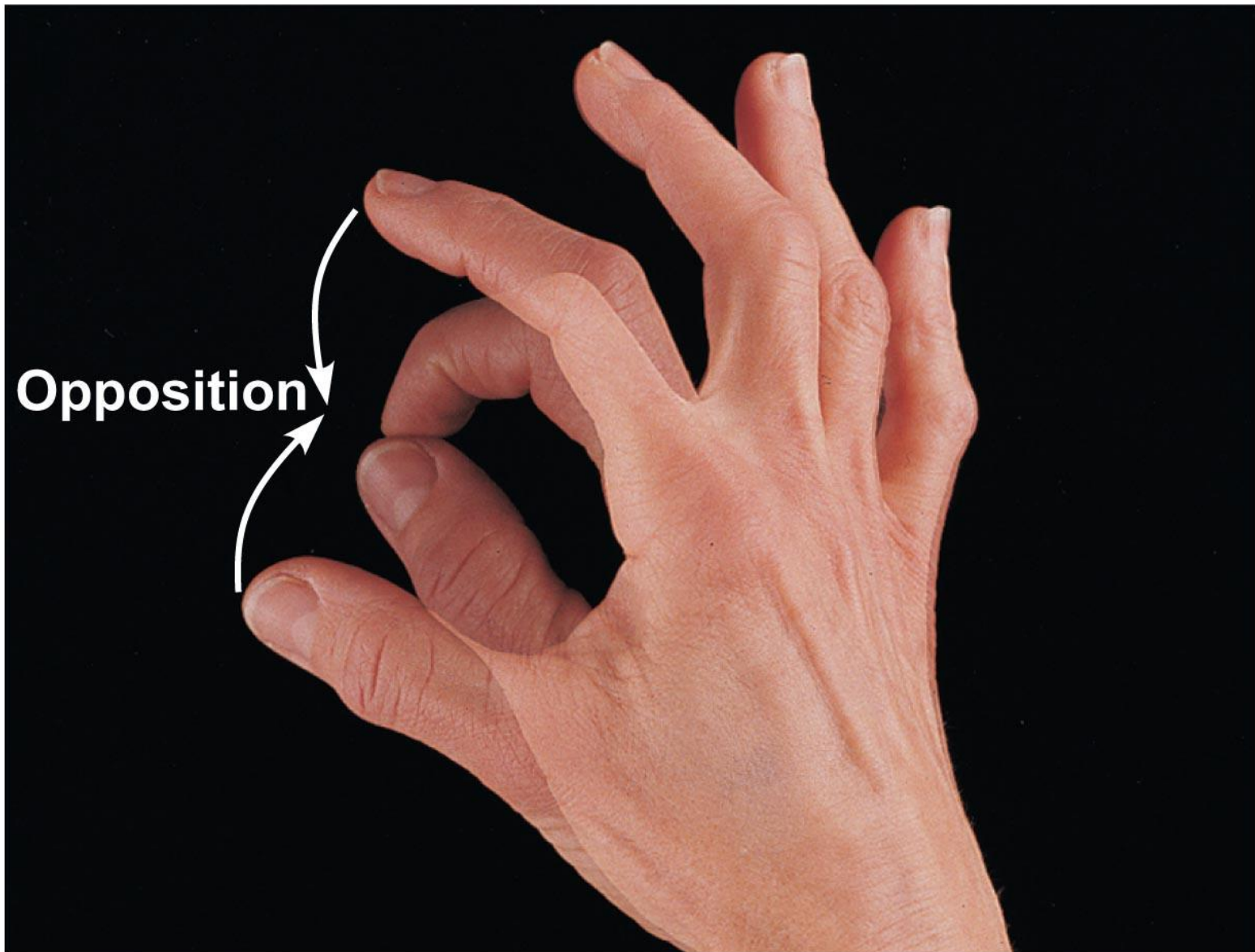
- Forearm rotates medially so palm faces posteriorly
- Radius and ulna cross each other like an X



(g) Supination (S) and pronation (P)

Special Movements

- **Opposition**
 - Move thumb to touch the tips of other fingers on the same hand



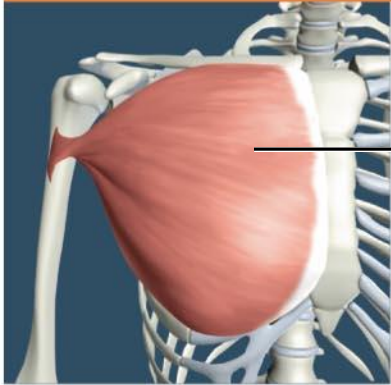
(h) Opposition

Figure 6.13h

Types of Muscles

- **Prime mover**—muscle with the major responsibility for a certain movement
- **Antagonist**—muscle that opposes or reverses a prime mover
- **Synergist**—muscle that aids a prime mover in a movement and helps prevent rotation
- **Fixator**—stabilizes the origin of a prime mover

(a) A muscle that crosses on the anterior side of a joint produces flexion*



Example:
Pectoralis
major
(anterior view)

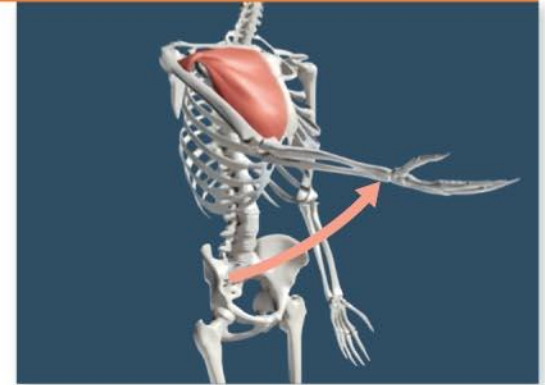
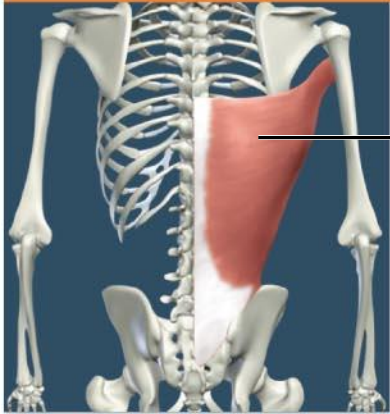


Figure 6.14a

(b) A muscle that crosses on the posterior side of a joint produces extension*



Example:
Latissimus
dorsi
(posterior
view)

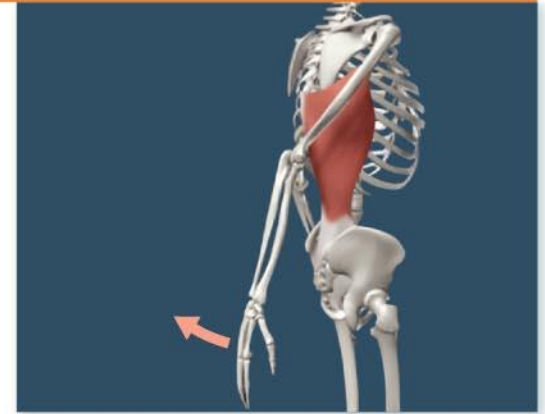
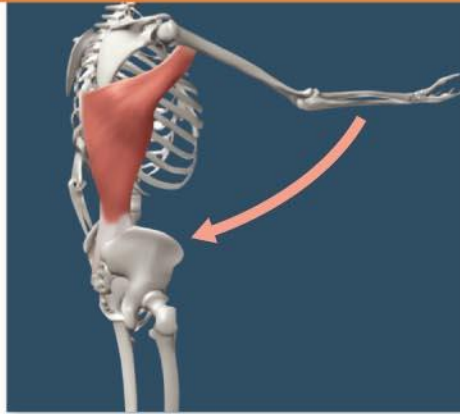
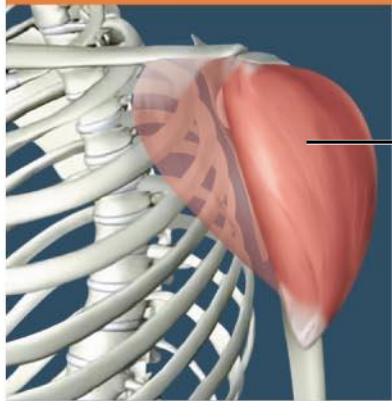


Figure 6.14b

(c) A muscle that crosses on the lateral side of a joint produces abduction



Example:
Medial deltoid
(anterolateral
view)

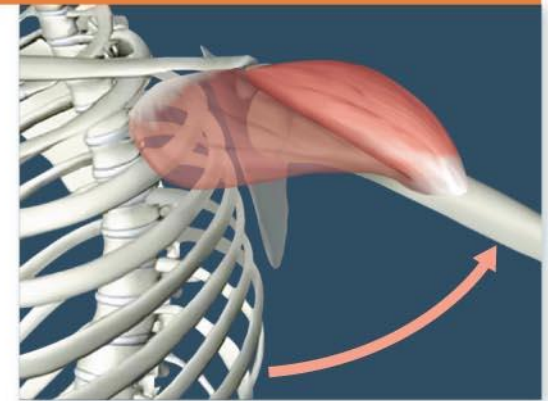
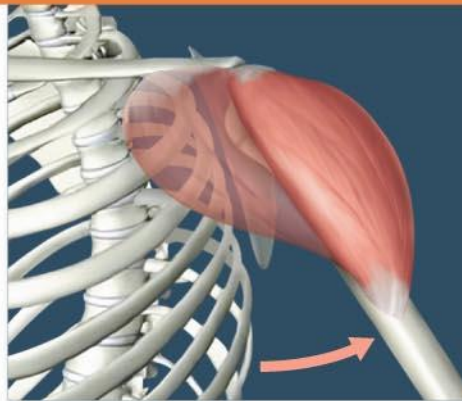
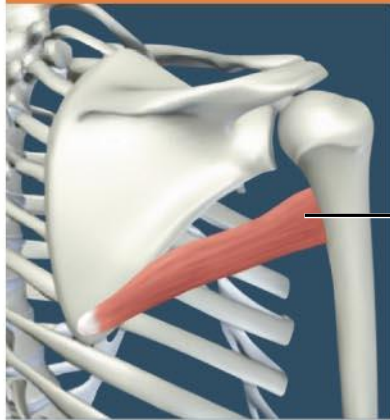


Figure 6.14c

(d) A muscle that crosses on the medial side of a joint produces adduction



Example:
Teres major
(posterolateral
view)



Figure 6.14d

Naming Skeletal Muscles

- By **direction** of muscle fibers
 - **Example:** *Rectus* (straight)
- By relative **size** of the muscle
 - **Example:** *Maximus* (largest)

Naming Skeletal Muscles

- By **location** of the muscle
 - **Example:** *Temporalis* (temporal bone)
- By **number of origins**
 - **Example:** *Triceps* (three heads)

Naming Skeletal Muscles

- By **location** of the muscle's origin and insertion
 - **Example:** *Sterno* (on the sternum)
- By **shape** of the muscle
 - **Example:** *Deltoid* (triangular)
- By **action** of the muscle
 - **Example:** *Flexor* and *extensor* (flexes or extends a bone)

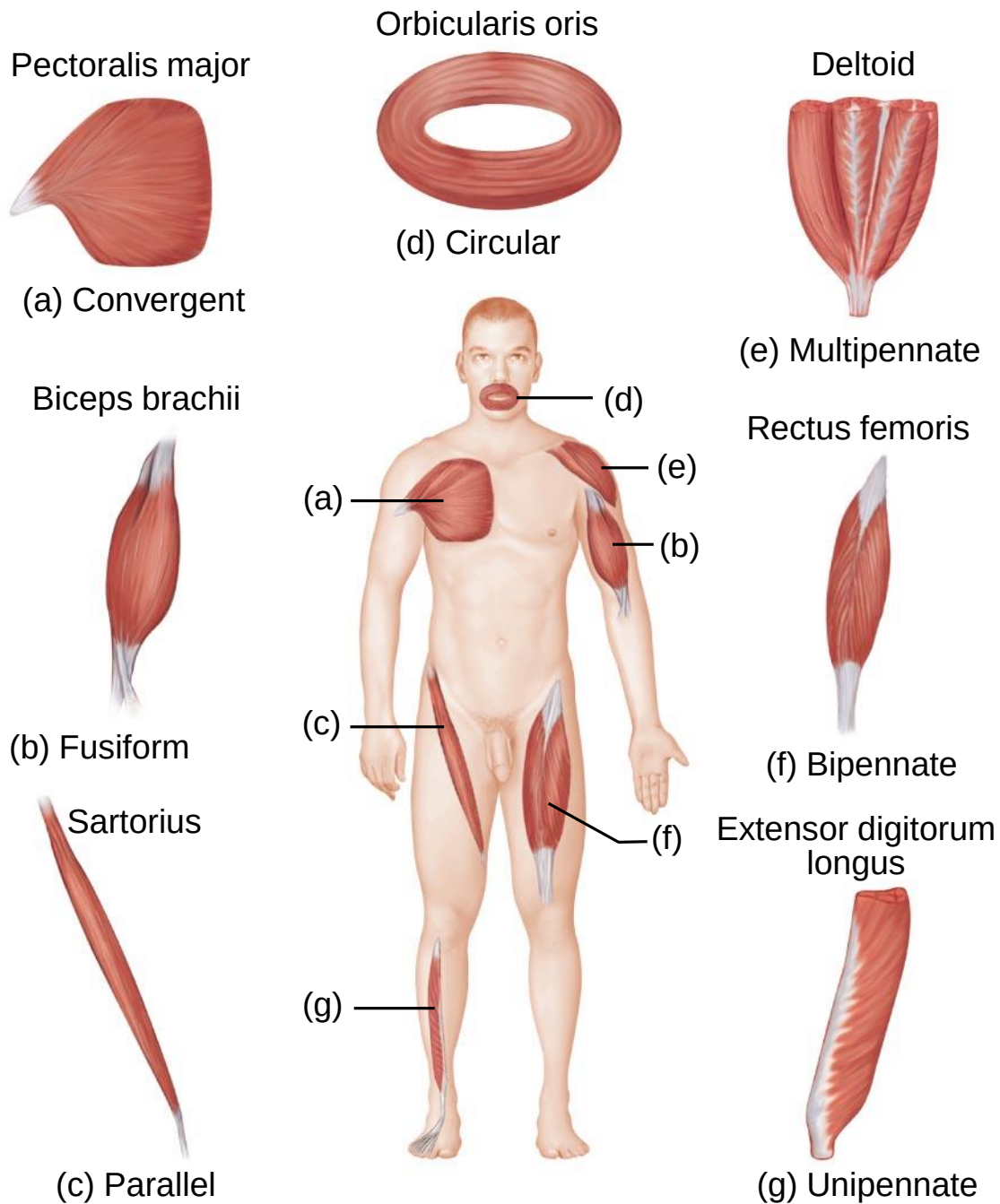


Figure 6.15