
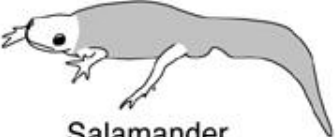








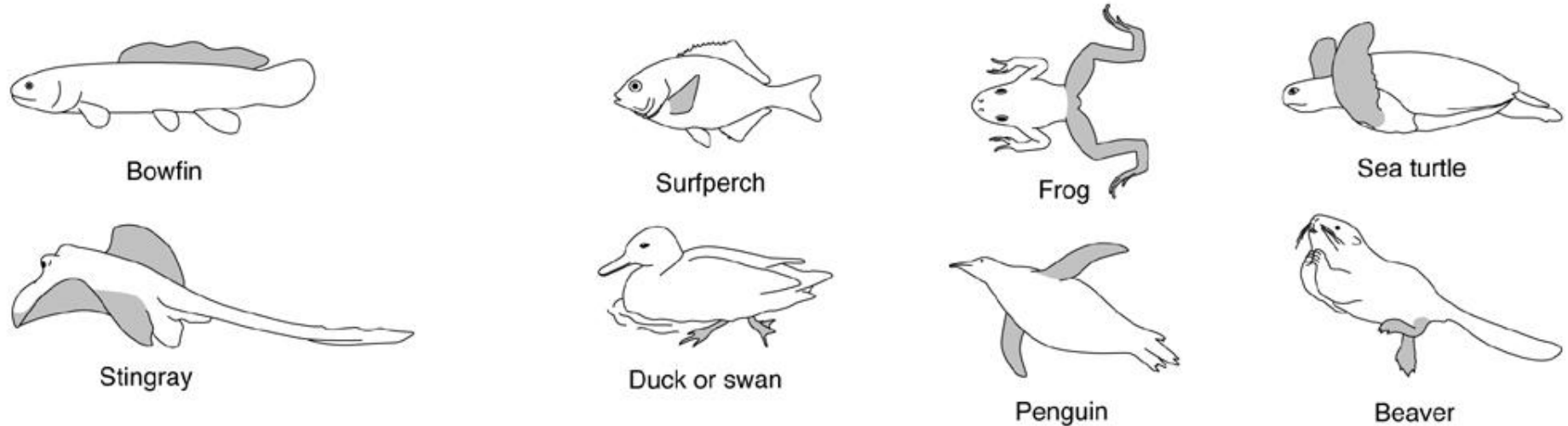
Vertebrate Locomotion: Aquatic

Swimming

- Nearly all vertebrates can swim
- Sole form of locomotion for fish and larval amphibians
 - **Primary swimmers**
- Terrestrial vertebrates that readapt to aquatic life – still breathe air
 - **Secondary swimmers**

Anguilliform	Carangiform	Thunniform	Ostraciform
 <p data-bbox="233 225 282 254">Eel</p>  <p data-bbox="170 434 336 462">Salamander</p>	 <p data-bbox="691 297 761 325">Jack</p>  <p data-bbox="664 476 780 505">Alligator</p>	 <p data-bbox="1155 391 1224 419">Tuna</p>	 <p data-bbox="1611 391 1707 419">Boxfish</p>

A. Undulatory swimmers using trunk and tail



B. Undulatory swimmers using fins

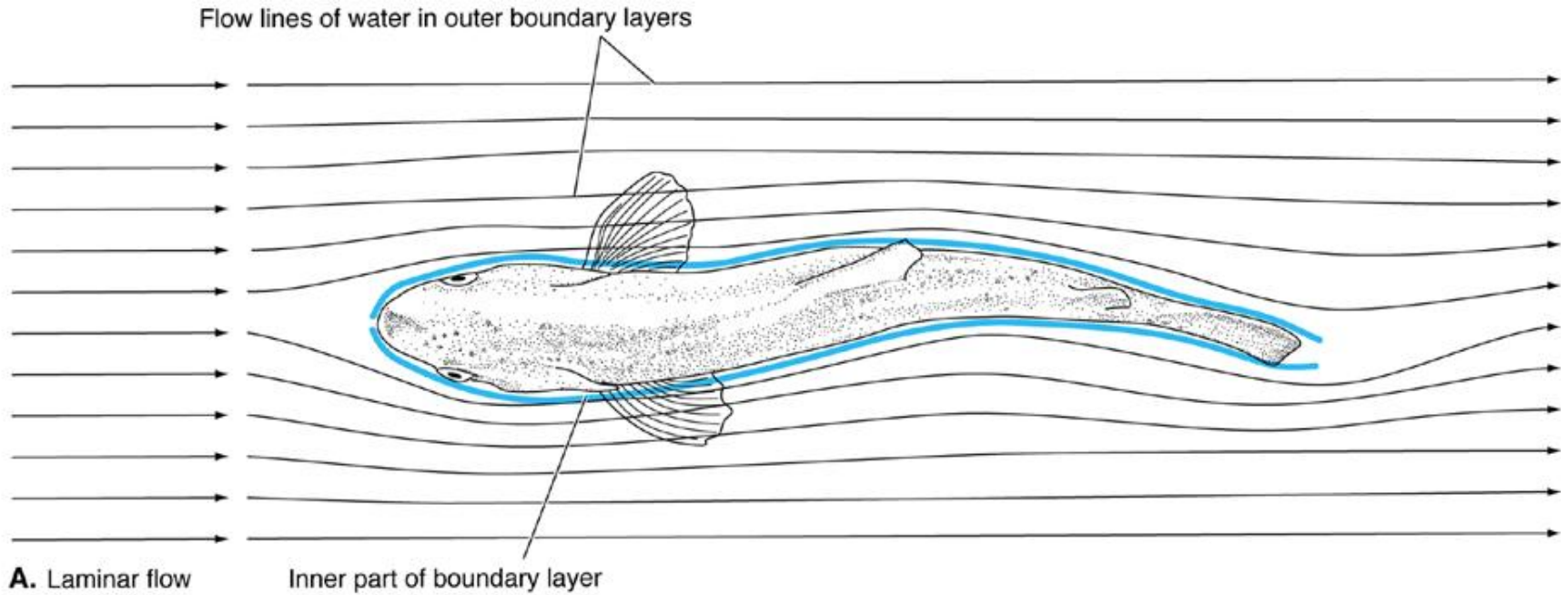
C. Oscillatory swimmers using fins or limbs

Fig 11-1

Undulatory swimming vs. oscillatory swimming

Aquatic Environment

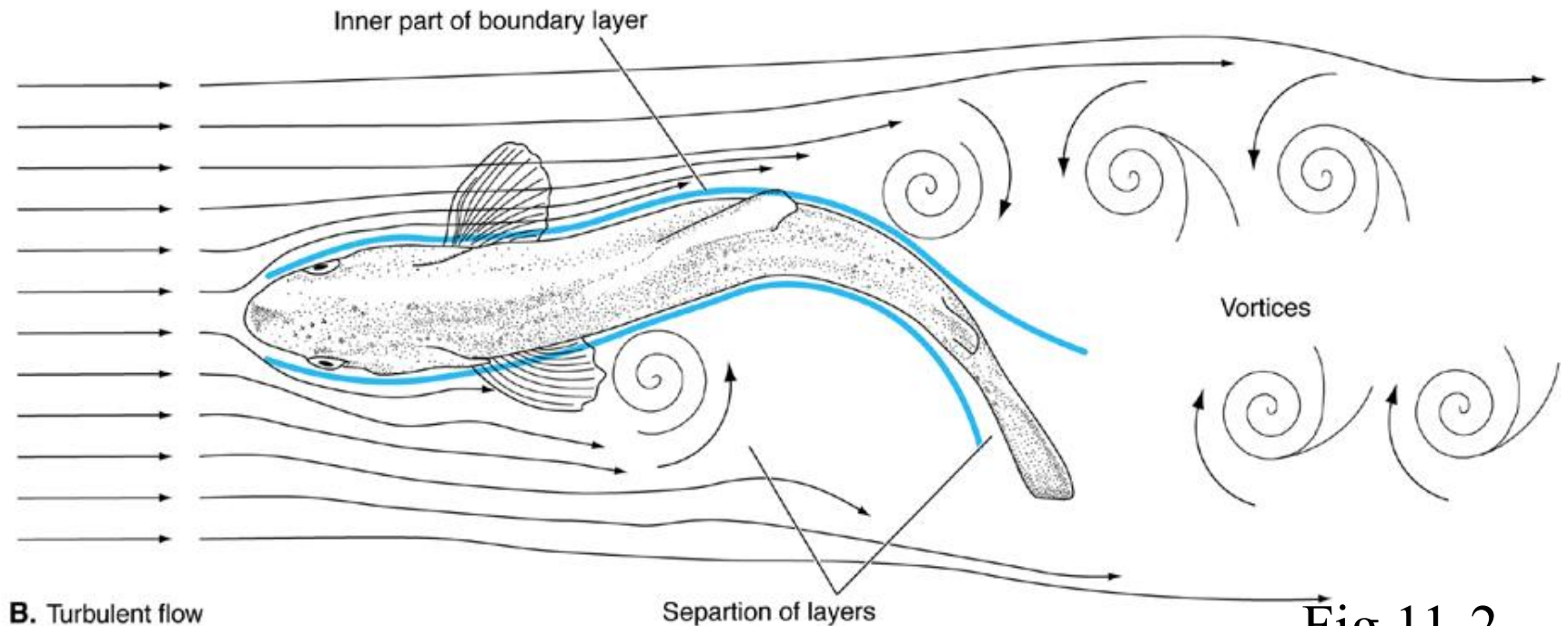
- **Buoyancy** – major supporting force
 - Weight of fish $>$ buoyancy – generate lift to overcome
- **Resistance** -drag
 - Frictional drag
 - Pressure drag



Frictional drag is lowest when the surface area of the fish is minimized relative to mass, the fish is swimming slowly, and the water flows smoothly across its surface (laminar flow)



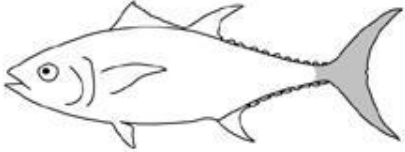

When a fish swims more rapidly, the boundary layer increases in thickness and the increased undulations disrupt the smooth flow of water. The boundary layer separates producing eddies – increases friction drag and causes pressure drag.

High pressure at head, low pressure at tail tends to hold the fish back – long slender bodies reduce pressure drag



Types of swimming

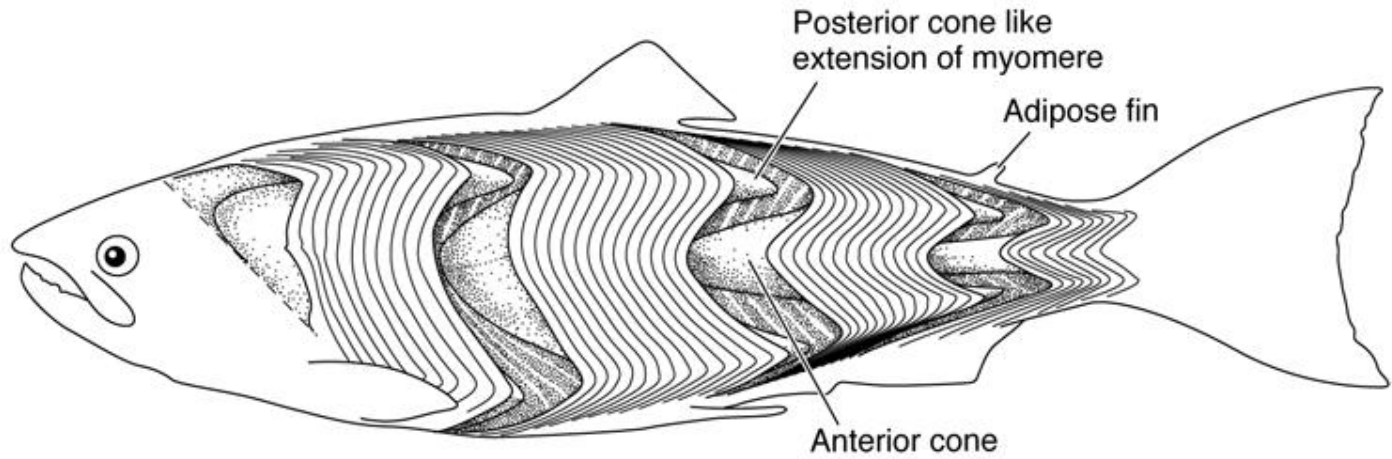
- **Transient** – lie quietly in water but can accelerate rapidly; e.g. reef fish, bass
- **Periodic** – sudden bursts of speed but mostly slow cruising; e.g. tuna, shark
 - **Anguilliform** – most of trunk and tail move back and forth; e.g. eel
 - **Carangiform** - caudal half of tail; e.g. jacks
 - **Thunniform** – mostly tail; e.g. tuna
 - **Ostraciform** – only tail; e.g. boxfish

Anguilliform	Carangiform	Thunniform	Ostraciform
 <p data-bbox="231 221 289 249">Eel</p>	 <p data-bbox="685 292 763 321">Jack</p>	 <p data-bbox="1149 385 1226 414">Tuna</p>	 <p data-bbox="1603 385 1709 414">Boxfish</p> <p data-bbox="1526 449 1748 506">Fig 11-1</p>

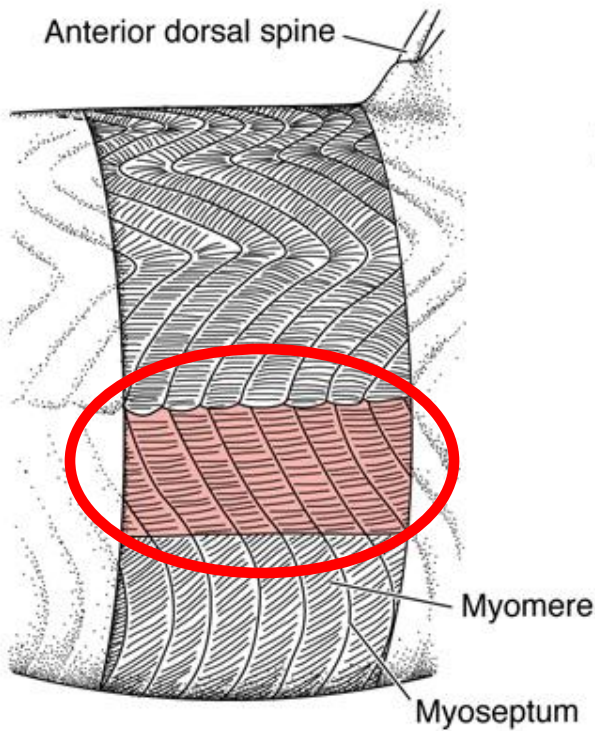


Myomeres

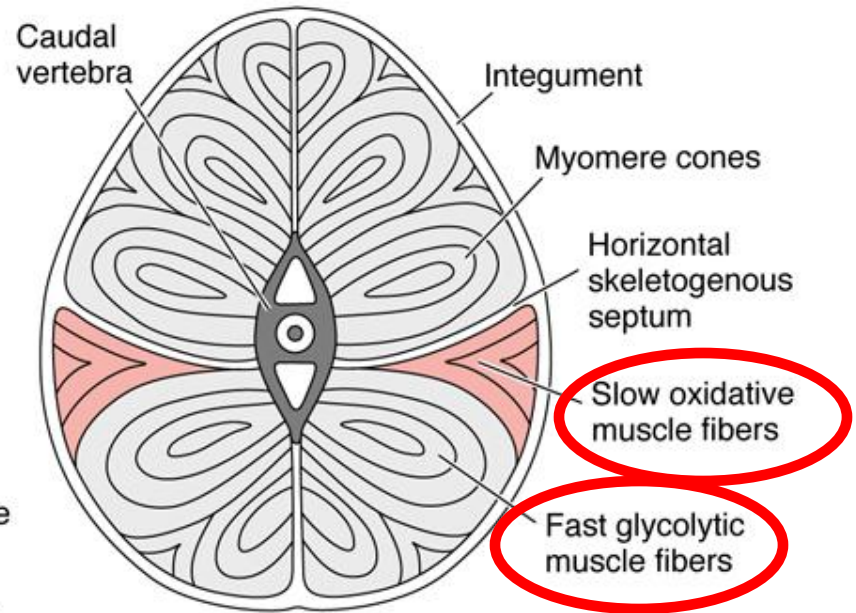
- Vertebral column prevents body from shortening
- Contraction of myomeres on one side pulls myosepta together – curvature
- Myomeres zigzag and overlap
 - One myomere can influence greater body length
 - Ensures smooth force generation and flow of undulations



A. Dissection of trunk muscles of a salmonid



B. Distribution of muscle fiber types



C. Distribution of muscle fiber types in cross section

Fig11-4

Buoyancy - Sharks

Shark density is reduced by

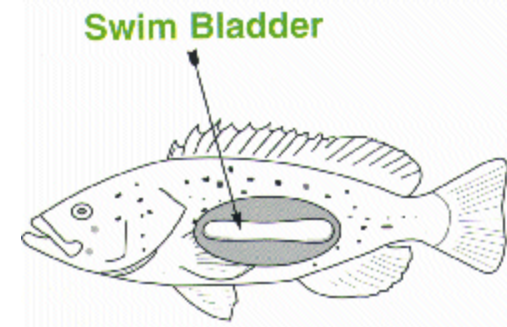
1. Cartilaginous skeleton
2. Lipid stores
3. Urea in body fluid

Sharks overcome remaining sinking by

- Heterocercal tail



Swim Bladder



- Sarcopterygians/early actinopterygians
 - Lunglike air sac
 - Evolved into a swim bladder
- **Swim bladder** makes fish less dense
- Telosts can regulate gas in swim bladder and float in any level of water with little effort
 - Increased control of buoyancy
 - Bone replaces cartilage, tail becomes symmetrical, lipids don't accumulate, fins don't generate lift

Stability

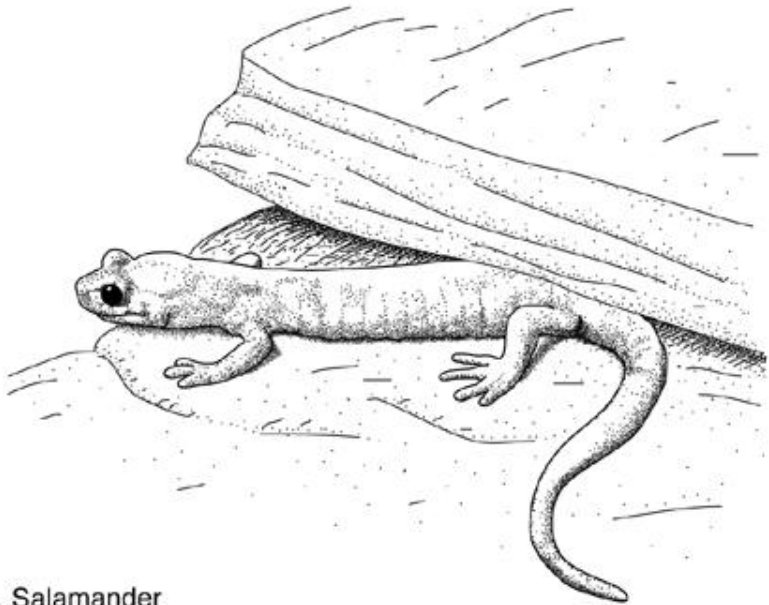
- Displacement forces
 - **Yaw** – tail action causes head to move side-to-side
 - Head is heavy so inertia
 - Surface area of median fins reduces lateral body movement
 - **Roll** – rotate on longitudinal axis
 - Median and paired fins
 - **Pitch** – head to move up and down
 - Also countered by median and paired fins



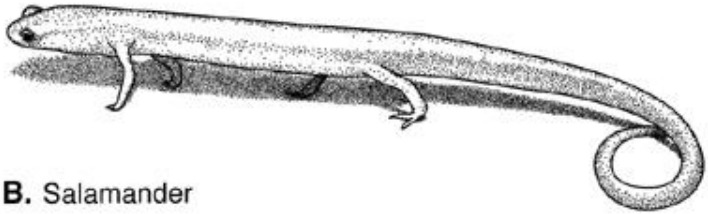
Vertebrate Locomotion: Terrestrial

Vertebral Support

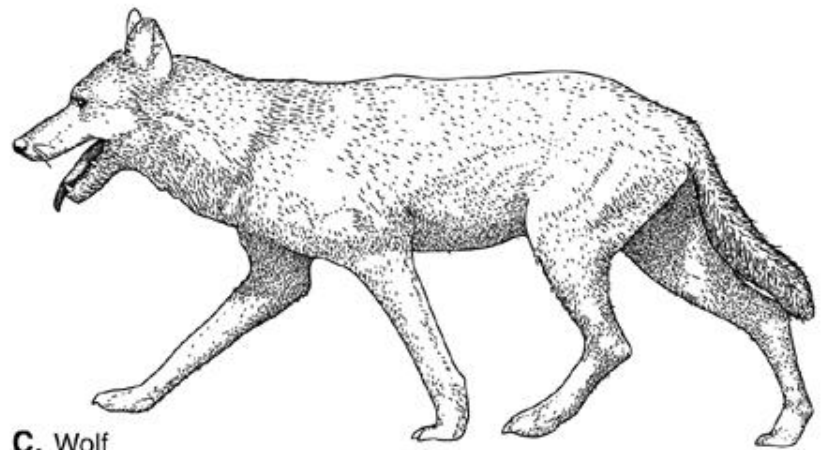
- Supporting body weight on land was a major problem
 - Air less dense, little lift
 - Rest lying on ground – but still need to prevent collapse
- Vertebral column – strong, support beam
 - Supports against body
 - Transfers weight to girdles and appendages



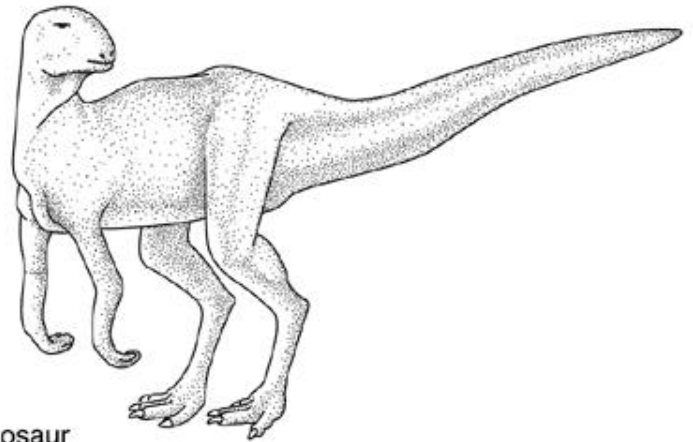
A. Salamander



B. Salamander



C. Wolf



D. Dinosaur

Limb positions of tetrapods

Fig 11-7

Vertebral Support

- Intervertebral discs –
 - Remnant of notochord – nucleus pulposus surrounded by thick layers of connective tissue
 - Allow bending, act as shock absorbers, distribute forces evenly over adjacent centra
- Zygapophyses
 - Neural arches fused to centra
 - Restrict bending in some directions
- Strong ligaments link vertebrae
- Neural spines – levers to transmit force
 - Longer so increases mechanical advantage

Limb support

- Weight transfer to pelvic girdle by sacral vertebrae or ribs
 - # and degree of fusion correlates with forces – e.g. mammals have more than amphibians/reptiles
- Weight transfer to pectoral girdle by muscular sling between trunk and girdle/appendage
 - Mammals – serratus ventralis is major muscle
- Legs must be drawn under body by muscle action
 - Muscles crossing joints stabilize

Reducing stabilization energy

- Vertical alignment of limb segments
 - Direct transfer of weight to ground
- Stay mechanisms – ungulates/horses
 - Stand while sleeping

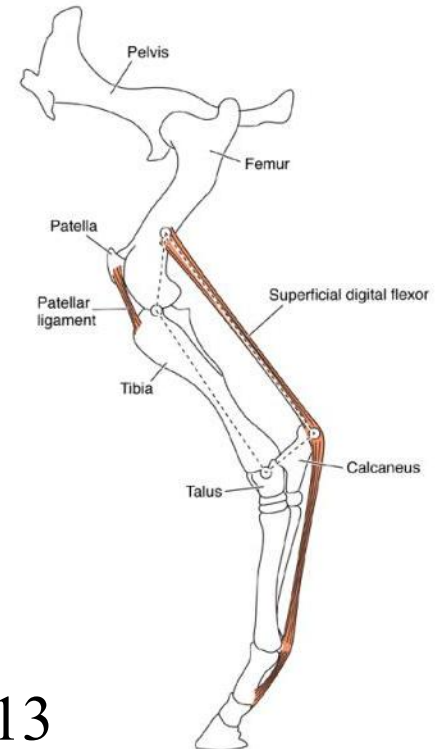


Fig 11-13

Waling and Running

- Walking probably began in water
 - Ancestral locomotion pattern
- Paired fins evolved into jointed limbs
 - Appendicular musculature developed
- Limbs and girdles strengthened to support entire weight and maintain stability



Walking terminology

- **Step cycle**

- Propulsive phase – one foot placed on ground
 - develops thrust and accelerates body and moves it forward
- Swing phase – foot is removed from ground and advanced in prep for next foot placement
- Length of step = distance trunk moves during propulsive phase
- Stride length = movement from once cycling of all legs e.g. quadruped four step cycles

Reptiles/Amphibians

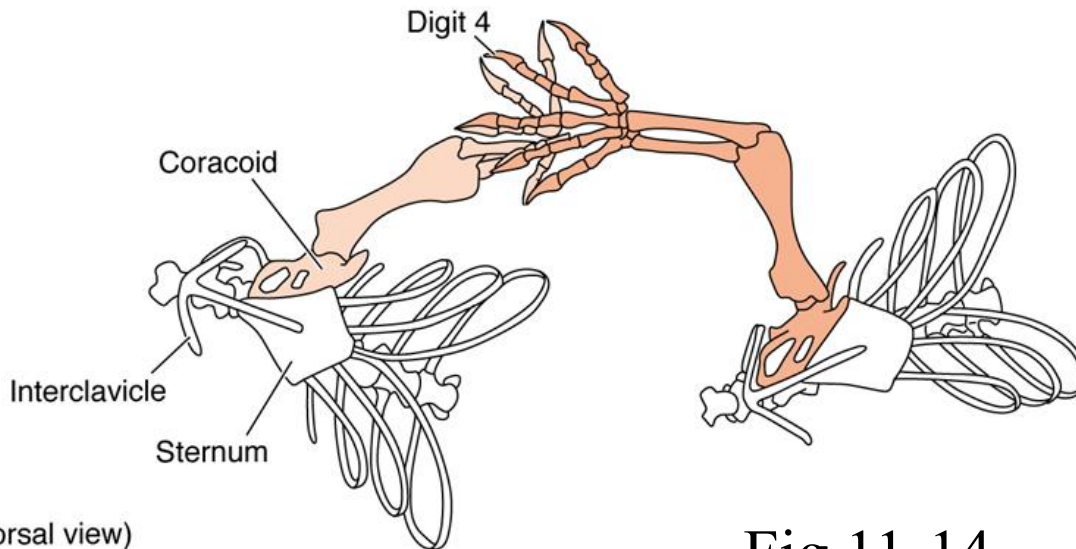
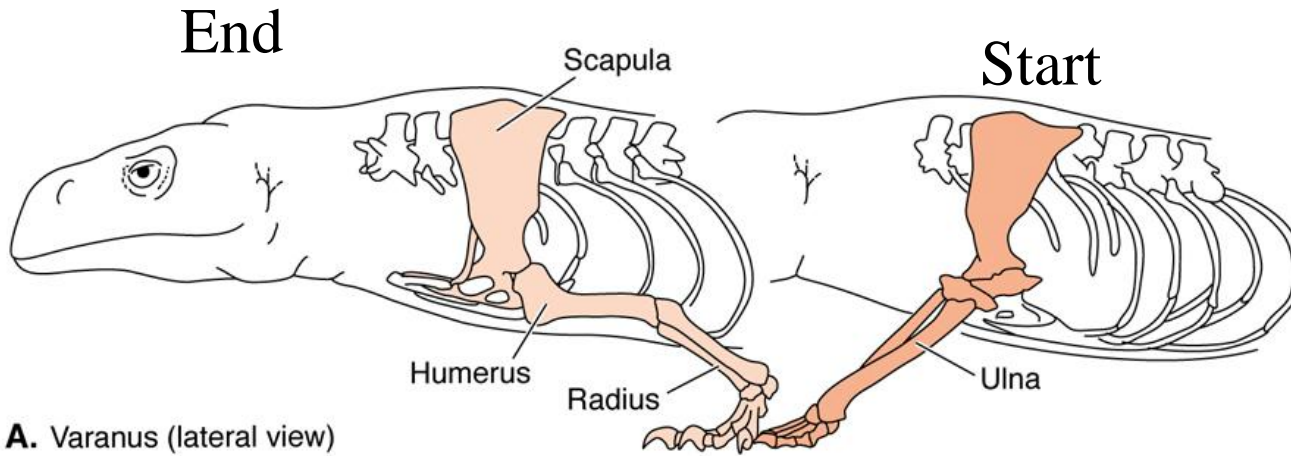


Fig 11-14

Mammals

- Limbs have rotated under body
 - Humerus/femur move fore and aft
 - Stance (distance between feet) narrower
 - Limbs closer to center of gravity
 - Better support with less muscular effort
 - Swing through longer arcs – longer step/stride lengths
 - No extra energy expenditure
 - Degree to which limbs are beneath the body varies among mammals



Cursorial – limbs
well under body



Fig 11-17

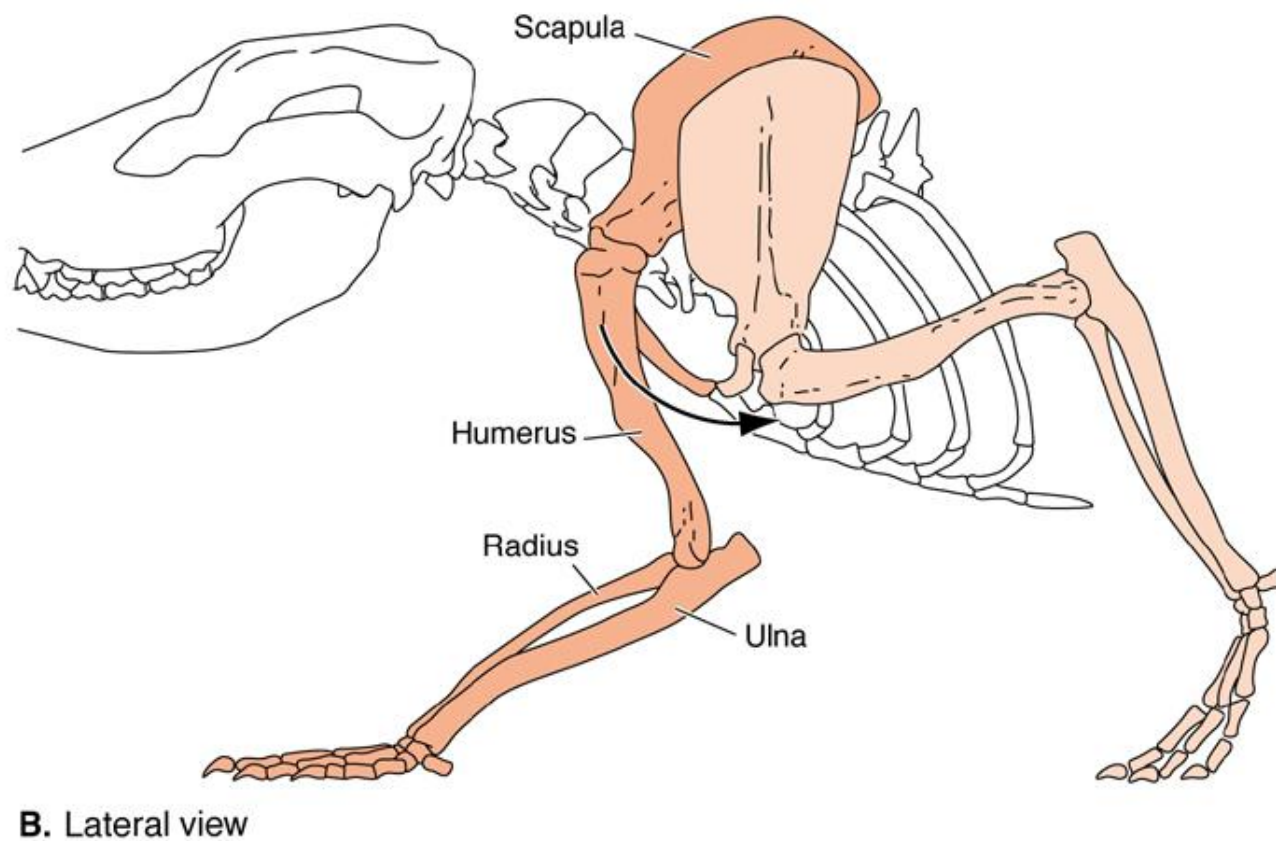
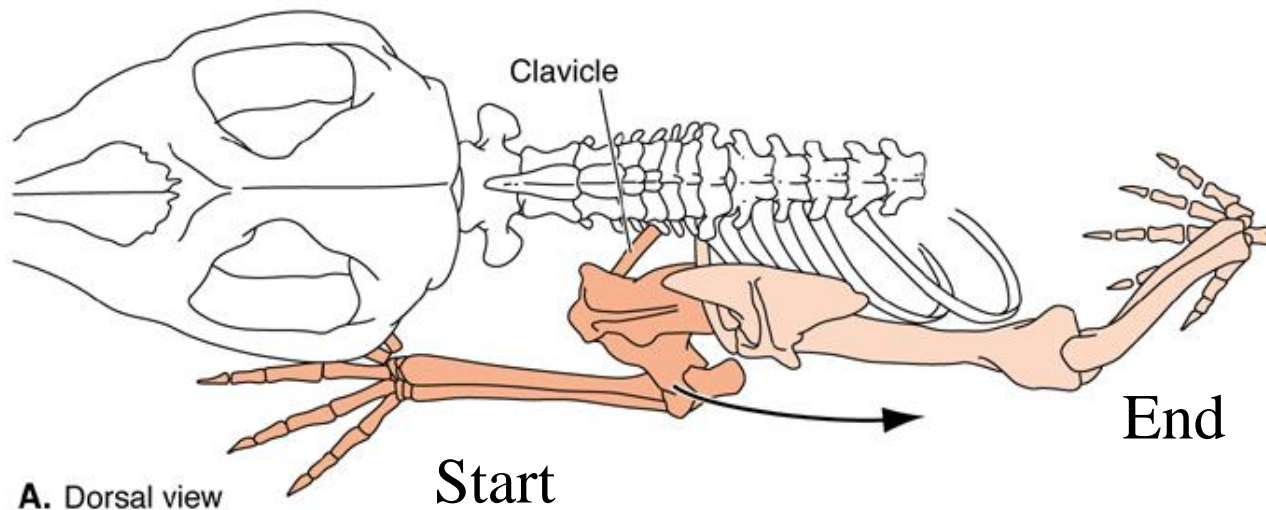
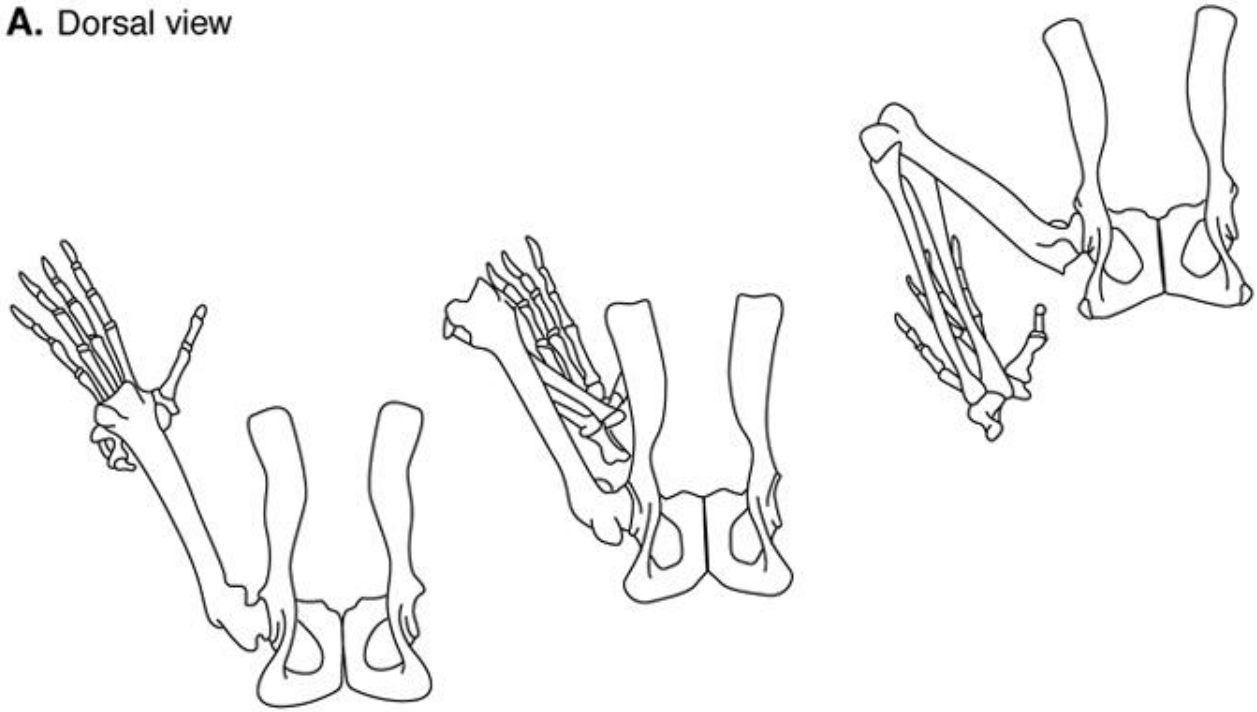
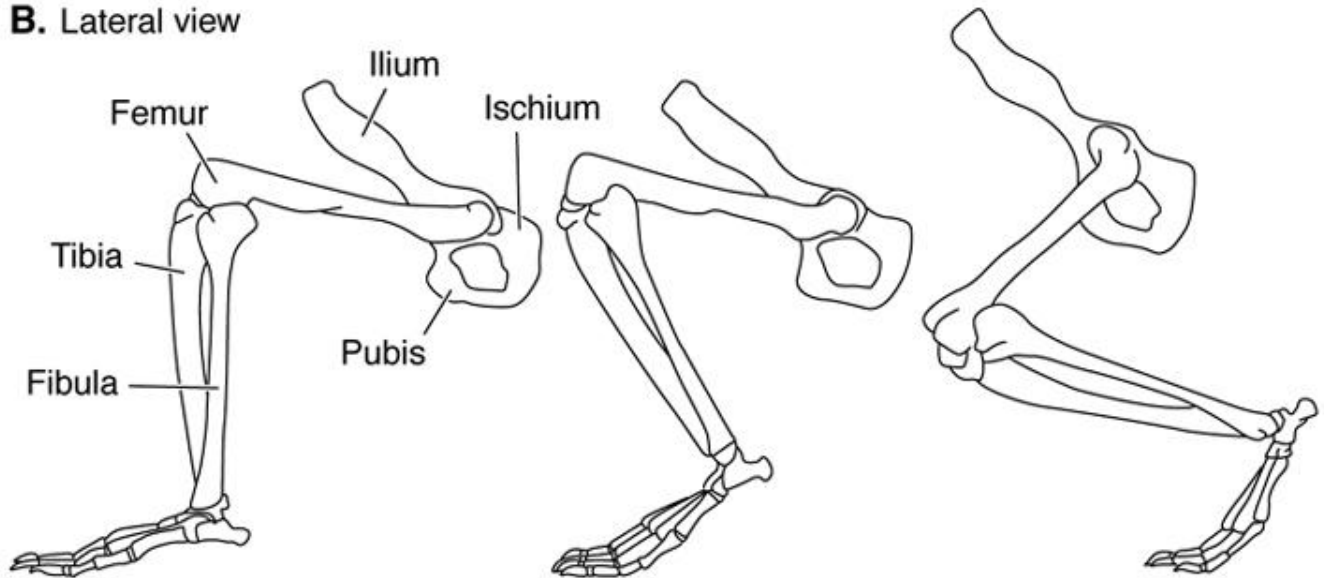


Fig 11-18

A. Dorsal view



B. Lateral view



Gait

- Combination of feet that are on or off the ground during stride
 - Changes cause different stride length
 - Faster than a walk involve more instability
- Slow moving mammals – diagonal couplet walk
 - Shift gait when begin to run
- **Symmetrical gait** – left and right hind feet or left and right front feet move 0.50 out of phase and evenly spaced
- **Asymmetrical gait** – two hind or two front feet are nearly in phase

- **Plantigrade** – soles of feet flat on ground e.g. primates
- **Digitigrade** – walk on digits with wrist and ankle off ground e.g. carnivores
- **Unguligrade** – walk on tip of digits that reach ground e.g. ungulates

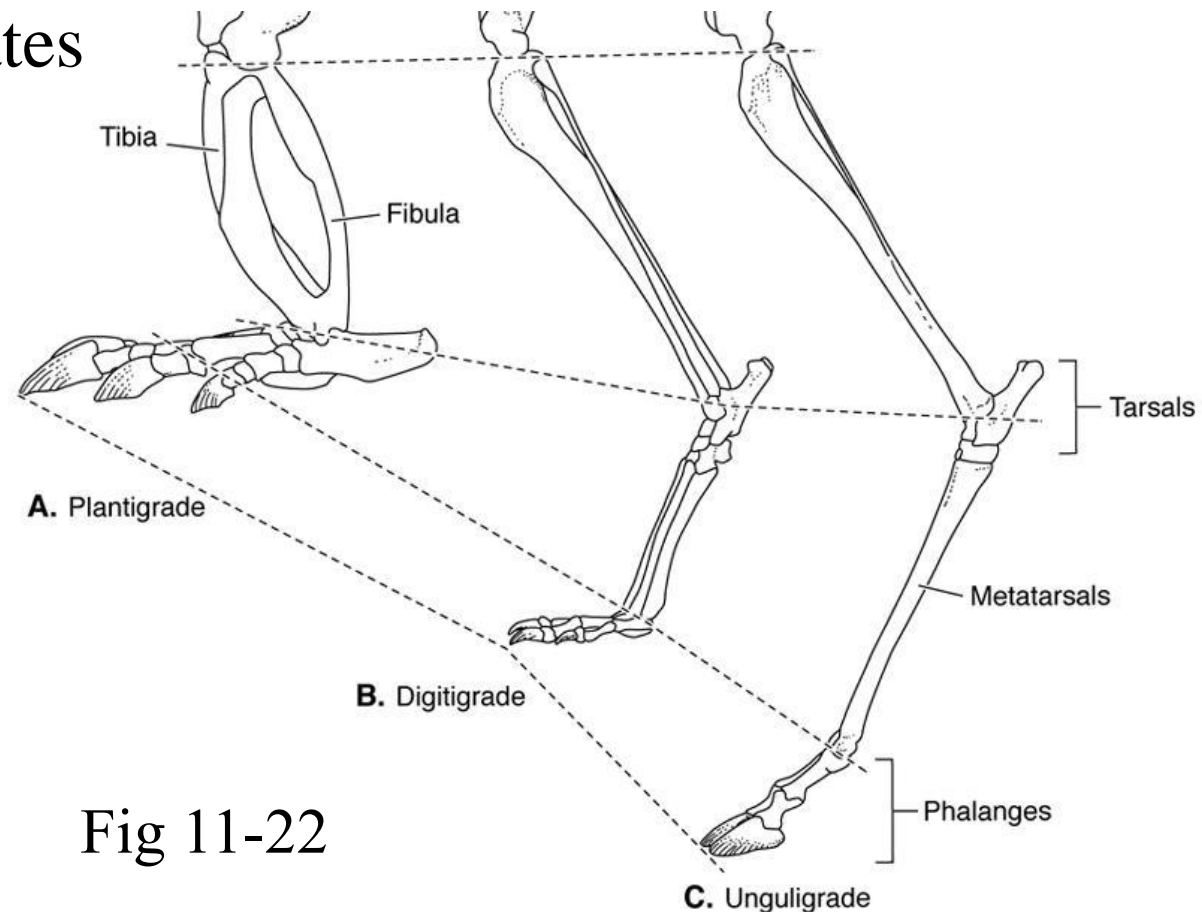


Fig 11-22



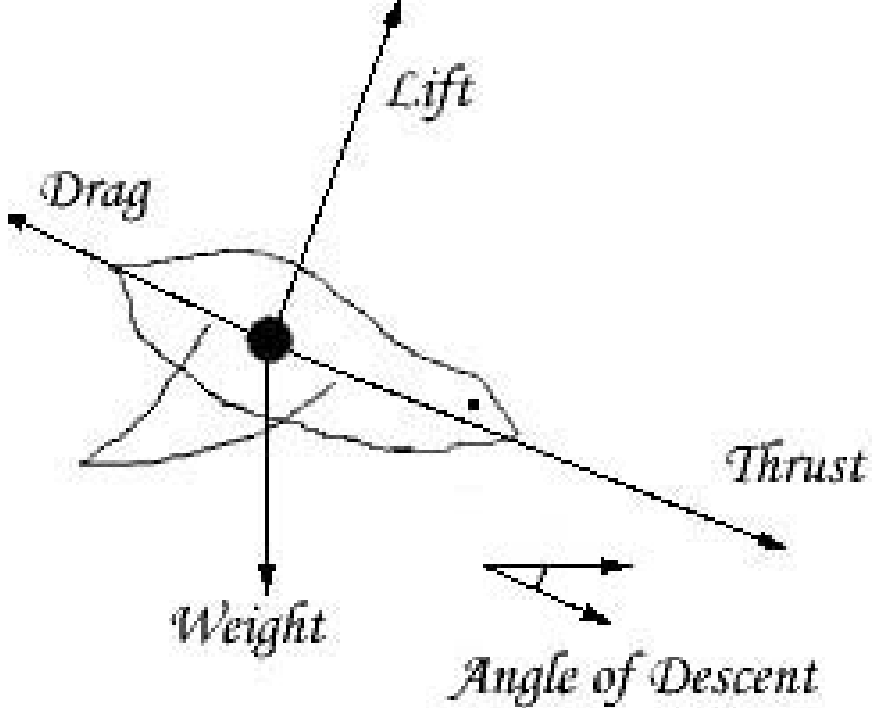
Jumping



- Most vertebrates can jump
- Specialized for jumping = **saltatorial**
 - e.g. Frogs, toads, kangaroos, tarsier, and some rodents
- Convergent evolution
 - Hind legs elongated, powerful and strong
 - Center of mass shifted backward; strengthened vertebrae – reduce twisting
 - Mammals – long tail stores energy (not in amphibians)

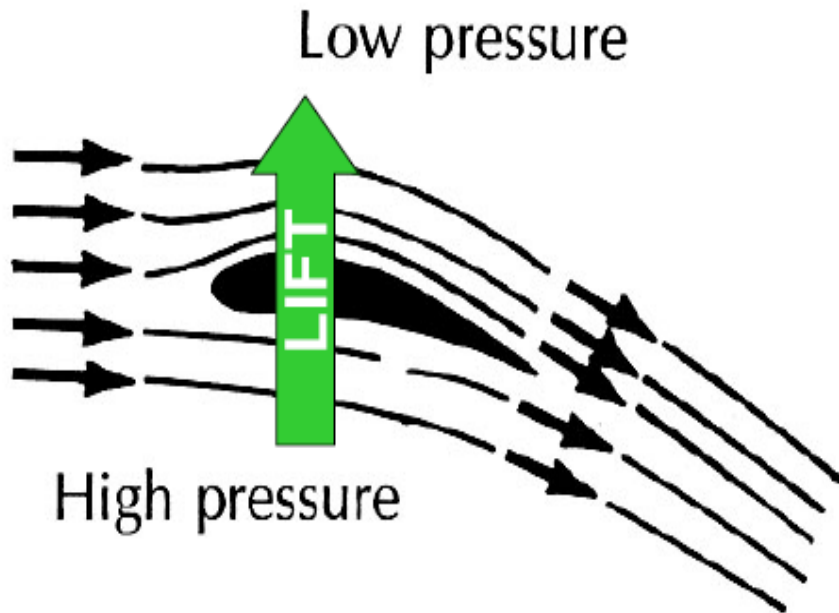


Vertebrate Locomotion: Aerial



Upward force of lift counters the downward force of weight

Forward force of thrust counters the friction forces or drag



Types of Ariel Locomotion

- Parachuting
 - Common in vertebrates
- Gliding – adaptations for lift
- Flying
 - Active flapping to generate horizontal movement
- Soaring
 - Gliding in moving air





Gliding

< 45° from horizontal

Parachuting

> 45° from horizontal

Gliding - Fish

- Flying fish
 - “Two-winged” and “four-winged”
 - Extend enlarged pectoral fins
 - 50 m



Gliding - Fish

- Flying half-beaks
 - Enlarged pectoral fins

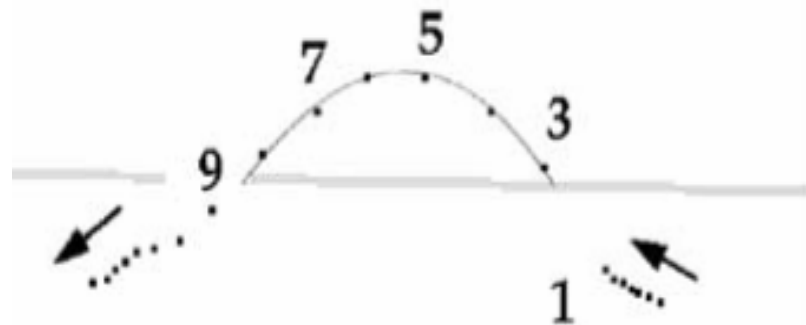
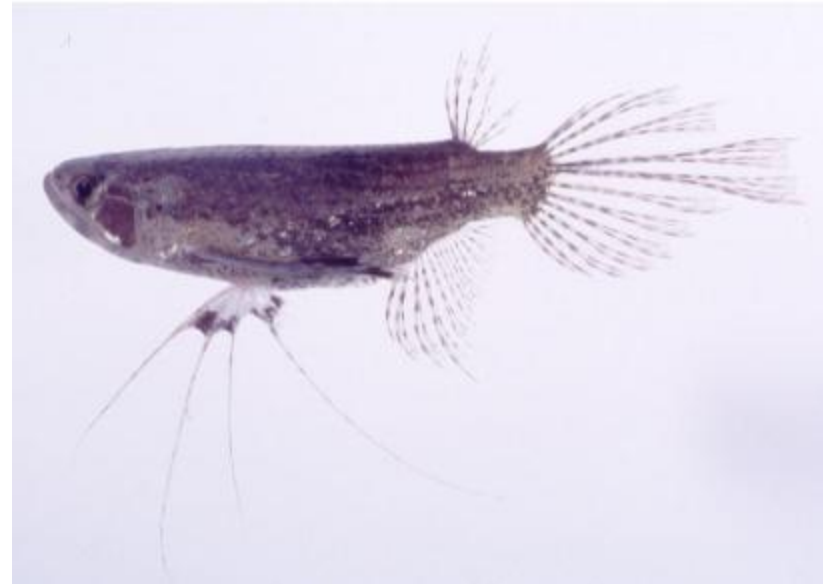


- Freshwater hatchet fish (possibly flying)
 - Large sternal region with large muscles; flaps pectoral fins



Gliding? - Fish

- African butterfly fish
 - Large pectoral fins
 - May flap while in air
 - Video analysis
 - Parabolic path
 - Fins do not generate lift
 - Jumps for the water, does not glide



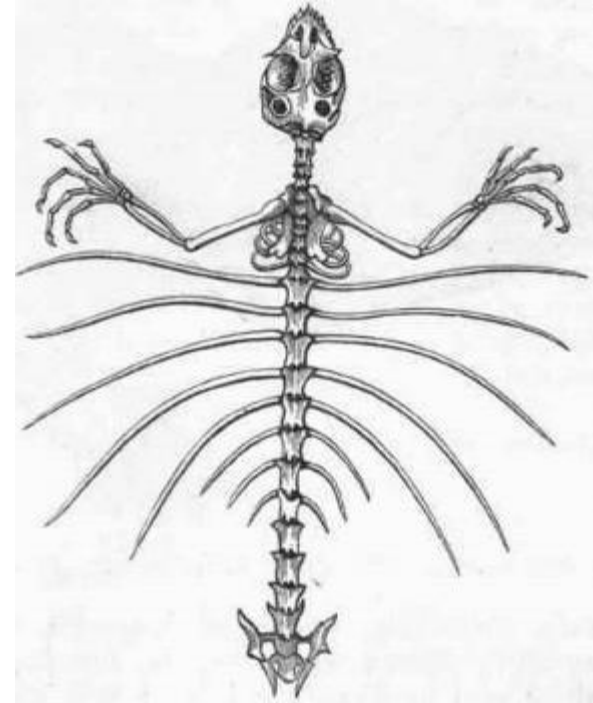
Gliding - Amphibians

- Flying frogs
 - Enlarged toe membranes – spread when gliding



Gliding - Reptiles

- *Draco* lizards
 - Extended ribs
 - Patagium



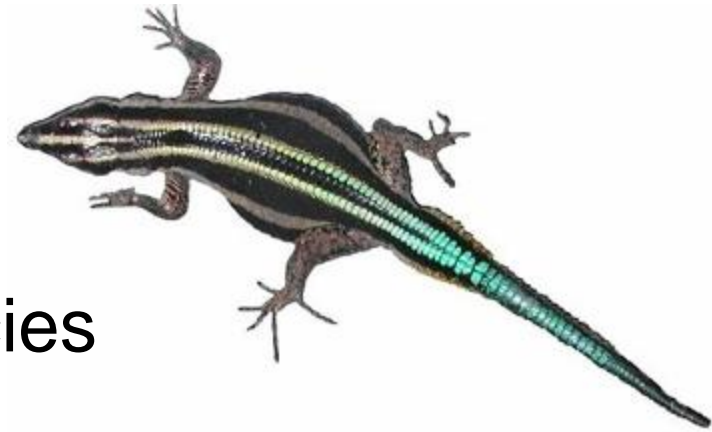
Gliding - Reptiles

- Gliding geckos
 - Flaps of skin on limbs, torso, tail and head
- Flying snakes
 - Stretches body sideways and opens ribs



Gliding? – Reptiles

- Neon blue-tailed tree lizard
 - Appeared to glide
 - No obvious adaptations
 - Video analysis – performed better than non-gliding species
 - Very light weight
 - X-ray analysis revealed skeletal air spaces
 - Skull and girdles smaller



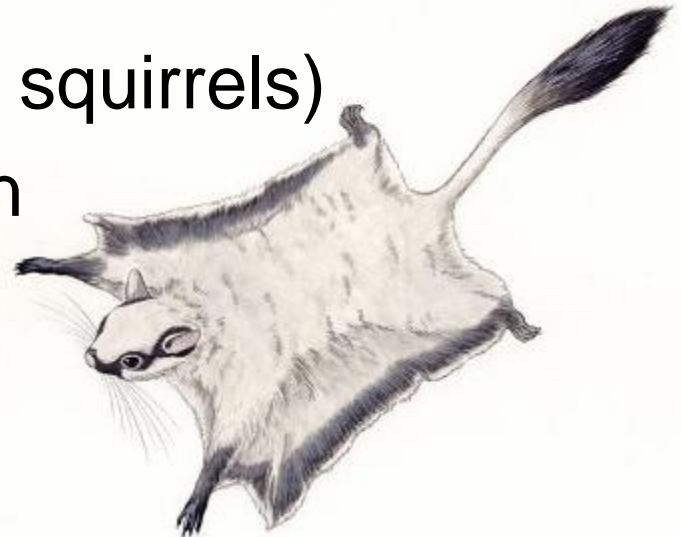
Gliding - Mammals

- Wrist-winged gliders
 - Stretches loose folds of skin after jumping
- Greater glider
 - Flying membrane extends to elbow
- Feather-tailed possums
 - Stiff-haired feather like hair



Gliding - mammals

- Flying squirrels
 - Found nearly worldwide
 - Flap of furry skin from wrist to ankle
- Scaly-tailed flying squirrels
 - African rodents (not actually squirrels)
 - Gliding membranes between front and hind legs



Gliding - mammals

- Colugos or flying lemurs
 - Not primates but sister taxa
 - Patagium is as large as geometrically possible
 - Spaces between fingers and toes webbed



Evolution of Flight

- Pterosaurs
 - First vertebrate group to evolve flight
 - Late Triassic – about 225 million years ago
- Birds
 - Late Jurassic – about 150 million years ago
- Bats
 - 60 million years ago

Advantages of Flight

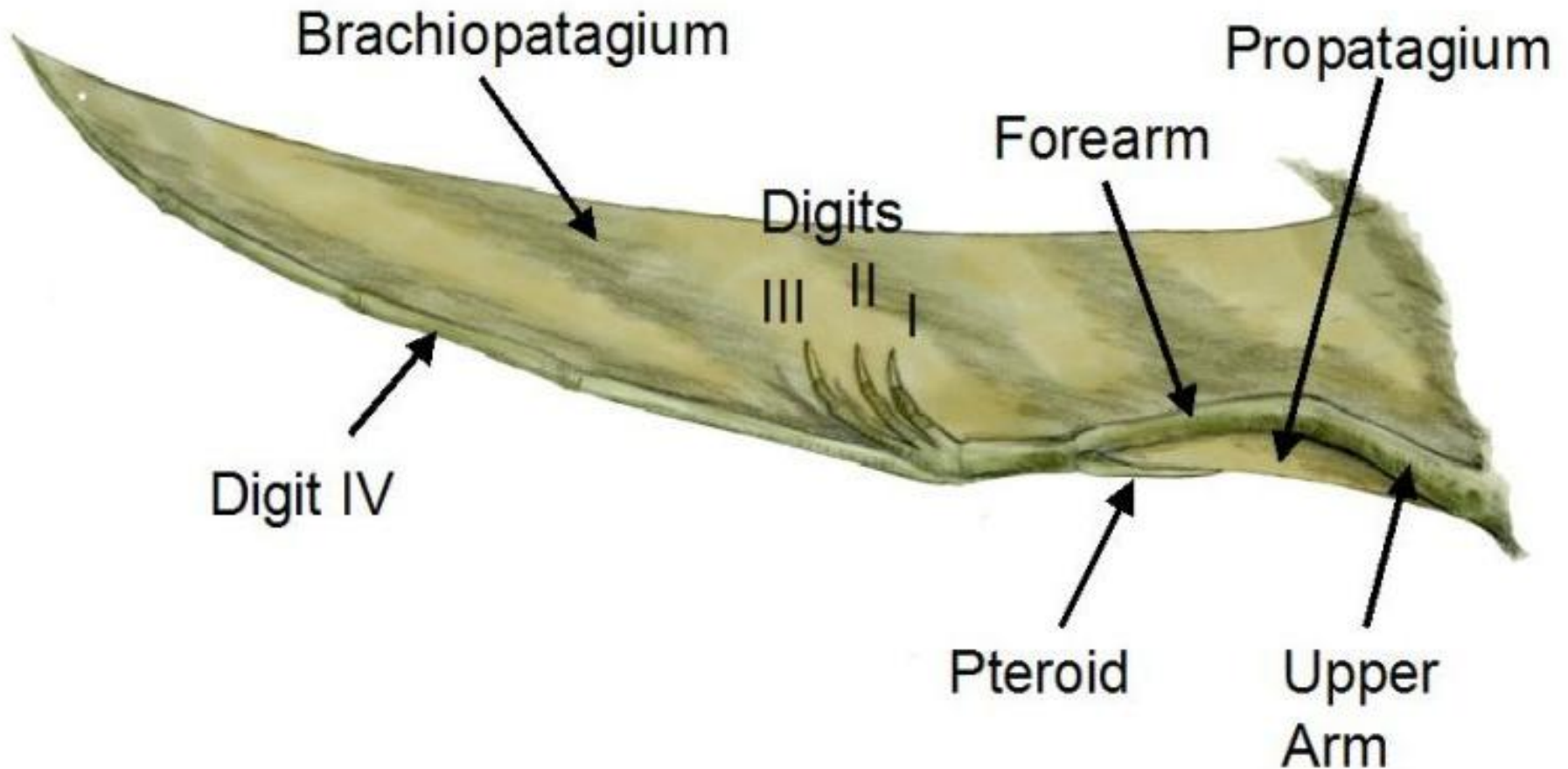
- Exploit inaccessible food resources
- Escape from non-flying predators
- Cover large expanses rapidly and cheaply
- Dispersal

Pterosaur Flight

- Successful for 135 million years
 - Likely due to well developed flight
- Largest had 15 m wingspan
- Debate
 - Mode of flight
 - How they take-off



Pterosaur Wing



Pterosaur Adaptations

- Uropatagium – between the hind limbs
 - Second lifting surface
 - Support legs during flight
 - Two types:
 - Broad: links across hind limbs
 - Split: triangular membrane along each limb



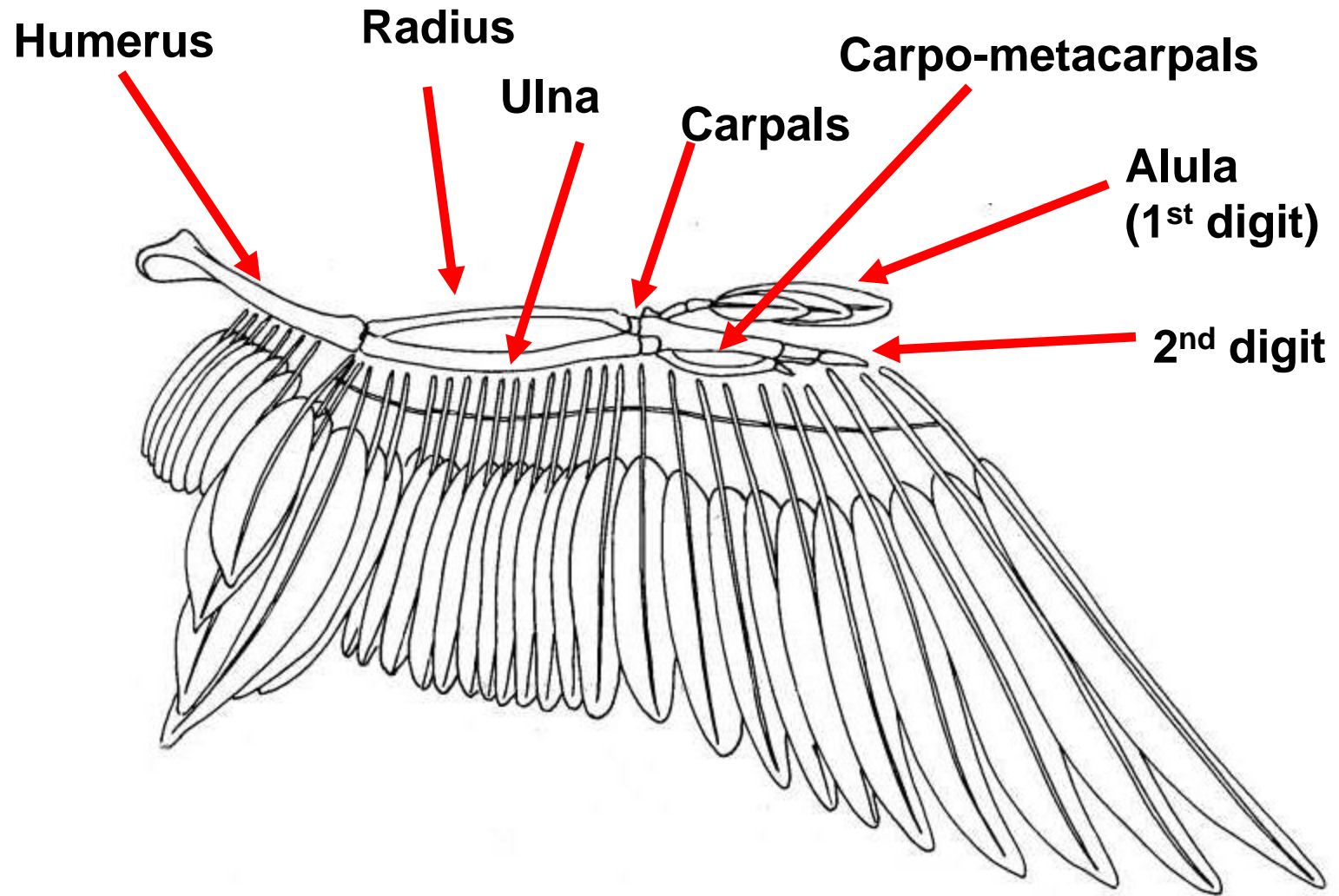
Pterosaur Adaptations

- Light-weight bones
- Stiffened torso
- An efficient respiratory system similar to birds
 - Lung-air sac system and flow-through ventilation
 - Provides the respiratory and metabolic potential for flapping flight

Avian flight

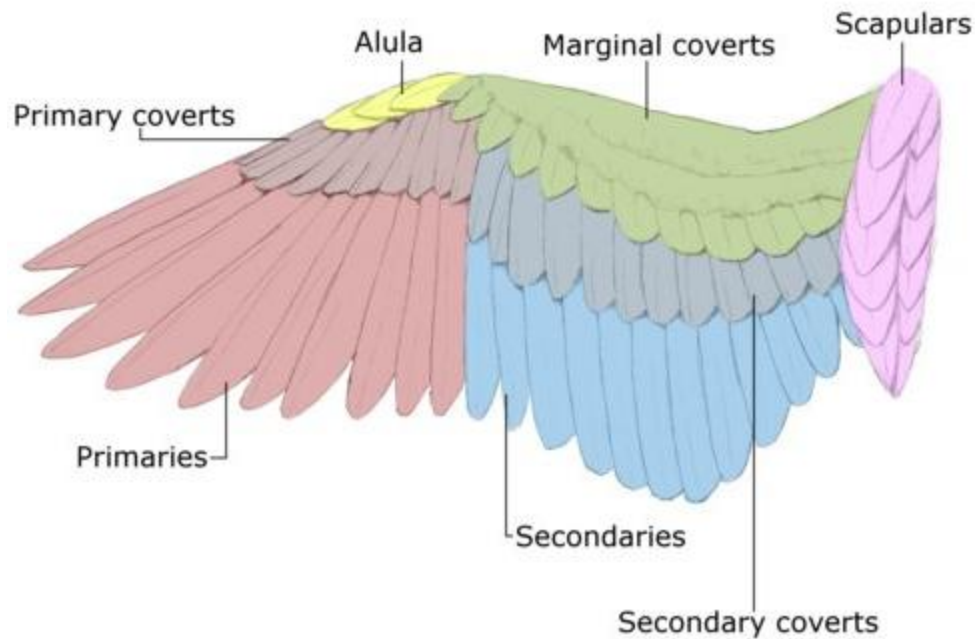


Avian Wing

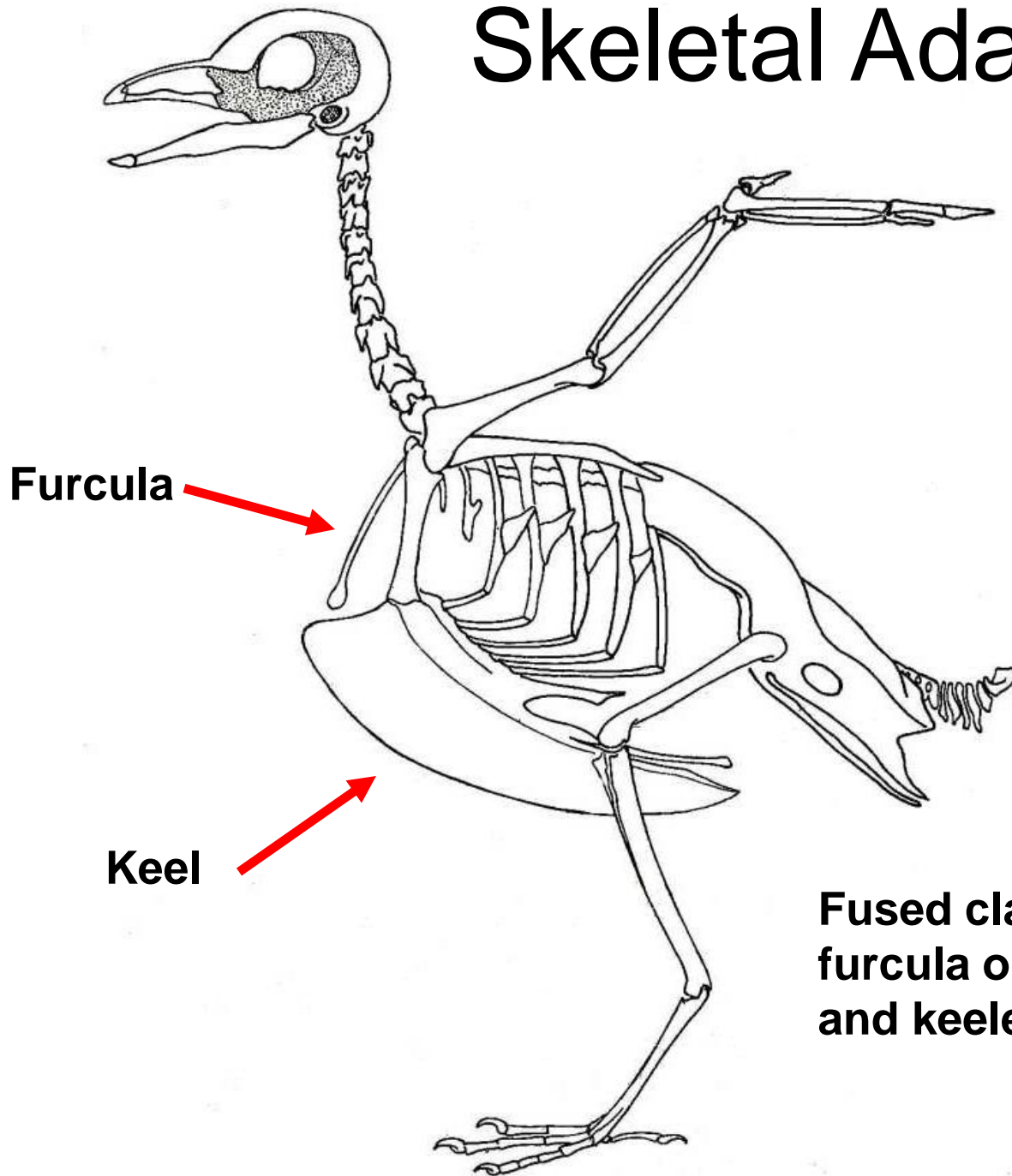


Feathers

- Aid in generation of lift and thrust
- Primaries – thrust
- Secondaries - lift

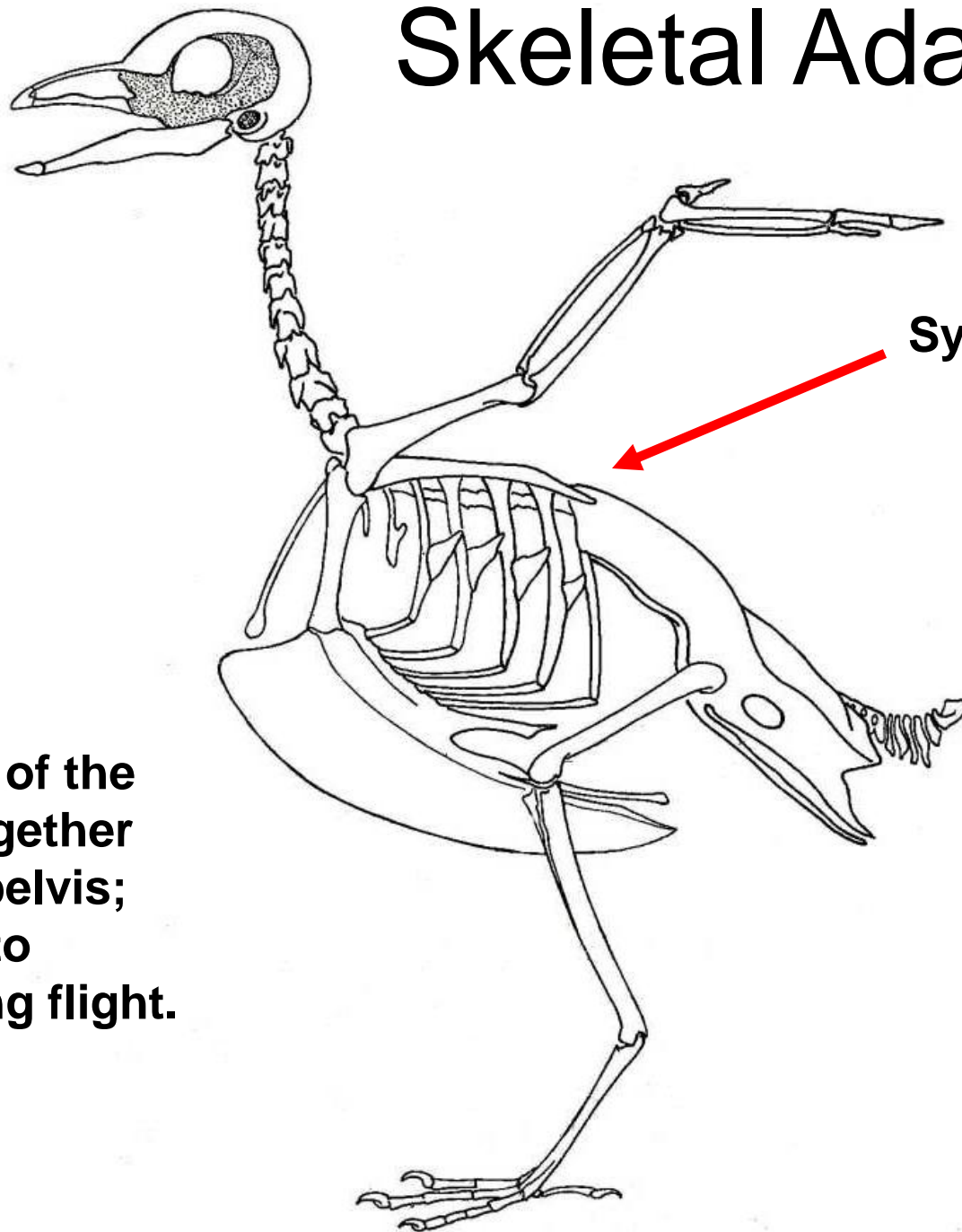


Skeletal Adaptations



**Fused clavicle called
furcula or wishbone
and keeled sternum**

Skeletal Adaptations

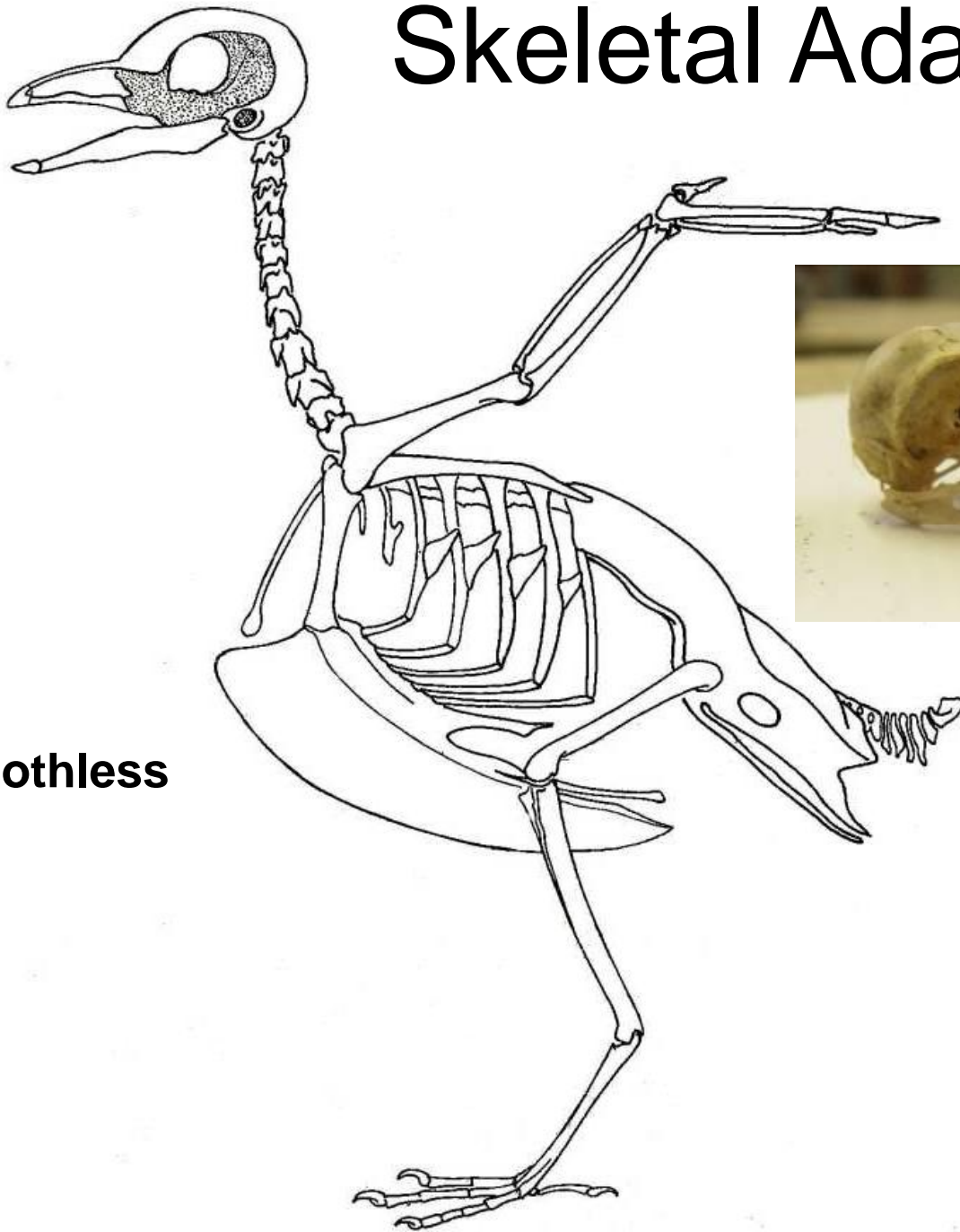


Synsacrum

Pygostyle

The vertebrae of the back fused together and fused to pelvis; gives rigidity to skeleton during flight. Fused caudal vertebrae.

Skeletal Adaptations

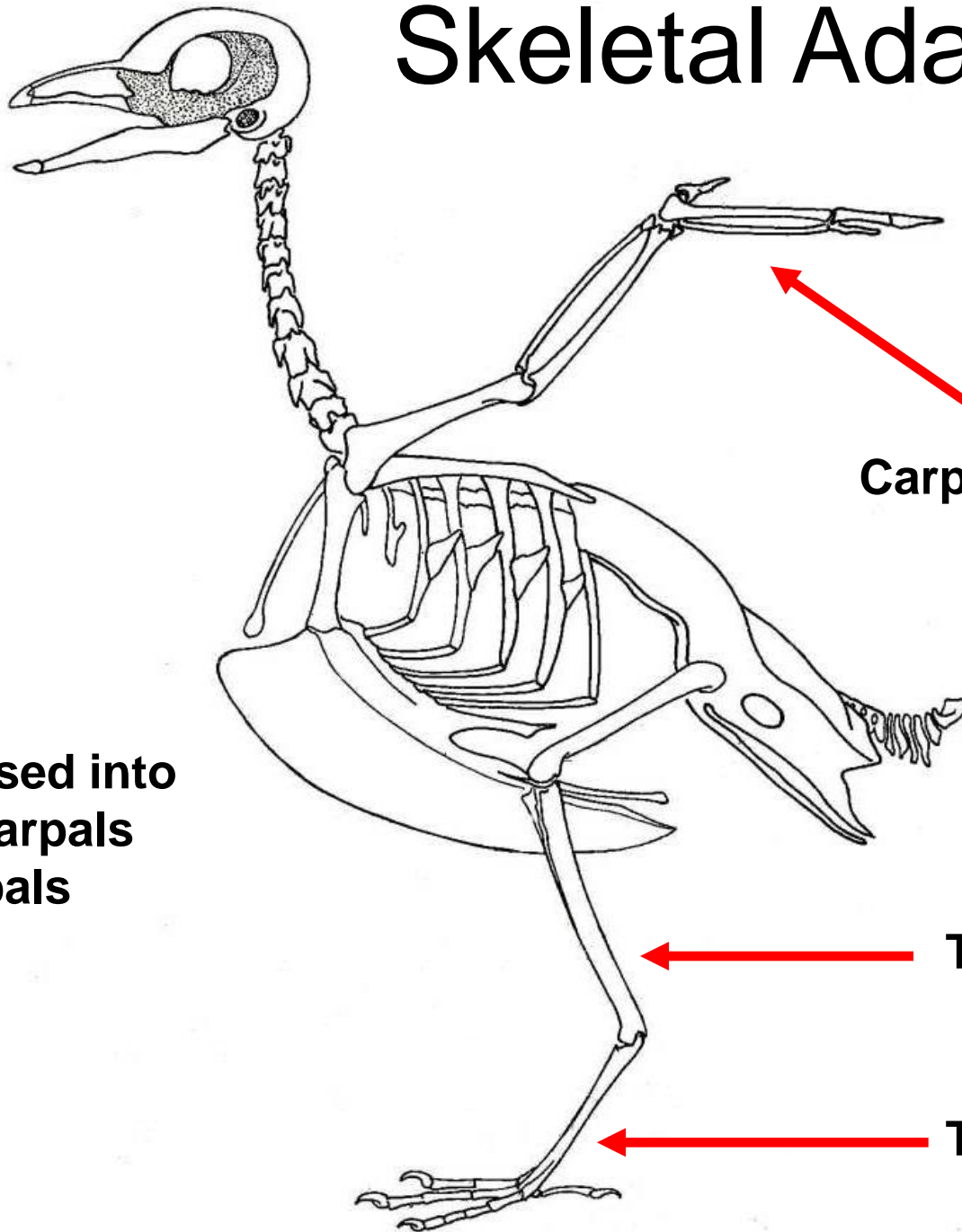


Bill

Lightweight toothless bill.



Skeletal Adaptations



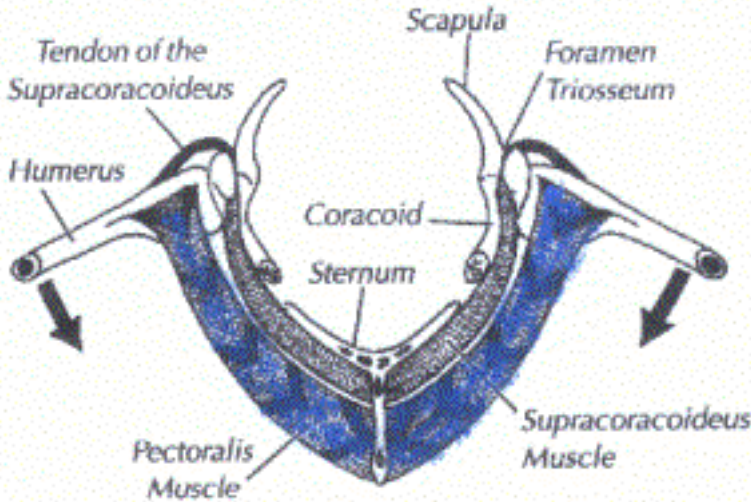
Carpo-metacarpals

Tibiotarsus

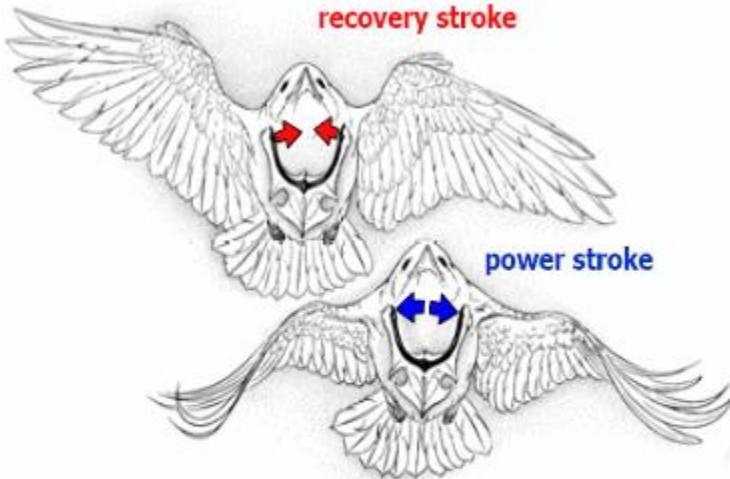
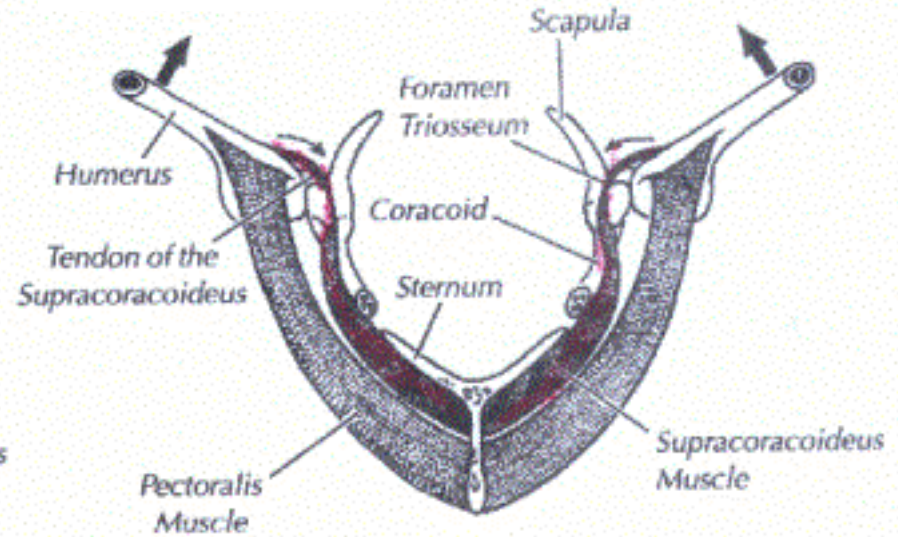
Tarso-metatarsus

Foot bones fused into metatarsus. Carpals and meta-carpals fused.

Downstroke or power stroke

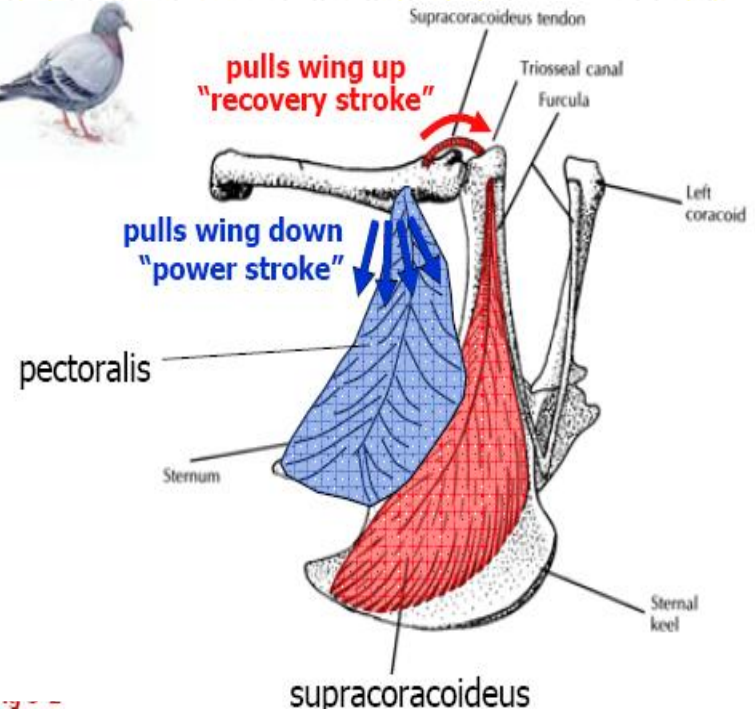


Upstroke or recovery stroke



recovery stroke

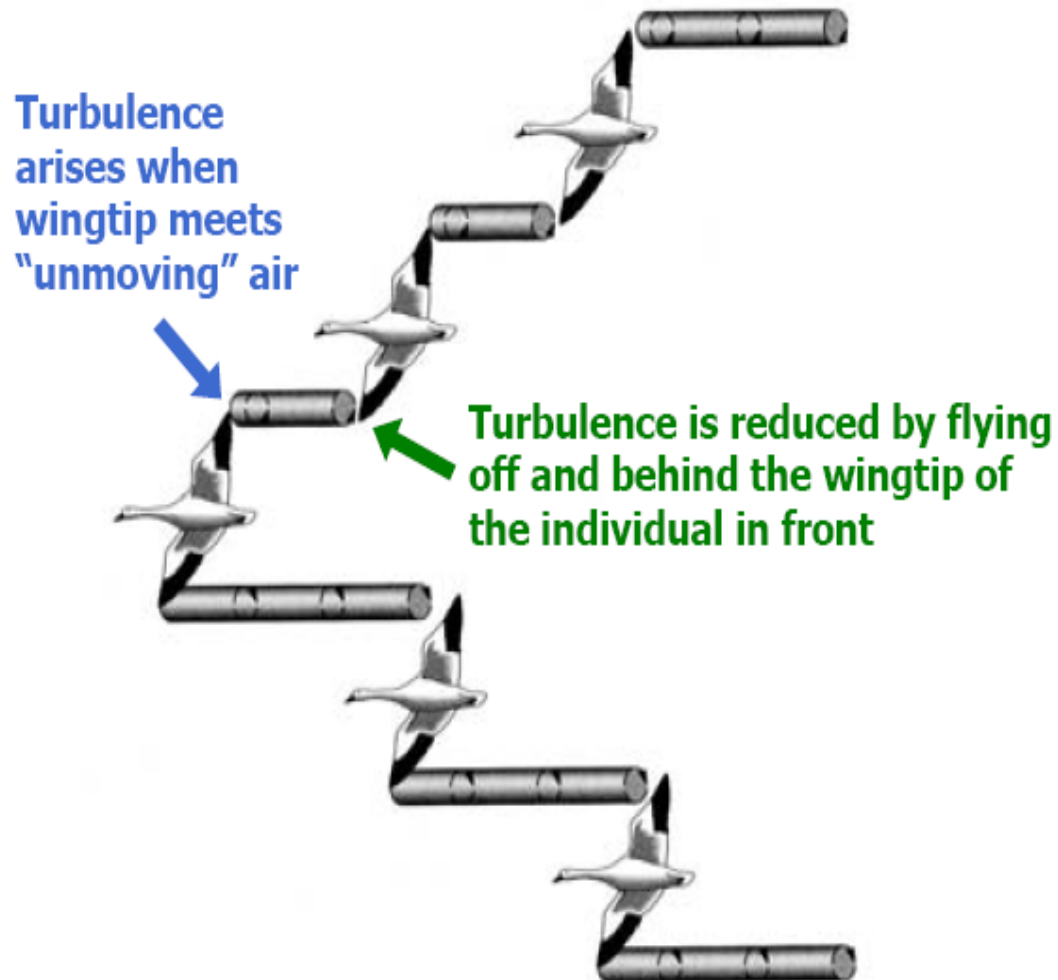
power stroke



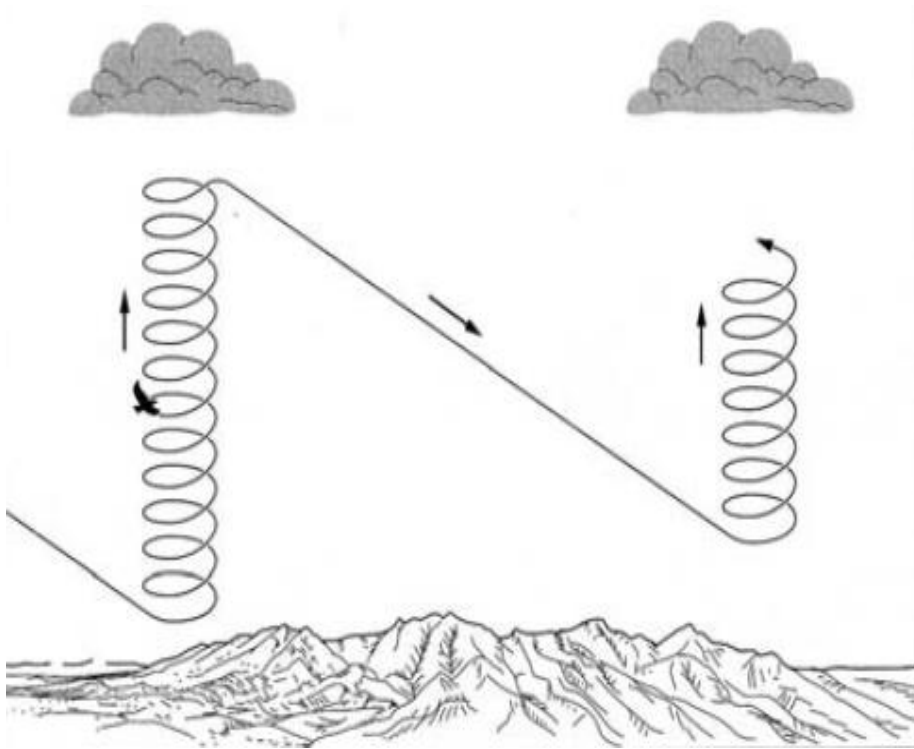
Bird – Flight Adaptations

- Regression of reproductive organs during the non-breeding season
- Do not have a bladder
- Efficient respiration
 - One-way flow through system

Flocking



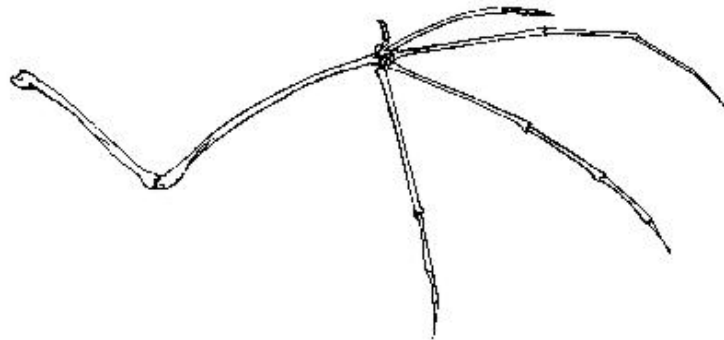
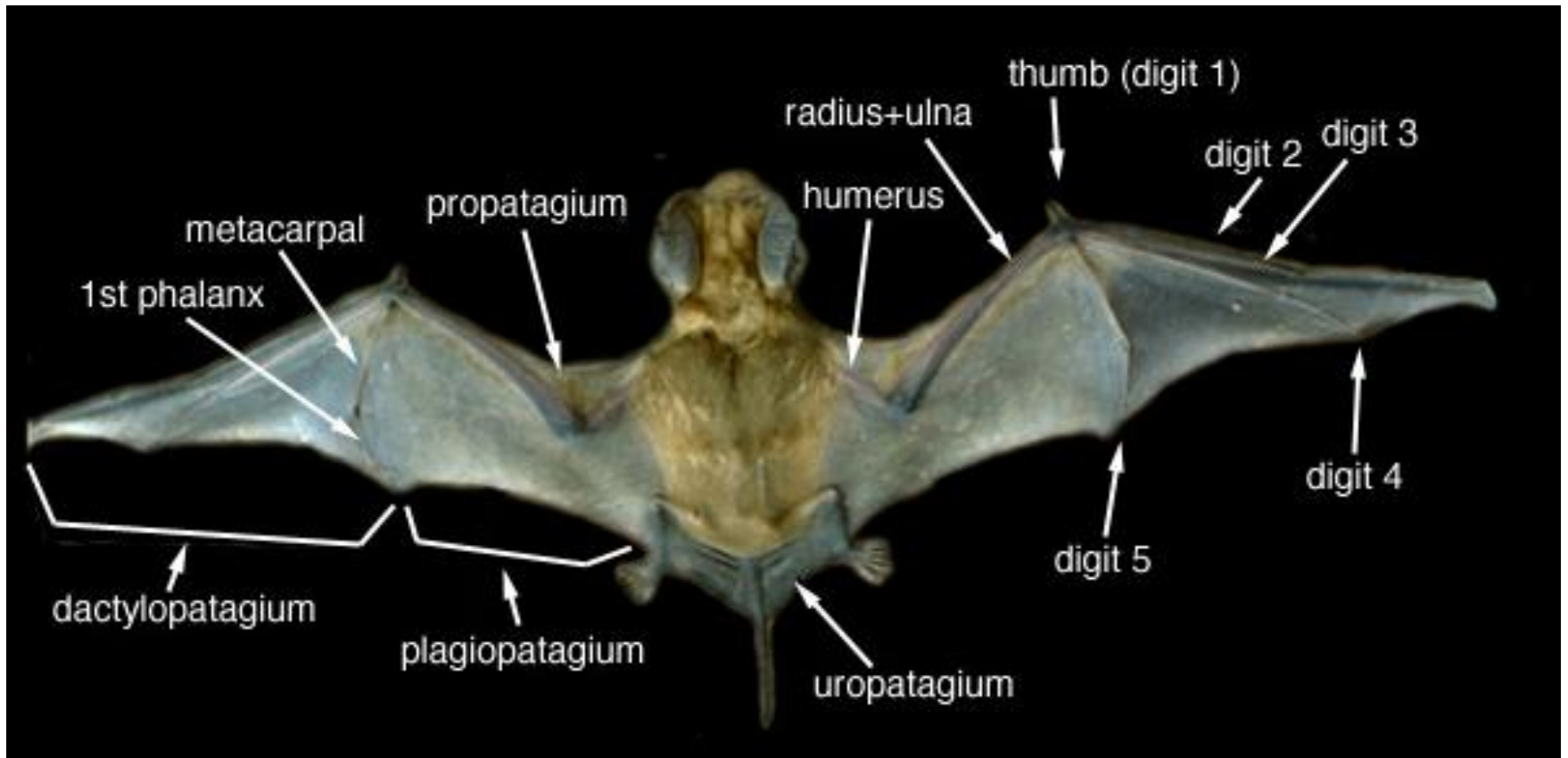
Soaring

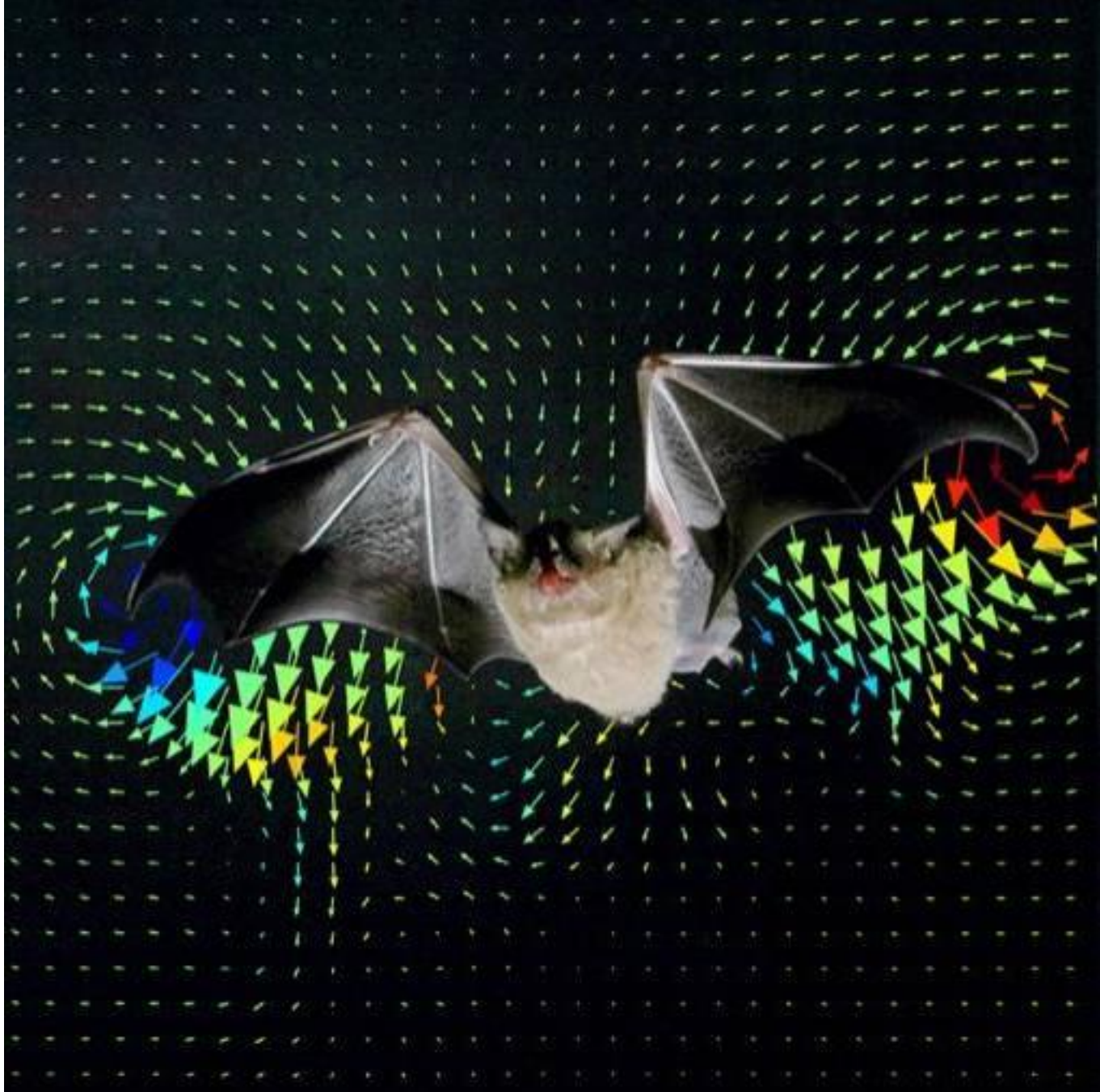


Bat Flight



Bat - wing





Hedenstrom et al. (2007) Science 316: 894-897

Bat - Adaptations

- Echolocation
 - Navigate in the dark
- Thinner and lighter bones
- Fused and fewer bones
- Calcar
- Short neck



UPPER ARM BONE ■

LOWER ARM BONE ■

WRIST BONES ■

METACARPALS ■

FINGERS ■

