# Section 1: Basics of a Nerve

The **nervous system** (nervus, Latin: "nerve") is a complex network responsible for coordinating movement, processing sensory information, and regulating physiological functions. Unlike single-celled organisms, which rely on simple chemical signaling, multicellular animals have evolved **specialized nerve cells (neurons)** that transmit information rapidly through electrical and chemical signals. Invertebrates, which make up the vast majority of animal life, display remarkable diversity in their nervous systems, ranging from **the complete absence of neurons in sponges** to the highly developed **centralized brains of cephalopods and arthropods**.

This section explores the fundamental **structure and function of nervous systems**, examining how **neurons, action potentials, and neurotransmitters** enable communication within an organism. By understanding these core principles, we can better appreciate the diversity of **nervous system organization across invertebrate phyla**.

**Neurons: The Building Blocks of the Nervous System**

At the core of all nervous systems are **neurons** (neuron, Greek: "nerve"), specialized cells that conduct **electrical impulses** and relay **chemical signals**. Neurons form intricate networks that allow invertebrates to respond to their environments, coordinate movement, and regulate internal functions. While the complexity of neuronal organization varies widely across invertebrates, all neurons share the same **basic structure**:

* **Dendrites** (dendron, Greek: "tree") – Branched extensions that **receive signals** from other neurons or sensory receptors.
* **Cell body (Soma)** – The metabolic center of the neuron, containing the nucleus and cellular organelles.
* **Axon** (axon, Greek: "axis") – A long projection that **conducts electrical impulses** away from the cell body.
* **Axon terminals** – The endpoints of an axon, where **neurotransmitters** are released to communicate with the next neuron or an effector (muscle or gland).

Neurons communicate using **action potentials**, rapid electrical signals that travel along the axon. When a neuron is stimulated, **ions (charged particles)** move across its membrane, creating a **wave of depolarization** that propagates down the axon. Upon reaching the **synapse** (synapsis, Greek: "junction"), the neuron releases **neurotransmitters**—chemical messengers that cross the synaptic gap and either excite or inhibit the next neuron.

**The Nature of Action Potentials**

An **action potential** is the fundamental electrical signal that neurons use to transmit information. It is an **all-or-nothing response**, meaning that if a stimulus is strong enough to reach the **threshold**, the neuron will fire a full action potential; otherwise, it will not fire at all. This process occurs in several key steps:

1. **Resting Potential** – At rest, the neuron maintains a **negative charge inside the cell** due to an uneven distribution of ions, primarily **sodium (Na⁺) and potassium (K⁺)**. This is maintained by the **sodium-potassium pump**, which actively transports Na⁺ out of the cell and K⁺ into the cell.
2. **Depolarization** – When the neuron is stimulated, **sodium channels open**, allowing Na⁺ to rush into the cell, making the inside more **positively charged**.
3. **Propagation** – The depolarization spreads along the axon, triggering adjacent sodium channels to open, allowing the signal to travel rapidly.
4. **Repolarization** – Shortly after depolarization, **potassium channels open**, allowing K⁺ to exit the neuron, restoring the negative charge inside the cell.
5. **Refractory Period** – The neuron briefly becomes more negative than its resting state, preventing it from firing again immediately, ensuring **one-way transmission** of the signal.

This **electrochemical transmission** allows invertebrates to react quickly to environmental stimuli, a crucial advantage for survival.

**Neurotransmitters and the Synapse: Chemical Messengers of the Nervous System**

While **action potentials** allow electrical signals to travel within a neuron, the **synapse** (synapsis, Greek: "junction") is where communication between neurons—or between neurons and muscles—takes place. The synapse is a highly specialized structure that allows electrical signals to be converted into **chemical messages**, ensuring that signals are transmitted efficiently and selectively.

**Structure of a Synapse**

A synapse consists of three key parts:

* **Presynaptic Neuron** – The neuron sending the signal, which contains vesicles filled with neurotransmitters.
* **Synaptic Cleft** – The **tiny gap** (usually 20-40 nanometers wide) between neurons where neurotransmitters diffuse.
* **Postsynaptic Neuron (or Effector)** – The receiving neuron (or muscle cell) that contains **specific receptors** for neurotransmitters.

**How Synaptic Transmission Works**

When an **action potential** reaches the axon terminal of the presynaptic neuron, it triggers the **opening of voltage-gated calcium (Ca²⁺) channels**. The sudden influx of calcium causes **synaptic vesicles** to fuse with the membrane, releasing neurotransmitters into the **synaptic cleft**. These neurotransmitters diffuse across the gap and bind to **receptors on the postsynaptic membrane**, either **exciting** the neuron (initiating another action potential) or **inhibiting** it (preventing a response). The signal is terminated when neurotransmitters are **broken down by enzymes** or **reabsorbed into the presynaptic cell** for reuse—a process called **reuptake**.

**Key Neurotransmitters in Invertebrates**

* **Acetylcholine (ACh)** – Involved in **muscle activation**, learning, and memory (**in arthropods, mollusks, annelids**).
* **Dopamine** – Regulates **movement and motivation** (**found in mollusks, arthropods**).
* **Serotonin** – Affects **mood, feeding, and sleep** (**in annelids, arthropods, mollusks**).
* **Octopamine** – Functions like **adrenaline**, increasing arousal and aggression (**in insects and crustaceans**).
* **GABA (Gamma-Aminobutyric Acid)** – **Inhibitory neurotransmitter** that slows nerve signals (**found in mollusks, arthropods**).

**Exploiting the Nervous System: Toxins, Venoms, and Neural Attacks**

Because the **nervous system is critical for movement, sensation, and survival**, many invertebrates have evolved **potent neurotoxins** to **immobilize prey or deter predators**. These toxins interfere with **neuronal signaling**, either by **blocking synaptic transmission, damaging cell membranes, or disrupting action potentials**.

**A. Neurotoxic Attacks: Different Strategies for Disrupting the Nervous System**

Neurotoxins in invertebrates can be categorized by their **mechanism of action**:

* **Synapse Disruptors** – Prevent neurotransmitter release, blocking communication between neurons.
* **Membrane Disruptors** – Physically damage neurons by creating holes in the cell membrane.
* **Action Potential Disruptors** – Prevent neurons from firing or cause them to overfire, leading to paralysis or convulsions.

**Synapse Disruptor: Cone Snail Venom (Mollusca: Conus spp.)**

* **Mechanism**: Cone snails inject **conotoxins**, which block **calcium channels** at the **synapse**, preventing neurons from releasing neurotransmitters. This causes **instant paralysis** in prey.
* **Effect**: Without neurotransmitter release, muscle cells cannot receive signals, leading to complete loss of movement.

**Membrane Disruptor: Box Jellyfish Venom (Cnidaria: Chironex fleckeri)**

* **Mechanism**: The venom contains **porins**, proteins that punch holes in nerve cell membranes.
* **Physiological Effect**: Once the cell membrane is perforated, **ions rapidly leak out**, disrupting the neuron’s ability to maintain electrical charge. This leads to **uncontrolled nerve firing, extreme pain, and cardiac arrest**.
* **Effect**: Victims experience **intense burning pain, muscle spasms, and heart failure** within minutes due to loss of electrical stability in nerve and heart cells.

**Action Potential Disruptor: Spider and Scorpion Venoms (Arthropoda: Araneae & Scorpiones)**

* **Mechanism**: Many spiders and scorpions **target sodium and potassium ion channels**, either **blocking nerve firing** or **forcing continuous firing**.
* **Example 1: Brazilian Wandering Spider (Phoneutria spp.)**
	+ Injects venom that **forces sodium channels to stay open**, causing **continuous nerve signaling**, leading to **convulsions, paralysis, and death**.
* **Example 2: Deathstalker Scorpion (Leiurus quinquestriatus)**
	+ Blocks **potassium channels**, preventing nerves from resetting after firing. This leads to **prolonged muscle contractions and respiratory failure**.

**Action Potential Blocker: Tetrodotoxin (TTX) (Produced by symbiotic bacteria in multiple invertebrates)**

* **Found in**: **Blue-ringed octopuses (Hapalochlaena spp.), certain marine worms, and some flatworms**.
* **Mechanism**: Blocks **sodium channels** in nerve cells, preventing neurons from firing.
* **Effect**: **Complete paralysis**—muscles become **incapable of contraction**, leading to **respiratory failure**.
* **Notable Fact**: Even in tiny amounts, **TTX is lethal to humans**, with no known antidote.

**Parasites and Neurological Manipulation**

(Some species **exploit the nervous system** not by killing, but by altering behavior.)

**A. Jewel Wasp and Zombie Cockroaches**

* **Mechanism**: Injects venom into the cockroach’s brain, blocking dopamine receptors, making the cockroach docile and compliant.
* **Effect**: The wasp leads the cockroach into a burrow, where it lays eggs inside its still-living body.

**B. Hairworms and Mind Control in Insects**

* **Mechanism**: Worms secrete amine neurotransmitters (neuromodulators) into the host's brain that affect their host's nervous system.
* **Effect**: Host is attracted to water and light, where they fall in and drown.  This allows the hairworms to complete their lifecycle in the water.

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