

13th EDITION

BODY STRUCTURES and FUNCTIONS

Ann Senisi Scott
Elizabeth Fong



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**Ann Senisi Scott
Elizabeth Fong**



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WCN: 02-300

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Library of Congress Control Number: 2015947522

ISBN: 978-1-305-51136-1

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PREFACE

Introduction

The thirteenth edition of *Body Structures and Functions* has been revised to reflect the many changes that are occurring in today's health science and medical fields. The multiskilled health practitioner (MSHP) of today must know the structure and function of each body system as well as the common diseases. All disease and disorder content is integrated within each chapter as appropriate.

This book and the accompanying teaching materials are designed to facilitate learning. Review the introductory section “How to Study Using *Body Structures and Functions*.”

Key Features

Key features retained in the Thirteenth Edition include the following:

- Phonetic pronunciations of key words are included in each chapter.
- The feature **One Body** outlines how each body system interacts with other body systems.
- The feature **Study Tools** directs learners to additional resources to enhance learning and assess mastery of the material.

Phonetic Pronunciations of Key Words

Phonetic pronunciations of key words are included in each chapter in parentheses following the key word. Pronounce the word by saying each syllable, placing more emphasis on the syllable in boldface capital letters. In the following example, the syllable **NAT** would receive more emphasis than the rest of the syllables would: anatomy (ah-**NAT**-oh-mee).

Most key word pronunciations contain only one syllable in boldface; however, some key words contain more than one. When a pronunciation contains more than one syllable in boldface, place *some* emphasis on the syllable in boldface *lowercase* letters and the *most* emphasis on the syllable in boldface *capital* letters. In the following example, the syllable *em* would receive some emphasis and the syllable *OL* would receive the most emphasis: embryology (**em**-bree-**OL**-oh-jee).

Major Changes to the Thirteenth Edition

- Chapter 1: Introduction to the Structural Units—includes new information on positive feedback.
- Chapter 2: Chemistry of Living Things—provides expanded information on water, and new information on dehydration synthesis and hydrolysis.

- Chapter 3: Cells—provides guidelines from the National Institutes of Health on stem cell research.
- Chapter 5: Integumentary System—includes new information on moles, and a change in treatment of first-degree burns.
- Chapter 6: Skeletal System—includes new information on stress fractures. Information on microfracture procedure is included in the Medical Highlights feature.
- Chapter 8: Central Nervous System—provides an expanded discussion on glial cells, astrocytes, oligodendrocytes, and Schwann cells, and additional information on Alzheimer’s disease.
- Chapter 10: Special Senses—provides additional information on general sensory receptors, and new information on hearing aids in the Medical Highlights feature. A new “Did You Know?” feature regarding eyes has been added.
- Chapter 11: Endocrine System—includes new information on pheochromocytoma and values for fasting blood sugar (FBS) and HbA1C.
- Chapter 14: Circulation and Blood Vessels—provides additional information on factors that influence blood pressure.
- Chapter 15: The Lymphatic and Immune Systems—includes updated schedules for immunizations for children 0 to 18 years old and catch-up immunizations. Information on Guillain-Barré syndrome and preexposure treatment for AIDS has been added.
- Chapter 16: Infection Control and Standard Precautions—provides information on the Ebola virus, whooping cough, and measles in the Medical Highlights feature.
- Chapter 17: Respiratory System—provides information on nitrogen and breathing, and safety precautions to be taken when someone is using oxygen.
- Chapter 18: Digestive System—provides a discussion on nerve cells in the stomach. Information on common symptoms of digestive disorders, including nausea and vomiting, has been added. New material on cleft lip and cleft palate and a new “Did You Know?” feature about butterflies in the stomach have also been added.
- Chapter 19: Nutrition—provides information on antioxidants in Medical Highlights, and new material on trans fat and weight loss surgery.
- Chapter 20: Urinary System—provides new material on overactive bladder.
- Chapter 21: Reproductive System—includes new information on the hormone relaxin, cervical cancer testing, and additional information on menorrhagia. In the Medical Highlights for Treatment for BPH, expanded information on types of treatment is provided.
- Chapter 22: Genetics and Genetically Linked Diseases—provides updated information on cystic fibrosis.

Medical Highlights

- Biotechnology and Nanotechnology (Chapter 1)
- Medical Imaging (Chapter 2)
- Stem Cells (Chapter 3)
- Tissue and Organ Transplant (Chapter 4)
- Hazards of the Sun (Chapter 5)
- RICE Treatment (Chapter 6)
- Surgical Joint Procedures (Chapter 6)
- Massage Therapy and Health (Chapter 7)
- Specialized Brain Cells: Mirror Neurons (Chapter 8)
- Headaches (Chapter 8)
- Parkinson’s Disease and Deep Brain Stimulation (Chapter 8)
- Types of Anesthesia (Chapter 9)
- Lasers (Chapter 10)
- Eye Surgery (Chapter 10)
- Hearing Aids (Chapter 10)
- Taste: Umami (Chapter 10)
- Hormone Imbalance: Mental Health (Chapter 11)
- Bone Marrow Transplant (Chapter 12)
- Diagnostic Tests for the Heart (Chapter 13)
- Pacemakers, Defibrillators, and Heart Pumps (Chapter 13)
- Mucosa-Associated Lymphoid Tissue (MALT) (Chapter 15)
- Changes Occurring in Infectious Diseases (Chapter 16)
- Sleep Apnea (Chapter 17)
- Pulmonary Function Tests (Chapter 17)

- Minimally Invasive Surgery: Laparoscopy (Chapter 18)
- Antioxidants (Chapter 19)
- Kidney Stone Removal (Chapter 20)
- Treatment for Benign Prostatic Hypertrophy and Prostate Cancer (Chapter 21)
- Human Papillomavirus Vaccine (Chapter 21)

Career Profiles

- Audiologists (Chapter 10)
- Cardiovascular Technologists and Technicians/EKG Technicians (Chapter 13)
- Certified Patient Care Technician (Chapter 15)
- Chiropractors (Chapter 7)
- Clinical Medical Laboratory Technicians and Clinical Medical Laboratory Technologists (Chapter 12)
- Dental Hygienists, Dental Assistants, and Dental Laboratory Technicians (Chapter 18)
- Dentists (Chapter 18)
- Dietitians and Nutritionists (Chapter 19)
- Doctor of Osteopathic Medicine (Chapter 6)
- Electroneurodiagnostic Technicians/EEG Technicians (Chapter 8)
- Emergency Medical Technicians and Paramedics (Chapter 13)
- Home Health Aides (Chapter 15)
- Licensed Practical Nurses (Chapter 14)
- Massage Therapists (Chapter 7)
- Medical Assistants (Chapter 21)
- Nursing Aides and Psychiatric Aides (Chapter 15)
- Optometrists and Dispensing Opticians (Chapter 10)
- Orthotists and Prosthetists (Chapter 6)
- Physical Therapists and Physical Therapist Assistants (Chapter 6)
- Physicians (Chapter 5)
- Radiologic Technologists (Chapter 2)
- Registered Nurses and Nurse Practitioners (Chapter 14)
- Respiratory Therapists (Chapter 17)
- Sports Medicine/Athletic Training (Chapter 7)

Student Workbook

The student workbook includes activities that focus on applied academics through a variety of practical application exercises, including multiple choice, fill in the blanks, matching, labeling, word puzzles, basic skill problems, application of theory to practice, and a Surf-the-Net feature.

Online Resources

Online resources are available to accompany this new textbook that includes slide presentations in PowerPoint and 3D animations.

How to Access the Online Resources

1. GO TO <http://www.CengageBrain.com>
2. REGISTER as a new user or LOG IN as an existing user if you already have an account with Cengage Learning or CengageBrain.com

About the Author

Ann Senisi Scott, RN, BS, MA, is the author of the thirteenth edition of *Body Structures and Functions*. Ann was previously the Coordinator of Health Occupations and Practical Nursing at Nassau Tech Board of Cooperative Education Services, Westbury, New York. As the Health Occupations Coordinator, she worked to establish a career ladder program from health care worker to practical nurse. Before becoming the administrator of these programs, she taught practical nursing for more than 12 years.

Acknowledgments

To complete this revision of the textbook, I have had the assistance of many people at Cengage Learning. I want to extend my thanks to all the personnel in the Health Sciences area. To Debra Myette-Flis: You have generated so much encouragement and enthusiasm as you guided me through this revision and other revisions—a very heartfelt thank you. Thanks to the reviewers who highlighted areas that needed additional information and corrections; your comments were invaluable. Thanks to Dr. Bryan Senisi, who assisted with some valuable insight into disease conditions.

Special thanks to Wayne Scott, my personal reviewer and mentor, and to my family cheering

section: Vincent, Margaret, Carolyn, Daniel, Michael, Kenneth, Leslie, Scotty, and their spouses.

To my grandchildren and future students: Have a love for learning because it will bring much knowledge and rewards as you journey through life.

To the health care professionals of tomorrow: Your knowledge will be an asset in the art of caring for the people entrusted to your care.

Reviewers

We are particularly grateful to the reviewers who continue to be a valuable resource in guiding this book as it evolves. Their insights, comments, suggestions, and attention to detail were very important in guiding the development of this textbook.

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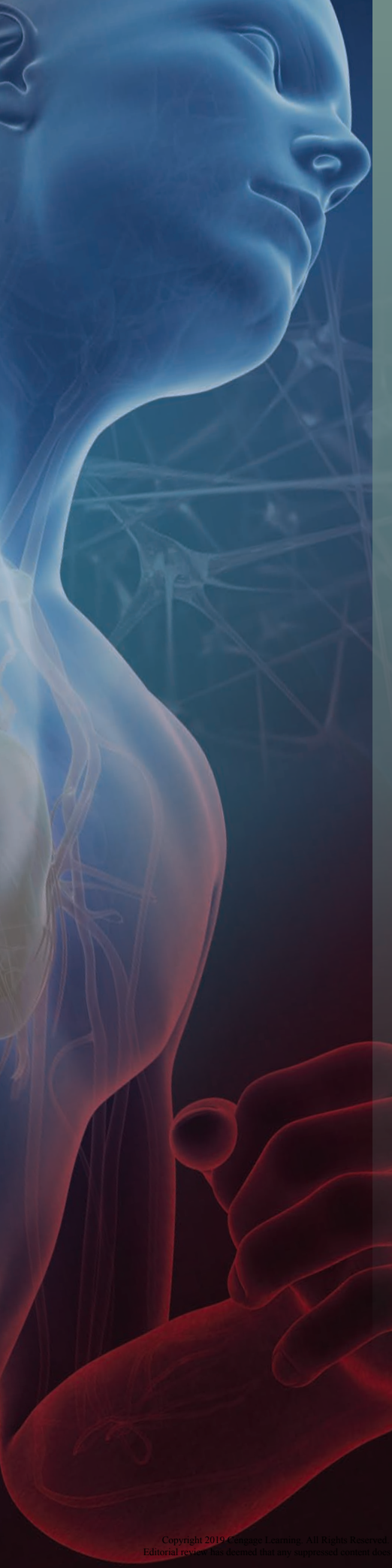
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We would like to acknowledge and include a special thank you for the keen eye and thoroughness of our technical reviewer:

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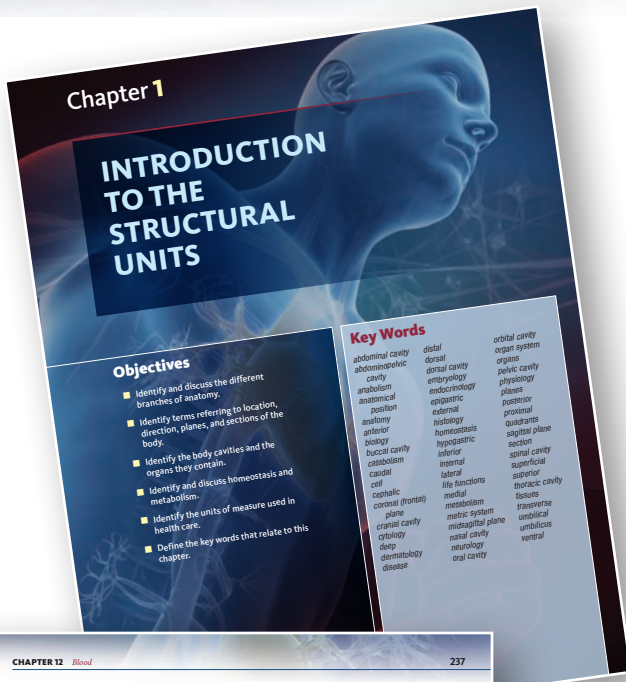


How to Study Using **BODY STRUCTURES AND FUNCTIONS**

Preview the text before attempting to study the material covered in the individual chapters. By reviewing each section of this textbook, you will better understand its organization and purpose. Reading comprehension and long-term memory levels improve dramatically when you take the time to review the text and discover how it can help you learn.

To get the most from this course, take an active role in your learning by integrating your senses to increase your retention. You may want to

- *Visually* highlight important material.
- *Read* critically—turn headings, subheadings, and sentences into questions.
- *Recite* important material aloud to stimulate your auditory memory.
- *Draw* your own illustrations of anatomy or function processes and check them for accuracy.
- *Answer* (in writing or verbally) the review questions at the end of the chapter.



Each time you encounter a new chapter, preview it first to understand its overall structure. Review the **Objectives** presented at the beginning of each chapter to easily identify the key facts *before* you read the chapter. These objectives are also useful to review *after* you have completed a chapter. After reading a chapter, test yourself to see whether you can answer each objective. If you cannot, you will know exactly which areas to study again. The **Key Words** are listed at the beginning of each chapter, are highlighted in **red** within the chapter, and are also defined in the glossary.

Read the **main headings, subheadings**, and first sentence of each paragraph—these elements serve as the outline for the whole chapter. Be careful not to overlook the **illustrations, photographs, and tables**, which can help you comprehend difficult material.

Did You Know? boxes feature fun, interesting, trivia-like facts to engage the learner.

Effects of Aging boxes are integrated within the chapters to highlight the changes that are associated with the body systems as we age.

Case Studies promote a real-world view of medical careers and encourage critical thinking.

CHAPTER 12 Blood

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Table 12-2 Changes in the Composition of Blood

ORGANS	BLOOD LOSSES	BLOOD GAINS
Digestive glands	Raw materials needed to make digestive juices and enzymes	Carbon dioxide
Kidneys	Water, urea, and mineral salts	Carbon dioxide
Liver	Excess glucose, amino acids, and worn-out red blood cells	Released glucose, urea, and plasma proteins
Lungs	Carbon dioxide and water	Oxygen
Muscles	Glucose and oxygen	Lactic acid and carbon dioxide
Small intestinal villi	Oxygen	End products of digestion (glucose and amino acids)

cells decreases or when the oxygen transported by the blood diminishes, an unidentified sensor in the kidney detects the change and the production of erythropoietin is increased. This substance is then transported through the plasma to the bone marrow, where it accelerates the production of red blood cells. Erythrocytes come from stem cells in the red bone marrow called hemocytoblasts. As the hemocytoblast matures into an erythrocyte, it loses its nucleus and cytoplasmic organelles. The hemocytoblast also becomes smaller, gains hemoglobin, develops a biconcave shape (see Figure 12-1), and enters the bloodstream. To aid in erythropoiesis, vitamin B12, folic acid, copper, cobalt, iron, and proteins are needed. Because erythrocytes are enucleated (contain no nucleus), they only live about 120 days. Destruction occurs as the cells age, rendering them more vulnerable to rupturing. They are broken down by the spleen and liver. Hemoglobin breaks down into globin and heme. Most of the iron content of heme is used to make new red blood cells; the balance of the heme group is degraded to bilirubin and is stored in the liver. The normal count of red blood cells ranges from 4.5 to 6.2 million/ μ l venous blood for men and 4.2 to 5.4 million/ μ l venous blood for women.

Did You Know?
The red blood cell is a traveler. It makes about 250,000 round-trips in the body before it heads to its destruction in the liver and spleen. The iron part of the hemoglobin cell gets to travel again because it gets recycled.

Hemoglobin

Erythrocytes contain a red pigment (coloring agent) called hemoglobin (hē-mōh-GLOB-in), which provides their characteristic color. Hemoglobin is made of a protein molecule called globin and an iron

compound called heme. A single blood cell contains several million molecules of hemoglobin. Hemoglobin is vital to the function of red blood cells, allowing them to transport oxygen to the tissues and some carbon dioxide away from the tissues. Normal hemoglobin count for men is 14 to 18 g, and for women 12 to 16 g per 100 mL.

Function
In the capillaries of the lung, erythrocytes pick up oxygen from the inspired air. The oxygen chemically combines with the hemoglobin, forming the compound oxyhemoglobin. The oxyhemoglobin-laden erythrocytes circulate to the capillaries of tissues. Here oxygen is released that is form as bicarbon the lungs to more oxyge heart and ve are acceptic (except for which gives the veins (e haminohem reddish-blu Carbo and someit odolous gas Carbon mox and binds a cule as oxye are deprives include hea scicnesses.) monoxide p carbon mox is also prese oil-fired spa well as plugg

CHAPTER 3 Cells

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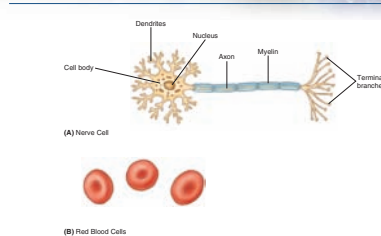


Figure 3-10 Specialized cells: nerve cells and red blood cells

The Effects of Aging on Cells

Aging is a phase of normal development. All cells experience changes with aging. They become larger and are less able to divide and multiply. Many cells lose their ability to function or they function abnormally. Organs have a reserve ability to function beyond the usual needs. After age 30, an average of 1% of this reserve is lost each year. The biggest changes occur in the heart, lungs, and kidneys. No one really knows how and why people change as they get older; there are many theories. Aging is a complex process that varies in how it affects different people and even different organs (National Institutes of Health).

Tumor

A tumor results when cell division does not occur in the usual pattern. If the pattern is interrupted by an abnormal and uncontrolled growth of cells, the result is a tumor (Figure 3-11). Tumors are also known as

neoplasms. Tumors can be divided into two groups: benign and malignant.

A benign tumor is composed of cells confined to the local area. Benign tumors are given other names depending on their type or location; for example, a wart or papilloma (pap-ih-LOH-mah) is a type of tumor of the epithelial tissue. Most benign tumors can be surgically removed. A malignant tumor is called cancer.

Cancer

Cancerous or malignant tumors continue to grow, crowding out healthy cells, interfering with body functions, and drawing nutrients away from the body tissues. These malignant tumors can spread to other parts of the body through a process called metastasis (meh-TAS-ih-sis).

Cancer is the second most common cause of death in the United States. (The number one cause of death is heart disease.) However, cancer deaths decreased by 22% from 1993–2011 (American Cancer Society). Improvements in cancer death rates reflect advances in cancer screening and new and improved treatments. Cancer rates have fallen in all four of the most common cancers: lung, colon, breast, and prostate. Colon cancer has declined by 4% because many people have precancerous lesions removed during a colonoscopy. Despite these improvements, a companion report found increases in some cancers during the past decade. These included cancers of the pancreas, liver, thyroid, kidney, and skin (melanoma).

Cancers are grouped into six major categories: carcinoma (kar-sih-NOH-mah), sarcoma

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Matching

Match each term in Column I with its correct description in Column II.

COLUMN I	COLUMN II
1. glucose	a. fluid within the cell
2. electrolyte	b. double sugar
3. intracellular	c. triglycerides
4. disaccharides	d. chromosomes
5. HCl	e. conducts an electrical charge in a solution
6. steroid	f. blood sugar
7. energy	g. positively or negatively charged particle of an atom
8. ion	h. ability to do work
9. DNA	i. cholesterol
10. fats	j. found in the stomach

Applying Theory to Practice

- Read the label on a loaf of bread and state why the bread can be advertised as having "no cholesterol!"
 - c. liver disease
 - d. pregnancy
- What diagnostic imaging device would be used for the following conditions?
 - Brain tumor
 - Cancer of the stomach
- Should DNA identification be required at birth? Have a panel discussion on the ethics of DNA testing as part of a preemployment physical.

Case Study

Patricia Savon is 34 years old. She has come to the clinic because of a general feeling of weakness and some difficulty walking. She also has had problems with her vision. When you bring Patricia to the examining room, she asks you to leave the door open because she is afraid of being shut inside. The physician does a physical examination on Patricia and orders some diagnostic tests. A possible diagnosis for Patricia is multiple sclerosis.

- The fear that Patricia experiences is known as _____.
- Understanding Patricia's fears, what type of nuclear imaging test will be ordered for her?
- Patricia wants to know how nuclear imaging works: she is afraid of radiation. Explain to her how imaging devices work.
- What additional instructions and information can you give Patricia regarding the test?
- Are there other imaging tests that could be ordered for Patricia?

CHAPTER 1 Introduction to the Structural Units

Weight is measured using grams instead of ounces and pounds.

1 gram (g) = 1 ounce
1 kilogram (kg) = 2.2 pounds
1000 g = 1 kg

In drug dosage, the most familiar unit used is the gram or milligram (mg).

500 mg = 0.5 g

Volume is measured using liters or milliliters instead of quarts, pints, ounces, teaspoons, and tablespoons.

1 liter (L) = 1.06 quarts (a liter is slightly larger than a quart)

1 L = 1000 milliliters (ml)

For liquid drug dosage, milliliters are used.

5 ml = 1 teaspoon
15 ml = 1 tablespoon
30 ml = 1 ounce

Medical Terminology

ana-	apart	-al	pertaining to
-tom	cutting	caudal	pertaining to the tail
-y	process of	cranial	pertaining to the skull
anatomy	process of cutting apart; study of body parts by dissection	cranial	pertaining to the skull
-ology	study of	distal	distant
bio	life	distal	pertaining to a distant part
biology	study of life	dorsal	back
physio	nature	dorsal	pertaining to the back
physiology	study of nature or natural function of body	distal	side
ante	in front of	lateral	pertaining to the side
anterior	in the front	lateral	middle
posterior	behind	medial	pertaining to the middle
posterior	in back of	medial	near
superior	above	proximal	pertaining to nearness or closeness
superior	above a part	proximal	belly, front side
inferior	below	ventral	pertaining to the belly or front side
inferior	below a part		

Medical Terminology boxes introduce you to common medical prefixes and suffixes and how they work to form medical terms.

Career Profiles provide descriptions of many health professions in today's dynamic health and medical environment. These profiles describe the role of each professional, and may even provide you with insight into possible future career paths.

Medical Highlights provide information on technology, innovations, discoveries, and bioethical issues in research and medicine. These topics are based on current information obtained from research on various medical websites.

Review Questions will help you measure whether you have mastered the material you have covered. Questions in a variety of formats are presented to reinforce important information within each chapter. Also integrated here and in the workbook are applied academic activities for math, spelling, communication, and legal-ethical issues.

CHAPTER 14 Circulation and Blood Vessels

14-1

Career Profile

Registered Nurse and Nurse Practitioner

Registered nurses (RNs) provide for the physical, mental, and emotional needs of their patients. They observe, assess, and record symptoms, reactions, and progress; they also assist physicians during treatments and examinations, administer medications, and assist in convalescence and rehabilitation. RNs develop nursing care plans, instruct patients and their families in proper care, and help individuals and groups improve and maintain their health.

Registered nurses work in hospitals, the home, offices, nursing homes, public health services, and industries. In all states, students must graduate from an accredited school of nursing and pass a national licensing examination to become an RN. There are three major educational paths to nursing: associate degree in nursing (ADN) programs take 2 years, bachelor of science in nursing (BSN) degree programs take 4 years, and diploma programs given in hospitals last 2 to 3 years.

The employment outlook is expected to be above average in the coming years. The job outlook is best for the nurse with a BSN.

A nurse practitioner or nurse clinician is an RN with a master's degree and clinical experience in a particular branch of nursing. The nurse practitioner has acquired expert knowledge in a specific medical specialty. Nurse practitioners are employed by physicians in private practice or clinics, or they sometimes practice independently, especially in rural areas.

of blood then causes distention and inelasticity of the vein walls. This condition may develop due to hereditary weakness or as a result of prolonged periods of standing. Age and pregnancy are other factors responsible for varicose veins. Treatment includes avoiding excess standing, exercise, elevating the legs when sleeping, and wearing support hose. Women need to avoid high heels and tight clothing, especially around the waist. A procedure known as sclerotherapy (skler-oh-THAIR-oh-pee) may be done, in which a sclerosing solution is injected into the vein. The solution causes the vein to scar and close. Other options include laser therapy or vein stripping.

Hemorrhoids (HEM-oh-royds) are varicose veins in the walls of the lower rectum and the tissues around the anus. Conservative treatment for hemorrhoids includes sitz baths (warm baths for buttocks) and over-the-counter topical ointments. In more severe cases, rubber band ligation or hemorrhoidectomy may be done.

Cerebral hemorrhage (SER-oh-bral HEM-eh-rij) refers to bleeding from blood vessels within the brain. It can be caused by arteriosclerosis, disease, or injury such as a blow to the head.

Peripheral vascular disease (PVD) (pay-EE-er-ah) is caused by blockage of the arteries, usually in the legs. Symptoms are pain or cramping in the legs or buttocks while walking. Such cramping subsides when the

person stands still. This is called *intermittent claudication* (klaw-dih-KAY-shun). As the condition worsens, symptoms of rest, numbness, and leg pain become more frequent and severe. Treatment includes stopping smoking, exercising, and taking medications to lower cholesterol, blood pressure, and blood sugar. Hypertension is frequently called usually no is classified as artery. About 1 means high The remain conditions or endocrine heart attack cover that t physical. Th including

- Norm
- Prehy
- Stage I
- Stage and ab

CHAPTER 1 Introduction to the Structural Units

8

Metric System

To understand the language used in *Body Structures and Functions*, you must be familiar with the metric system. The metric community measures length, weight, and volume using this system. The metric system is a decimal system based on the power of 10. Just as there are 100 cents in a dollar, there are 100 centimeters in a meter (see Appendix A).

Some of the prefixes used in the metric system are

centi = 1/100 (one-one-hundredth)
milli = 1/1000 (one-one-thousandth)
micro = 1/1,000,000 (one-one-millionth)

Length is measured using meters instead of inches and feet.

1 centimeter (cm) = 0.4 inch
2.5 cm = 1 inch

1-1

Medical Highlights

BIOTECHNOLOGY AND NANOTECHNOLOGY

In the future we will see advances in the treatment and diagnosis of disease using techniques such as *biotechnology* and *nanotechnology*.

Biotechnology refers to any technological application that uses biological systems, living organisms, or derivatives thereof to make or modify products or processes for specific uses. One field of biotechnology, genetic engineering, has introduced techniques such as gene therapy, recombinant DNA technology, and the polymerase chain reaction. These techniques make use of genes and DNA molecules to diagnose disease and insert new and healthy genes into the body to replace damaged cells. Scientists are trying to develop biotechnological drugs to treat diseases such as hepatitis, cancer, and heart disease.

Nanotechnology is a science that manipulates atoms and molecules to form new materials. Nanotechnology deals with materials a billion times smaller than a soccer ball. We cannot even visualize such minute dimensions. At this size, matter exhibits unusual properties that can be engineered to perform tasks not otherwise possible.

At present the signs of disease first appear at a cellular level. To date, instruments used within medicine have only been able to detect abnormalities at the macro level. Being able to diagnose and treat disease at the molecular level will enable physicians to reach the root origins of disease and assist—or even reverse—the healing process.

The long-term goals of the National Institutes of Health (NIH) are to be able to use nanoparticles to seek out cancer cells before tumors grow and to remove and/or replace “broken” parts of cells or cell mechanisms with miniature, molecular-sized biological “machines” and use these “machines” as pumps or robots to deliver medicines when and where needed in the body. Pharmaceutical products are reformulated with nano-sized particles to improve their absorption.

CHAPTER 1 Introduction to the Structural Units

10

Review Questions

Select the letter of the choice that best completes the statement.

- The study of the size and shape of the heart is called
 - physiology.
 - anatomy.
 - histology.
 - embryology.
- Physiology is the study of
 - the size of the cell.
 - the shape of the kidney.
 - the function of the lungs.
 - the size and shape of the liver.
- The anatomical position is described as
 - body erect, arms at the side, palms forward.
 - body flat, arms at the side, palms forward.
 - body erect, arms at the side, palms backward.
 - body flat, arms at the side, palms backward.
- A plane that divides the body into right and left parts is a
 - transverse plane.
 - coronal plane.
 - sagittal plane.
 - frontal plane.
- If a person is complaining of pain that may indicate appendicitis, the pain would be located in the
 - left lower quadrant.
 - right lower quadrant.
 - right upper quadrant.
 - left upper quadrant.
- The heart is described as superior to the diaphragm because it is
 - in back of the diaphragm.
 - in front of the diaphragm.
 - above the diaphragm.
 - below the diaphragm.
- The brain and the spinal cord are located in the
 - ventral cavity.
 - spinal cavity.
 - cranial cavity.
 - dorsal cavity.
- The epigastric region of the abdominal area is located
 - just above the sternum.
 - in the umbilical area.
 - just below the sternum.
 - in the pelvic area.
- Striving to keep the body warm is an example of
 - anabolism.
 - catabolism.
 - metabolism.
 - homeostasis.
- The formation and release of hormones from a cell or structure is called
 - digestion.
 - excretion.
 - synthesis.
 - secretion.

Fill in the Blanks

- The standard used for measurement in science is the _____ system.
- Danny, age 6, fell off his skateboard and had a 1.5-inch abrasion on his left arm. This is the same as _____ centimeters.
- Two teaspoons of cough medicine equal _____ milliliters of cough medicine.
- The physician orders 2 grams of penicillin to be divided into 4 doses over 24 hours. This means the average single dose will be _____ milligrams.
- A kilogram is equal to _____ pounds.

CHAPTER 2 Chemistry of Living Things 27

Lab Activity

Acid or Base

Objective: To identify the difference between an acidic (containing an acid), a basic (containing a base), and a neutral substance using litmus paper and pH-indicator scale paper.

Materials needed: paper cups, red or blue litmus paper, pH-indicator scale paper, tap water, vinegar, liquid soap, tomato juice, nail polish remover, baking soda solution, milk, lemon juice, a list of the solutions.

Step 1: Place the solutions into separate paper cups and label the contents.

Step 2: Using litmus paper, indicate if the solution is an acid or a base and record your results on the list.

Step 3: Using pH-indicator scale paper, mark the pH of each solution.

Step 4: Which solution is the strongest acid?

Step 5: What is the pH of water?

2-2

Lab Activity

Effects of Antacid on an Acidic Stomach

Objective: To determine the effectiveness of various antacid preparations or household remedies on an acidic stomach, the stomach under normal conditions has a pH of about 2.

Materials needed: measuring cup, vinegar, water, paper cups, Tums, Pepto-Bismol, Pepcid AC, Alka-Seltzer, baking soda solution, pH-indicator paper, pencil, paper on which to record your results.

Step 1: Mix 1 oz of vinegar with 8 oz of water to make a solution that represents an acidic stomach.

Step 2: Use pH-indicator paper to test the pH of the acidic stomach preparation. Record your result.

Step 3: Place approximately 1.5 oz of the acidic stomach solution into each of five different paper cups.

Step 4: Add one type of antacid preparation or 1 tablespoon of the baking soda solution to each of the acidic stomach solutions.

Step 5: After the tablets and baking soda solutions have dissolved, test each of the solutions with pH-indicator paper to measure any changes in the pH of the solution. Record your results.

Step 6: Did the antacid preparation raise the pH of the acidic stomach solution?

Step 7: Which preparation was most effective as an antacid?

Step 8: Obtain the prices of the various antacids. Which preparation is most cost-effective (least expensive to produce the desired result)?

Step 9: Compare your results for steps 7, 8, and 9.

The body of a plant or animal seems to be a single entity, but when any portion is examined under a microscope it is found to be made up of many small, discrete parts. These tiny parts, or units, are called cells. (Note: These units were first discovered in the 1600s by Robert Hooke. When examining a piece of cork under a crude microscope, the units reminded him of a monk's room, which was called a cell.) All living things—whether plant or animal, unicellular or multicellular, large or small—are composed of cells. A cell is a microscopic in size. Our bodies are made up of trillions of cells that live monthly for a few weeks or months, die, and are replaced by new cells. Even the bone cells of our skeleton are replaced. The cell is the basic unit of structure and function of all living things.

(unicellular) or many cells (multicellular). Figure 3-1 shows the structure of a typical animal cell.

Did You Know?
Fifty thousand cells in your body will die and be replaced with new cells while you read this sentence.

Cell/Plasma Membrane

Every cell is surrounded by a cell membrane, sometimes called a plasma membrane. The membrane separates the cell from its external environment and from the neighboring cells. It also regulates the passage or transport of certain molecules into and out of the cell, while preventing the passage of others. This is why the cell membrane is often called a selective semipermeable membrane. The cell membrane is composed of a double phospholipid layer, with proteins embedded in the layer. The phospholipid looks like a balloon with tails. The round balloonlike part is hydrophilic (attracts water) and the double tails are hydrophobic (repels water). This arrangement allows for the easy passage of water molecules through the cell membrane by osmosis. The proteins embedded in the double phospholipid layer allow for the passage of molecules and ions across the cell membrane (Figure 3-2).

Nucleus

The nucleus inside the nucleus of a cell is called nucleoplasm (NOO-klee-oh-plazm), and outside the nucleus it is called cytoplasm (SIGH-toh-plazm).

Because cells are microscopic, a special unit of measurement is used to determine their size. This is the micrometer (μm), or micron (μ). It is used to describe both the size of cells and their cellular components. To see or study a cell in fine detail, an electron microscope must be used.

To better understand the structure of a cell, let us compare a living entity—such as a human being—to a house. The many individual cells of this living organism are comparable to the many rooms of a house. Just as each room is bounded by four walls, a floor, and a ceiling, a cell is bounded by a specialized cell membrane with many openings. Cells, like rooms, come in a variety of shapes and sizes. Every kind of room or cell has its own unique function. A house can be made up of a single room or many. In much the same fashion, a living thing can be made up of only one cell

or a cytoskeleton. The nucleus is the internal framework of a cell. It consists of microtubules, intermediate filaments, and microfilaments. The filaments provide support for the cells; the microtubules are thought to aid in movement of substances through cytoplasm.

Cilia and Flagella
Cilia and flagella are protrusions from the cell membrane. Cilia have short hairlike protrusions, whereas flagella have a singular taillike protrusion. They are composed of fibrous protein protruding from the cell and beat or vibrate. Cilia move materials across the surface of a cell. An example is the respiratory tract cells, which move the mucous-dust package from the respiratory tree to the throat. The sperm cell of the male has a flagellum that propels the cell to reach the egg in the upper part of the fallopian tube of the uterus of the female.

Cellular Metabolism

For cells to maintain their structure and function, chemical reactions must occur inside the cell. These chemical reactions require energy, most commonly from a molecule called ATP. ATP is created from the

34

decomposition of organic molecules from the carbohydrates, proteins, and fats we eat. Calories released from the decomposition of food are used to synthesize ATP. ATP is then available to be used for maintenance of cellular structure and function.

Cell Division

Cells divide for two purposes: growth or maintenance of cells in the human body (mitosis) and reproduction (meiosis). In mitosis each cell carries a complete set of chromosomes (46); however, in meiosis each cell carries only half of the chromosomes (23).

Meiosis

Meiosis is the process of cell division of the sex cell or gamete. During meiosis, the ovum from the female and the spermatozoa from the male reduce their respective chromosomes by half, from 46 to 23. When fertilization (the union of the ovum and the spermatozoa) occurs, the two sex cells combine to form a single cell called the zygote, with the full set of 46 chromosomes (23 from each parent) (Figure 3-3).

Media Link

View the Meiosis animation on the Online Resources.

Mitosis

Cell division is comprised of two distinct processes: the first stage is the division of the nucleus and the second stage is the division of the cytoplasm. Mitosis essentially is an orderly series of steps by which the DNA in the nucleus of the cell is equally distributed to two daughter, or identical, nuclei. During the process, the nuclear material is distributed to each of the two new nuclei. This is followed by the division of the cytoplasm into two approximately equal parts through the formation of a new membrane between the two nuclei.

All cells do not reproduce at the same rate. Blood-forming cells in the bone marrow, cells of the skin, and cells of the intestinal tract reproduce continuously. Muscle cells only reproduce every few years.

Mitosis in a Typical Animal Cell
Mitosis is a smooth, continuous process. For ease and convenience of study, however, five stages, or phases, have been identified by the cell biologist. These five phases are discussed subsequently with accompanying

CHAPTER 3 Cells

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Lab Activities incorporate an element of interactivity to the content, further enhancing comprehension.

Phonetic pronunciations of key words in each chapter are in parentheses following the key word. Pronounce the word by saying each syllable, placing more emphasis on the syllable in boldface capital letters.

Media Links direct you to Online Resources that include PowerPoint presentations and 3D animations.

Study Tools alert you to additional resources to help you understand the material.

CHAPTER 2 Chemistry of Living Things 25

Study Tools

Workbook

Online Resources

Activities for Chapter 2

PowerPoint presentations

Review Questions

Select the letter of the choice that best completes the statement.

- A substance that has weight and occupies space is called
 - kinetic energy.
 - a catalyst.
 - matter.
 - potential energy.
- Walking is an example of
 - a catalyst.
 - kinetic energy.
 - matter.
 - potential energy.
- Water is classified as a(n)
 - atom.
 - element.
 - mineral.
 - compound.
- Atoms of a specific element that have the same number of protons but a different number of
 - isotopes.
 - DNA.
 - RNA.
 - compounds.
- Sugar stored in the liver and muscle cells for energy is called
 - glucose.
 - glycogen.
 - fructose.
 - ribose.
- A chemical reaction in the cell is affected by
 - enzymes.
 - organic compounds.
 - nucleic acids.
 - energy.
- Fluid found inside the cell is called
 - extracellular.
 - interstitial.
 - intracellular.
 - intercellular.
- The compound with a pH of 9 is alkaline and is
 - baking soda.
 - ammonia.
 - bleach.
 - another acid.
- When proper amounts of an acid and base are combined, the products formed are salt and
 - gas.
 - water.
 - another base.
 - another acid.
- The name given to the atomic particle found
 - proton.
 - neutron.
 - electron.
 - ion.



PROLOGUE

The History of Anatomical Science and Scientists

Much of the early study of gross anatomy and physiology comes from Aristotle, a Greek philosopher. Aristotle believed that every organ has a specific function and that function is based on the organ's structure. Most of Aristotle's ideas were based on the dissection of plants and animals. He never dissected a human body.

In the third century BC, Herophilus founded the first school of anatomy and encouraged the dissection of the human body. He is credited with demonstrating that the brain is the center of the nervous system. It was a Greek physician, Galen, however, who is credited with the creation of the first standard medical text expanding on Aristotle's ideas. Galen was the first to discover many muscles and the first to find the value in monitoring an individual's pulse. Galen never performed human dissections and many of his theories were later proven wrong.

The first medical schools were founded in the Middle Ages; however, instructors at this time were hesitant to question the theories and beliefs founded by the early Greeks such as Aristotle and Galen. As a result, very few ideas or discoveries were made in the medical field in the Middle Ages.

During the Renaissance, however, interest in anatomy was renewed due in part to the work of artist Leonardo da Vinci, who studied the form and function of the human body. It was during this period in history that the first systematic study of the structure of the human body was made. Many of these early scientists were hindered in their pursuit of knowledge of the human body because it was believed by many that human dissections were immoral and illegal. For example, Andreas Vesalius, a founder of modern anatomy, was sentenced to death because of his anatomical dissections of humans.

In the seventeenth century, the invention of the microscope aided in new anatomical discoveries and research. Scientists could now see structures that were invisible to the naked eye. Robert Hooke's investigation of cork under the microscope was the foundation of the theory that the cell is the basic unit of life. This theory was later proved and expanded on by other scientists in the eighteenth century as technological advances continued to improve.

Advances in technology have continued into today and new anatomical and physiological discoveries are still being made. With the mapping of the human genome, completed in 2003, the complete genetic code has been documented. It is hoped that this knowledge will enable discoveries into disease processes and the development of cures for many of the diseases that continue to plague our society.

The use of new types of medical imaging, such as computerized scanning and digitalized photography, has helped researchers make new discoveries about the body.

Use key words to search the Internet for new discoveries related to a particular body system and the scientists who made those discoveries.

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STRUCTURAL UNITS

Objectives

- Identify and discuss the different branches of anatomy.
- Identify terms referring to location, direction, planes, and sections of the body.
- Identify the body cavities and the organs they contain.
- Identify and discuss homeostasis and metabolism.
- Identify the units of measure used in health care.
- Define the key words that relate to this chapter.

Key Words

<i>abdominal cavity</i>	<i>distal</i>	<i>orbital cavity</i>
<i>abdominopelvic cavity</i>	<i>dorsal</i>	<i>organ system</i>
<i>anabolism</i>	<i>dorsal cavity</i>	<i>organs</i>
<i>anatomical position</i>	<i>embryology</i>	<i>pelvic cavity</i>
<i>anatomy</i>	<i>endocrinology</i>	<i>physiology</i>
<i>anterior</i>	<i>epigastric</i>	<i>planes</i>
<i>biology</i>	<i>external</i>	<i>posterior</i>
<i>buccal cavity</i>	<i>histology</i>	<i>proximal</i>
<i>catabolism</i>	<i>homeostasis</i>	<i>quadrants</i>
<i>caudal</i>	<i>hypogastric</i>	<i>sagittal plane</i>
<i>cell</i>	<i>inferior</i>	<i>section</i>
<i>cephalic</i>	<i>internal</i>	<i>spinal cavity</i>
<i>coronal (frontal) plane</i>	<i>lateral</i>	<i>superficial</i>
<i>cranial cavity</i>	<i>life functions</i>	<i>superior</i>
<i>cytology</i>	<i>medial</i>	<i>thoracic cavity</i>
<i>deep</i>	<i>metabolism</i>	<i>tissues</i>
<i>dermatology</i>	<i>metric system</i>	<i>transverse</i>
<i>disease</i>	<i>midsagittal plane</i>	<i>umbilical</i>
	<i>nasal cavity</i>	<i>umbilicus</i>
	<i>neurology</i>	<i>ventral</i>
	<i>oral cavity</i>	

Anatomy and Physiology

Anatomy and physiology are branches of a much larger science called **biology** (bye-OL-oh-jee). Biology is the study of all forms of life. Biology studies microscopic one-celled organisms, multicelled organisms, plants, animals, and humans.

Anatomy (ah-NAT-oh-mee) studies the shape and structure of an organism's body and the relationship of one body part to another. The word *anatomy* comes from the Greek *ana*, meaning “apart,” and *temuein*, “to cut”; thus, the acquisition of knowledge on human anatomy comes basically from dissection. However, one cannot fully appreciate and understand anatomy without the study of its sister science, **physiology** (fiz-ee-OL-oh-jee). Physiology studies the function of each body part and how the functions of the various body parts coordinate to form a complete living organism. Any abnormal change in a structure or function that produces symptoms is considered a **disease** (diz-EASE).

Branches of Anatomy

Anatomy is subdivided into many branches based on the investigative techniques used, the type of knowledge desired, or the parts of the body under study.

- 1. Gross anatomy.** Gross anatomy is the study of large and easily observable structures on an organism. This is done through dissection and visible inspection with the naked eye. In gross anatomy, the different body parts and regions are studied with regard to their general shape, external features, and main divisions.
- 2. Microscopic anatomy.** Microscopic anatomy refers to the use of microscopes to enable one to see the minute details of organ parts. Ultrawave and electron microscopes provide greater magnification and resolution than optical microscopes do. Microscopic anatomy is subdivided into two branches. One branch is **cytology** (sigh-TOL-oh-jee), which is the study of the structure, function, and development of cells that comprise the different body parts. The other subdivision is **histology** (hiss-TOL-oh-jee), which studies the tissues and organs that make up the entire body of an organism.
- 3. Developmental anatomy.** Developmental anatomy studies the growth and development of an organism during its lifetime. More specifically, **embryology** (em-bree-OL-oh-jee) studies the formation of an organism from fertilized egg to birth.

- 4. Comparative anatomy.** Humans are some of the many animals found in the animal kingdom. The different body parts and organs of humans can be studied with regard to similarities with and differences from others in the animal kingdom.
- 5. Systematic anatomy.** Systematic anatomy is the study of the structure of various organs or parts that comprise a particular organ system. Depending on the particular organ system under study, a specific term is applied; for example
 - a. Dermatology** (der-mah-TOL-oh-jee)—study of the integumentary system (skin, hair, and nails)
 - b. Endocrinology** (en-doh-krin-OL-oh-jee)—study of the endocrine or hormonal system
 - c. Neurology** (new-ROL-oh-jee)—study of the nervous system

Anatomical Terminology

In the study of anatomy and physiology, special words are used to describe the specific location of a structure or organ, or the relative position or direction of one body part to another. The initial reference point used is the anatomical position. In the **anatomical position**, a human being is standing erect, with face forward, arms at the side, and palms forward (*Figure 1-1*).

Terms Referring to Location or Position and Direction

See *Figure 1-1* and *Figure 1-2*.

- **Anterior** or **ventral** means “front” or “in front of.” For example, the knees are located on the anterior surface of the human body. A ventral hernia may protrude from the front or belly of the abdomen.
- **Posterior** or **dorsal** means “back” or “in back of.” For example, human shoulder blades are found on the posterior surface of the body.
- **Cephalic** (seh-FAL-ick) and **caudal** (KAWD-al) refer to direction: Cephalic means “skull” or “head end” of the body; caudal means “tail end.” For example, a blow to the skull may increase cranial pressure and cause headaches. Caudal anesthesia is injected in the lower spine.
- **Superior** means “upper” or “above another” and **inferior** refers to “lower” or “below another.” For

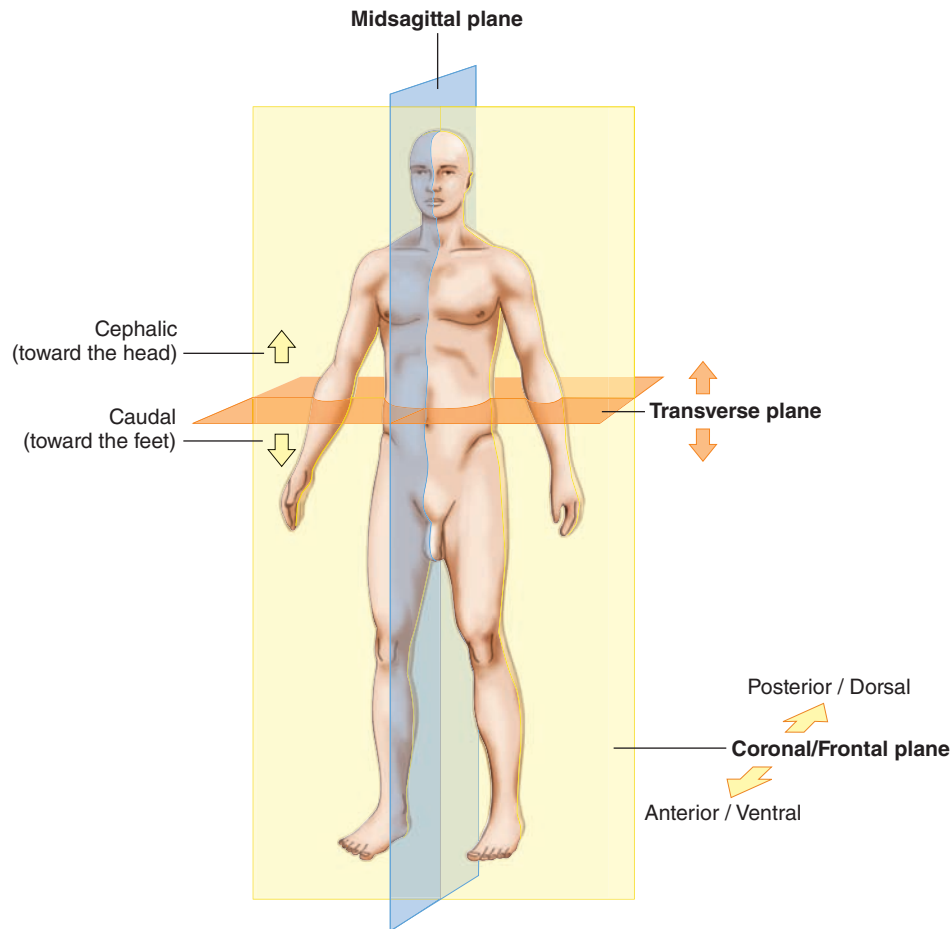


Figure 1-1 Body directions: *Cephalic* refers to the skull or head end of the body, and *caudal* refers to the tail end. *Anterior* (or *ventral*) means “front” or “in front of.” *Posterior* (or *dorsal*) means “back” or “in back of.”

example, the heart and lungs are situated superior to the diaphragm, while the intestines are inferior to the diaphragm.

- **Medial** signifies “toward the midline or median plane of the body,” while **lateral** means “away” or “toward the side of the body.” For example, the nose is medial to the eyes and the ears are lateral to the nose.
- **Proximal** means “toward the point of attachment to the body” or “toward the trunk of the body”; **distal** means “away from the point of attachment or origin” or “farthest from the trunk.” For example, the wrist is proximal to the hand; the elbow is distal to the shoulder. *Note:* these two words are used primarily to describe the appendages or extremities.
- **Superficial** or **external** and **deep** or **internal**—superficial implies “on or near the surface of the body.” For example, a superficial wound

involves an injury to the outer skin. A deep injury involves damage to an internal organ such as the stomach. The terms *external* and *internal* are specifically used to refer to body cavities and hollow organs.

Terms Referring to Body Planes and Sections

Planes are imaginary anatomical dividing lines that are useful in separating body structures (*Figure 1-3*). A **section** is a cut made through the body in the direction of a certain plane.

The **sagittal plane** (SAJ-ih-tal) divides the body into right and left parts. If the plane started in the middle of the skull and proceeded down, bisecting the sternum and the vertebral column, the body would be divided equally into right and left halves. This would be known as the **midsagittal plane**.

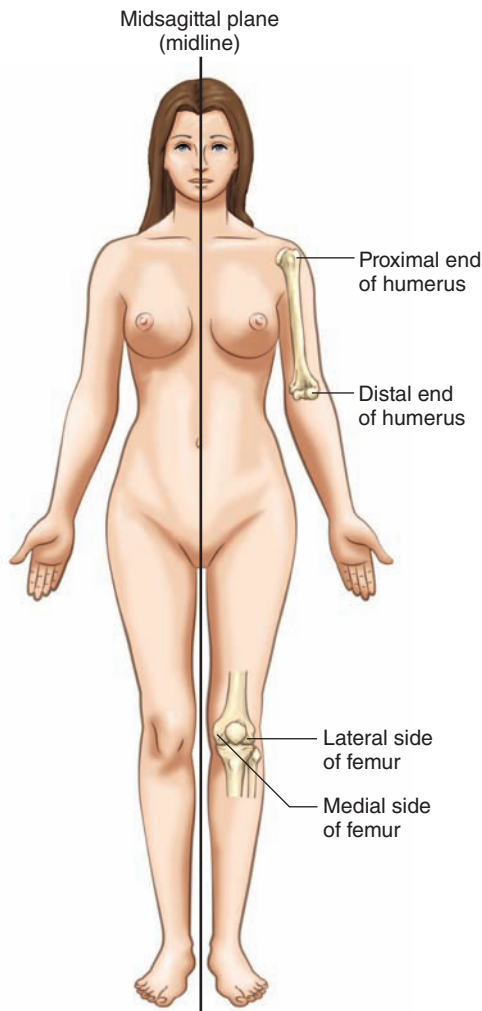


Figure 1-2 *Body directions: Proximal means “toward the point of attachment to the body” or “toward the trunk of the body.” Distal means “away from the point of attachment or origin” or “farthest from the trunk.” Medial means “toward the midline or median plane of the body,” and lateral means “away or toward the side of the body.”*

A **coronal (frontal) plane** is a vertical cut at right angles to the sagittal plane, dividing the body into anterior and posterior portions. The term *coronal* comes from the coronal suture, which runs perpendicular (at a right angle) to the sagittal suture. A **transverse** or cross section is a horizontal cut that divides the body into upper and lower portions.

Media Link

View the **Body Planes** animation on the Online Resources.

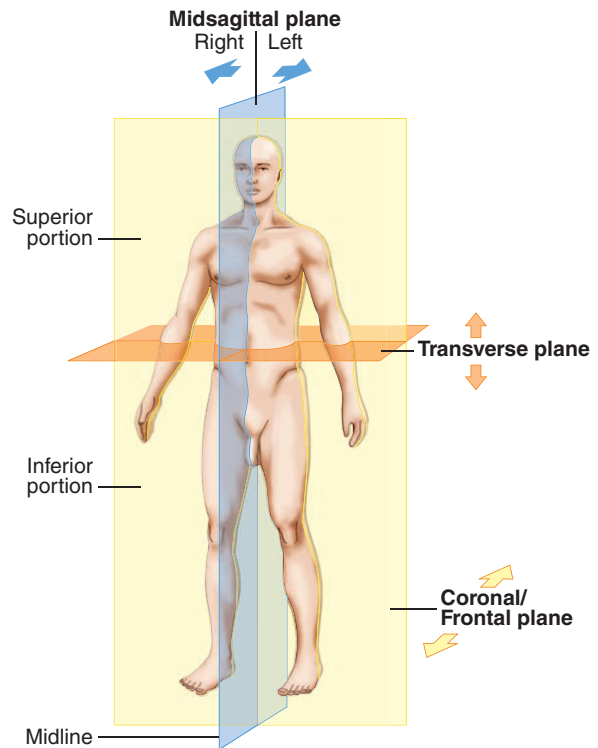


Figure 1-3 *Body planes: The midsagittal plane divides the body equally into right and left halves. The transverse plane divides the body into upper and lower portions. The coronal (or frontal) plane divides the body into anterior and posterior portions.*

Terms Referring to Cavities of the Body

The organs that comprise most of the body systems are located in four major cavities: cranial, spinal, thoracic, and abdominopelvic (*Figure 1-4*). The cranial and spinal cavities are within a larger region known as the posterior (dorsal) cavity. The thoracic and abdominopelvic cavities are found in the anterior (ventral) cavity.

The **dorsal cavity** contains the brain and spinal cord: the brain is in the **cranial cavity** and the spinal cord is in the **spinal cavity** (*Figure 1-4*). The diaphragm divides the ventral cavity into two parts: the upper thoracic and lower abdominopelvic cavities.

The central area of the **thoracic cavity** (tho-RASS-ik) is called the mediastinum. It lies between the lungs and extends from the sternum (breastbone) to the vertebrae of the back. The esophagus, bronchi, lungs, trachea, thymus gland, and heart are located in the thoracic cavity. The heart itself is contained within a smaller cavity called the pericardial cavity.

The thoracic cavity is further subdivided into two pleural cavities. The left lung is in the left cavity; the right lung is in the right cavity. Each lung is covered with a thin membrane called the pleura.

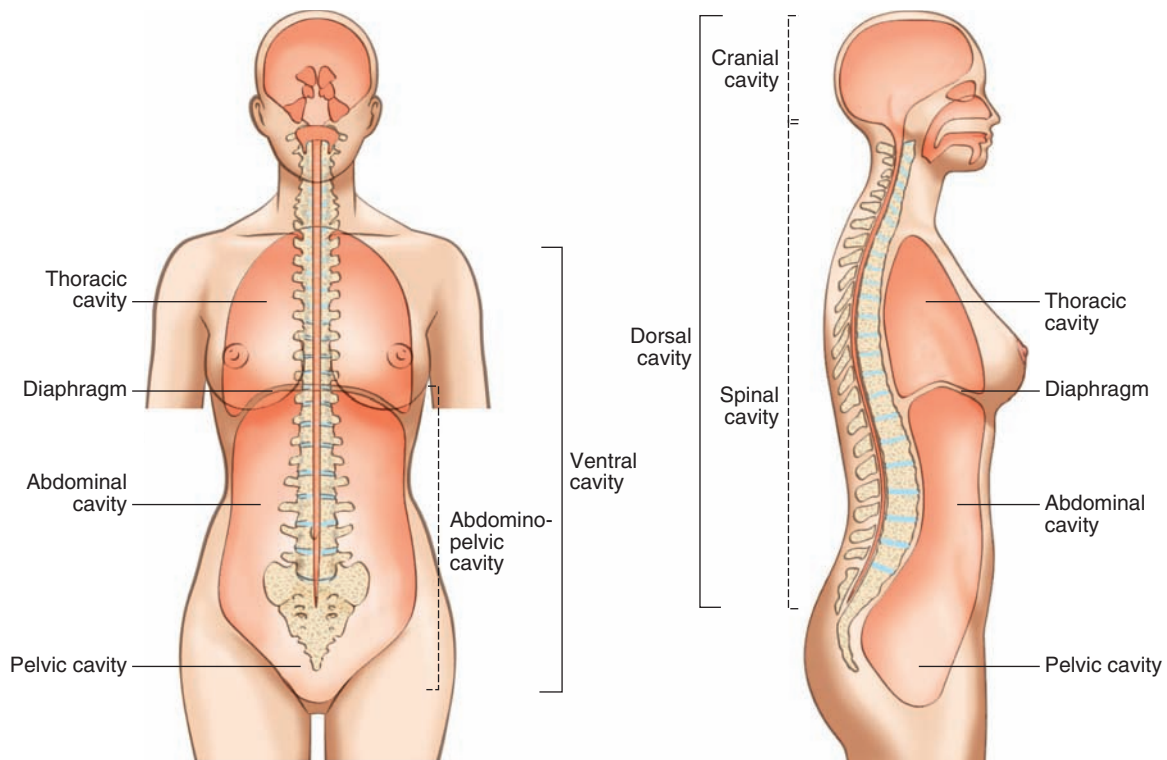


Figure 1-4 The major body cavities

The **abdominopelvic cavity** (ab-dom-ih-noh-**PEL**-vick) is actually one large cavity with no separation between the abdomen and pelvis. To avoid confusion, this cavity is usually referred to separately as the abdominal cavity and the pelvic cavity. The **abdominal cavity** contains the stomach, liver, gallbladder, pancreas, spleen, small intestine, appendix, and part of the large intestine. The kidneys are close to but behind the abdominal cavity. The urinary bladder, reproductive organs, rectum, and remainder of the large intestine are in the **pelvic cavity**.

Terms Referring to Regions in the Abdominopelvic Cavity

To locate the abdominal and pelvic organs more easily, the abdominopelvic cavity is divided into nine regions (Figure 1-5).

The nine regions are located in the upper, middle, and lower parts of the abdomen:

- The upper or **epigastric** (ep-ih-**GAS**-trick) region is located just below the sternum (breast-bone). The right and left **hypochondriac** (**high**-poh-**KON**-dree-ack) regions are located below the ribs.

- The middle or **umbilical** area is located around the navel or **umbilicus** (um-**BILL**-ih-kus), and the right and left lumbar regions extend from anterior to posterior. (A person will complain of back pain or lumbar pain.)
- The lower or **hypogastric** (**high**-poh-**GAS**-trick) region may also be referred to as the pubic area; the left and right iliac may also be called the left and right inguinal areas.

Smaller Cavities

In addition to the cranial cavity, the skull contains several smaller cavities. The eyes, eyeball muscles, optic nerves, and lacrimal (tear) ducts are within the **orbital cavity**. The **nasal cavity** contains the parts that form the nose. The **oral cavity** or **buccal cavity** (**BUCK**-ull) encloses the teeth and tongue.

Terms Referring to Quadrants in the Abdominal Area

Another method for referencing the abdominal area is to divide the area into **quadrants**. This method uses one median sagittal plane and one transverse plane that passes through the umbilicus at right angles. The four

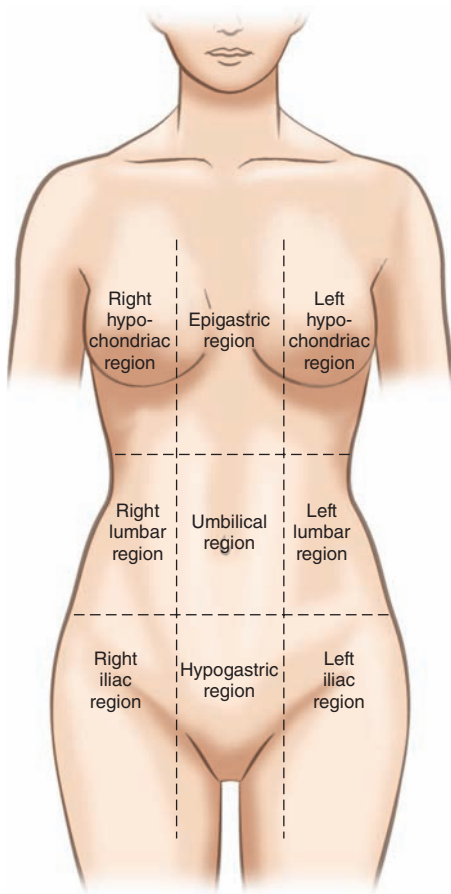


Figure 1-5 Regions of the thorax and abdomen

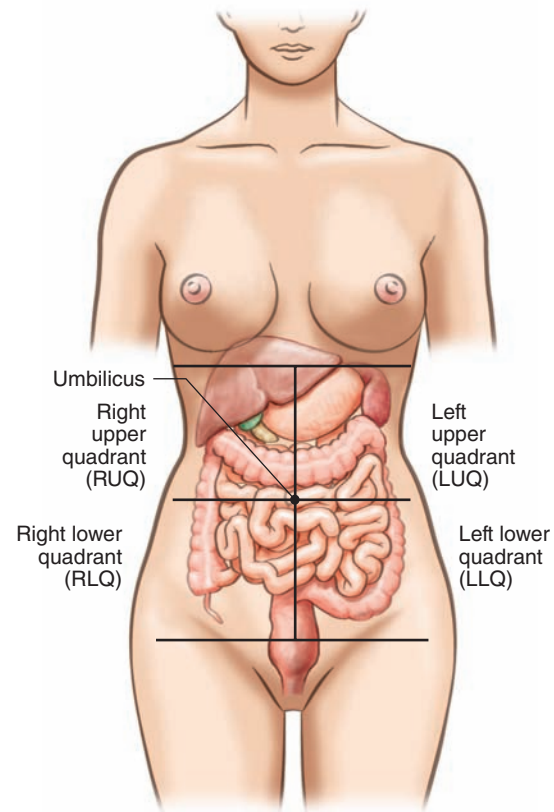


Figure 1-6 Division of the abdomen into quadrants

resulting quadrants are named according to their positions: right upper quadrant (RUQ), left upper quadrant (LUQ), right lower quadrant (RLQ), and left lower quadrant (LLQ) (Figure 1-6).

Did You Know?

McBurney's point is not at the top of a mountain but midway between the umbilicus and the iliac crest (the prominent area on the hip bone) and the right lower quadrant or right inguinal area. This area is painful when a person has appendicitis.

Life Functions

When we examine humans, plants, one-celled organisms, or multicelled organisms, we recognize that all of them have one thing in common: they are alive.

All living organisms are capable of carrying on life functions. **Life functions** are a series of highly

organized and related activities that allow living organisms to live, grow, and maintain themselves.

These vital life functions include movement, ingestion, digestion, transport, respiration, synthesis, assimilation, growth, secretion, excretion, regulation (sensitivity), and reproduction (Table 1-1).

Human Development

During our lifetime, the body carries on numerous functions that keep us alive and active. Living depends on the constant release of energy in every cell of the body. Powered by the energy released from food, cells are able to maintain their own living condition and, thus, the life of a human being.

A complex life-form like a human being consists of more than 50 trillion cells. The **cell** is the basic unit of structure and function of all living things. Early in human development, certain groups of cells become highly specialized for specific functions, such as movement or growth.

Table 1-1 Review of the Life Functions and Body Systems

LIFE FUNCTIONS/ BODY SYSTEMS	DEFINITION
Movement Muscle System	The ability of the whole organism—or a part of it—to move
Ingestion Assimilation	The process by which an organism takes in food
Digestion Digestive System	The breakdown of complex food molecules into simpler food molecules The transformation of digested food molecules into living tissue for growth and self-repair
Transport Circulatory System	The movement of necessary substances to, into, and around cells, and of cellular products and wastes out of and away from cells
Respiration Respiratory System	The burning or oxidation of food molecules in a cell to release energy, water, and carbon dioxide
Immunity Lymphatic System	The filtering out of harmful bacteria and production of white blood cells (lymphocytes)
Protection Integumentary System	The waterproof covering of the body
Growth Skeletal System	The enlargement of an organism due to synthesis and assimilation, resulting in an increase in the number and size of its cells
Secretion Endocrine System	The formation and release of hormones from a cell or structure
Excretion Urinary System	The removal of metabolic waste products from an organism
Regulation (Sensitivity) Nervous System	The ability of an organism to respond to its environment so as to maintain a balanced state (homeostasis)
Reproduction Reproductive System	The ability of an organism to produce offspring with similar characteristics (This is <i>essential</i> for species survival as opposed to individual survival.)

Special cells—grouped according to function, shape, size, and structure—are called **tissues**. Tissues, in turn, form larger functional and structural units known as **organs**. For example, human skin is an organ of epithelial, connective, muscular, and nervous tissue. In much the same way, kidneys consist of highly specialized connective and epithelial tissue.

The organs of the human body do not operate independently; they function interdependently with one another to form a live, functioning organism. Some organs are grouped together because more than one is needed to perform a function. Such a grouping is called an **organ system**. One example is the digestive system, composed of the teeth, esophagus, stomach, small intestine, and large intestine. In this textbook you will study the various body systems and the organs that comprise them.

Homeostasis

Homeostasis (hoe-mee-oh-STAY-sis) is the ability of the body to regulate its internal environment within narrow limits through negative and positive feedback. Maintaining homeostasis is essential to survival; imbalance results in disease. All organ systems contribute to homeostasis. Examples of homeostasis controls are blood sugar levels, body temperature, heart rate, and the fluid environment of cells. Aging cells no longer respond as quickly, which makes it harder to maintain homeostasis.

Most of homeostasis control works on a **negative feedback loop**. Feedback responses reverse disturbances to our body's condition. An example of how a negative feedback loop operates is seen in maintaining our body temperature. Our normal body temperature is 37°C (98.6°F). Outside, on a hot summer day, our body temperature rises. The hypothalamus in the brain detects this and sends signals to various organs, and we start to sweat (sweating is a cooling process). As water is excreted by the sweat glands on the skin, it evaporates (evaporation is a cooling mechanism). In addition, our blood vessels dilate to bring blood near the skin's surface to dissipate body heat. If we go outside on a cold day and our body temperature falls below 37°C (98.6°F), the hypothalamus of the brain detects this and sends signals to the muscles, causing us to shiver, which raises the body temperature (increased muscle activity produces heat). In addition, the hypothalamus sends signals to the blood vessels, causing them to constrict, which reduces blood flow near the surface, conserving body heat.

Positive feedback is the body's ability to increase the level of an event that has already been started. Positive feedback occurs when a person has a cut or damage to a blood vessel. Platelets in the blood quickly accumulate to clot around the wound and stop the bleeding.

Metabolism

The functional activities of cells that result in growth, repair, energy release, use of food, and secretions are combined under the heading of **metabolism** (meh-TAB-oh-lizm). Metabolism consists of two processes that are opposite to each other: anabolism and catabolism. **Anabolism** (ah-NAB-oh-lizm) is the building up of complex materials from simpler ones such as food and oxygen, and requires energy. **Catabolism** (kah-TAB-oh-lizm) is the breaking down and changing of complex substances into simpler ones, with a release of energy and carbon dioxide. The sum of all the chemical reactions within a cell is therefore called metabolism.

Metric System

To understand the language used in *Body Structures and Functions*, you must be familiar with the metric system. The medical community measures length, weight, and volume using this system. The **metric system** is a decimal system based on the power of 10. Just as there are 100 cents in a dollar, there are 100 centimeters in a meter (see Appendix A).

Some of the prefixes used in the metric system are

centi = 1/100 (one/one-hundredth)

milli = 1/1000 (one/one-thousandth)

micro = 1/1,000,000 (one/one-millionth)

Length is measured using meters instead of inches and feet.

1 centimeter (cm) = 0.4 inch

2.5 cm = 1 inch

1-1

Medical Highlights

BIOTECHNOLOGY AND NANOTECHNOLOGY

In the future we will see advances in the treatment and diagnosis of disease using techniques such as *biotechnology* and *nanotechnology*.

Biotechnology refers to any technological application that uses biological systems, living organisms, or derivatives thereof to make or modify products or processes for specific uses. One field of biotechnology, genetic engineering, has introduced techniques such as gene therapy, recombinant DNA technology, and the polymerase chain reaction. These techniques make use of genes and DNA molecules to diagnose disease and insert new and healthy genes into the body to replace damaged cells. Scientists are trying to develop biopharmaceutical drugs to treat diseases such as hepatitis, cancer, and heart disease.

Nanotechnology is a science that manipulates atoms and molecules to form new materials. Nanotechnology deals with materials a billion times smaller than a soccer ball. We cannot even visualize

such minute dimensions. At this size, matter exhibits unusual properties that can be engineered to perform tasks not otherwise possible.

At present the signs of disease first appear at a cellular level. To date, instruments used within medicine have only been able to detect abnormalities at the macro level. Being able to diagnose and treat disease at the molecular level will enable physicians to reach the root origins of disease and assist—or even replace—the healing process.

The long-term goals of the National Institutes of Health (NIH) are to be able to use nanoparticles to seek out cancer cells before tumors grow and to remove and/or replace “broken” parts of cells or cell mechanisms with miniature, molecular-sized biological “machines” and use these “machines” as pumps or robots to deliver medicines when and where needed in the body. Pharmaceutical products are reformulated with nano-sized particles to improve their absorption. ■

Weight is measured using grams instead of ounces and pounds.

$$1 \text{ gram (g)} = 1 \text{ ounce}$$

$$1 \text{ kilogram (kg)} = 2.2 \text{ pounds}$$

$$1000 \text{ g} = 1 \text{ kg}$$

In drug dosage, the most familiar unit used is the gram or milligram (mg).

$$500 \text{ mg} = 0.5 \text{ g}$$

Volume is measured using liters or milliliters instead of quarts, pints, ounces, teaspoons, and tablespoons.

$$1 \text{ liter (L)} = 1.06 \text{ quarts (a liter is slightly larger than a quart)}$$

$$1 \text{ L} = 1000 \text{ milliliters (ml)}$$

For liquid drug dosage, milliliters are used.

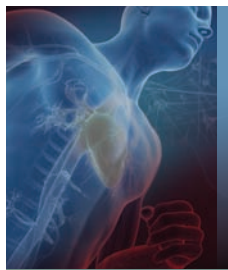
$$5 \text{ ml} = 1 \text{ teaspoon}$$

$$15 \text{ ml} = 1 \text{ tablespoon}$$

$$30 \text{ ml} = 1 \text{ ounce}$$

Medical Terminology

ana	apart	-al	pertaining to
-tom	cutting	caud	tail
-y	process of	caud/al	pertaining to the tail
ana/tom/y	process of cutting apart; study of body parts by dissection	crani	skull
-ology	study of	crani/al	pertaining to the skull
bio	life	dist	distant
bio/logy	study of life	dist/al	pertaining to a distant part
physio	nature	dors	back
physi/ology	study of nature or natural function of body	dors/al	pertaining to the back
ante	in front of	later	side
anter/ior	in the front	later/al	pertaining to the side
poster	behind	medi	middle
poster/ior	in back of	medi/al	pertaining to the middle
super	above	proxim	near
super/ior	above a part	proxim/al	pertaining to nearness or closeness
infer	below	ventr	belly, front side
infer/ior	below a part	ventr/al	pertaining to the belly or front side



Study Tools

Workbook	Activities for Chapter 1
Online Resources	PowerPoint presentations