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MODULE 1.1 HOW TO SUCCEED IN YOUR ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY COURSE

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How to Develop Study Skills

Learning styles, different ways of learning, can be categorized into four basic styles:

- Visual/Verbal learners fare best when reading written materials and viewing multimedia presentations
- Visual/Nonverbal learners fare best when using visual media without text

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How to Develop Study Skills

Learning styles (continued)

- Auditory/Verbal learners fare best when listening to lectures; generally prefer text-based materials instead of visual media
- Tactile/Kinesthetic learners fare best when able to physically manipulate a teaching tool; useful in anatomy and physiology lab setting

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How to Develop Study Skills

How to read a textbook – textbook is a *tool* for building a foundation for *understanding* complex subject matter; following approach is called **SQ3R method**:

- Survey chapter to get an idea of what major topics are discussed
- Form questions about chapter's content from your survey that can be answered as you progress through text

How to Develop Study Skills

How to read a textbook (continued)

- Read actively process that engages some sort of activity (note-taking or diagram sketching for example) while reading to enhance understanding and recall
- Recite material aloud; another form of active reading that helps retain information
- Review what has been read; may be accomplished using several different methods such as answering end of chapter questions or writing your own summaries of main topics

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How to Develop Study Skills

Managing your time (Figure 1.1); studying takes time, so develop a *weekly schedule* that includes allotted time dedicated to

- Studying on your own
- · Meeting with a study group
- Using other resources your school provides, such as open labs and/or tutoring

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How to Develop Study Skills





Figure 1.1 Some ways to maximize your study time.

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How to Develop Study Skills

How to study for an exam; following methods have been found to work for many people:

- Find out as much as you can about exam (format, factor application-based, practice exam availability)
- Take advantage of available resources (within text or online)
- · Form a study group early in semester

How to Develop Study Skills

How to study for an exam (continued):

- Use whatever study techniques help (depending on your learning style)
- Take care of yourself (nutrition, health, and SLEEP) and manage your stress

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How to Make the Best Use of Class and Lab Time

- Come prepared
 - Coming to lab and lecture with a *familiarity* for what you are expected to know or do is *invaluable*
 - Should <u>not</u> be an issue if you are managing your time well and following a weekly study schedule

How to Make the Best Use of Class and Lab Time

- How to take good notes:
 - Don't rely on instructor's lecture notes <u>alone</u>; printed PowerPoint slides are <u>not</u> a substitute for *class notes*
 - You might benefit from recording lectures if that is an option
 - This is an acquired skill; might take some time to master; experiment to find out what works best for you

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How to Use This Book and Its Associated Materials

Following is a tour of features found in this book; written with busy, modern students in mind (**Figure 1.2**):

 Each chapter is divided into manageable chunks called modules; block of text with definitive starting and stopping points; covers one primary concept and its related principles

How to Use This Book and Its Associated Materials

Tour of features found in book (continued):

 Learning Outcomes – found at start of each module; a list containing essential concepts and related principles you should be able to understand after reading each module

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How to Use This Book and Its Associated Materials

Tour of features found in book (continued):

 Concept Boosts and Study Boosts – short sections strategically placed in certain modules intended to "boost" understanding for particularly difficult concepts

How to Use This Book and Its Associated Materials

Tour of features found in book (continued):

- Different types of questions provide opportunities for self-assessment:
 - Flashback beginning of many sections; ask you to recall material from previous modules or chapters
 - Quick Check end of each major section in a module; assess how well you remember basic concepts about which you have just read

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How to Use This Book and Its Associated Materials

Tour of features found in book (continued):

- Different types of **questions** (continued)
 - Apply What You Learned end of each module; critical thinking and problem-solving questions; help you analyze and apply material that you just read
 - Assess What You Learned contains three levels of questions; each requires increasingly greater critical thinking skills

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How to Use This Book and Its Associated Materials

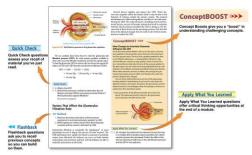


Figure 1.2 Selected features of this textbook.

How to Use This Book and Its Associated Materials

Figures are <u>vital</u> for developing an understanding of *complex anatomical or physiological concepts*; how to get most out of art in textbook (**Figure 1.3**):

- Examine figures as you complete your initial chapter survey (SQ3R)
- · Identify concept that figure teaches first

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How to Use This Book and Its Associated Materials

How to get most out of art in textbook (continued):

- Break figure into parts; understand each part <u>before</u> moving on
- Once you understand each part of figure, examine it as a whole
- Combine figure's content with that of other figures for a more global understanding

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How to Use This Book and Its Associated Materials

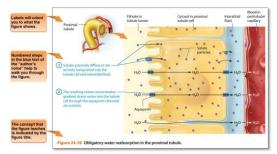


Figure 1.3 How to approach a physiology figure.

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How to Use This Book and Its Associated Materials

- Companion workbook
 - Active learning tool intended to be used as you read textbook (not <u>after</u> you read chapter)
 - Also provides opportunities to assess understanding

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How to Use This Book and Its Associated Materials

 Online practice tools for textbook can be found on Mastering A&P® (Chapter practice tests, module quizzes, art-labeling and step-sequencing exercises, downloadable author-narrated podcasts, animations, and more)

MODULE 1.2 OVERVIEW OF ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY

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INTRODUCTION TO ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY

- Science is a method of observing and measuring natural phenomenon in order to explain them; has provided many answers to the mysteries of humans
- Observation, experimentation, imagination, and time have led to tremendous advances in understanding of human body and how it functions; form and function are inextricably linked
 - Human anatomy study of structure or form of human body
 - Human physiology study of body's functions

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CHARACTERISTICS OF LIVING ORGANISMS

Living Organisms share distinct properties:

- Cellular composition: cells are basic units of life
 - · Smallest unit that can carry out functions of life
 - · All organisms are composed of cells

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CHARACTERISTICS OF LIVING ORGANISMS

Living Organisms share distinct properties (continued):

- Metabolism:
 - Chemicals substances with unique molecular composition; used in or produced by chemical reactions
 - Living organisms carry out a number of chemical reactions collectively known as metabolism
 - Metabolic process either build up or break down substances depending on needs of organism

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CHARACTERISTICS OF LIVING ORGANISMS

Living Organisms share distinct properties (continued):

- Growth, where building outweighs breaking down processes, includes two forms:
 - Increase in size of individual cells
 - Increase in number of cells

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CHARACTERISTICS OF LIVING ORGANISMS

Living Organisms share distinct properties (continued):

- Excretion process that an organism uses to eliminate potentially harmful waste products created by metabolic processes
- Responsiveness or irritability ability of organisms to sense and react to changes or stimuli in their environment

CHARACTERISTICS OF LIVING ORGANISMS

Living Organisms share distinct properties (continued):

 Movement – ability of an entire organism to move or movement of individual cells or of materials within or between cells of an organism

CHARACTERISTICS OF LIVING ORGANISMS

Living Organisms share distinct properties (continued):

- Reproduction takes following two forms in multicellular organisms:
 - Individual cells reproduce within organism during growth and to replace damaged or old cells
 - Organism itself reproduces to yield similar offspring

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LEVELS OF STRUCTURAL ORGANIZATION AND BODY SYSTEMS

Body is constructed from a series of progressively larger "building blocks;" each type of block is known as a structural level of organization (Figure 1.4):

 Chemical level – smallest level is foundation for each successive level, ranges from tiny atoms to complex chemical structures called molecules; composed of between two and thousands of atoms

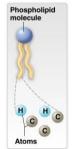


Figure 1.4 Six structural levels of organization of the human body.

LEVELS OF STRUCTURAL ORGANIZATION AND BODY SYSTEMS

Structural levels of organization (continued):

 Cellular level – formed by groups of many different types of molecules combined in specific ways to form cellular structures



Figure 1.4 Six structural levels of organization of the human body.

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LEVELS OF STRUCTURAL ORGANIZATION AND BODY SYSTEMS

Structural levels of organization (continued):

- **Tissue level** *two or more cell types* cooperate to perform a *common function*
 - Consist of two components: cells and surrounding extracellular matrix
 - Vary from membrane sheets that cover body cavities to irregularly shaped cartilage found in nose



Figure 1.4 Six structural levels of organization of the human body.

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LEVELS OF STRUCTURAL ORGANIZATION AND BODY SYSTEMS

Structural levels of organization (continued):

 Organ level – consists of two or more tissue types combined to form a structure or organ; has a recognizable shape and performs a specialized task



Figure 1.4 Six structural levels of organization of the human body.

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LEVELS OF STRUCTURAL ORGANIZATION AND BODY SYSTEMS

Structural levels of organization (continued):

- Organ system level body's organs are grouped into organ systems
 - Consist of two or more organs that together carry out a broad function in body
 - For example
 - Cardiovascular system (heart and blood vessels) transports blood through body
 - Digestive system ingests food, absorbs nutrients, and eliminates wastes



Figure 1.4 Six structural levels of organization of the human body.

LEVELS OF STRUCTURAL ORGANIZATION AND BODY SYSTEMS

Structural levels of organization (continued):

• Organism level – organ systems function together to make up working human body, an organism



Figure 1.4 Six structural levels of organization of the human body.

LEVELS OF STRUCTURAL ORGANIZATION AND BODY SYSTEMS

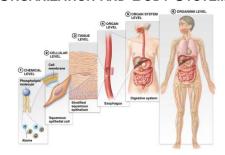


Figure 1.4 Six structural levels of organization of the human body.

LEVELS OF STRUCTURAL ORGANIZATION AND BODY SYSTEMS

- Body's organs are grouped into **organ systems**; consist of two or more organs that together carry out a broad function in body
 - Human body has 11 organ systems (Figure 1.5)
 - Organs and organ systems work together to ensure survival of organism as a whole
- Organ systems function together to make up complete organism (human body)

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LEVELS OF STRUCTURAL ORGANIZATION AND BODY SYSTEMS



Figure 1.5 The 11 organ systems of the human body.

LEVELS OF STRUCTURAL ORGANIZATION AND BODY SYSTEMS

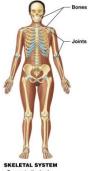
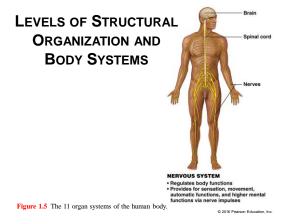


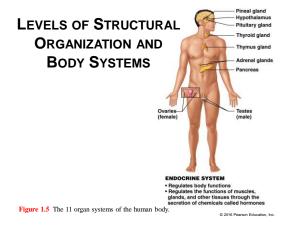
Figure 1.5 The 11 organ systems of the human body.

LEVELS OF STRUCTURAL ORGANIZATION AND BODY SYSTEMS



Figure 1.5 The 11 organ systems of the human body.





CARDIOVASCULAR SYSTEM

CARDIOVASCULAR SYSTEM

Pumps and delivers oxygen-poor blood to the lungs and oxygen-poor blood to the lungs and oxygen-poor blood to the tissues
Transports cells, nutrients, and other

Figure 1.5 The 11 organ systems of the human body.

LEVELS OF STRUCTURAL
ORGANIZATION AND
BODY SYSTEMS

Lymphatic system
- Returns excess lissue fluid to the cardiovascular system
- Provides immunity (protection against disease)

Figure 1.5 The 11 organ systems of the human body.

RESPIRATORY SYSTEM

ORGANIZATION AND
BODY SYSTEMS

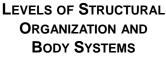
RESPIRATORY SYSTEM

Oblivers oxygen to the blood
Removes carbon dioxide from the body
Removes carbon dioxide from the body
Organ systems of the human body.

LEVELS OF STRUCTURAL
ORGANIZATION AND
BODY SYSTEMS

DIGESTIVE SYSTEM

DIGESTIVE SYST



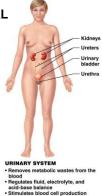


Figure 1.5 The 11 organ systems of the human body.

YSTEM
etabolic wastes from the
uid, electrolyte, and
Produces and transports sperm

LEVELS OF STRUCTURAL ORGANIZATION AND

BODY SYSTEMS

Figure 1.5 The 11 organ systems of the human body.

LEVELS OF STRUCTURAL
ORGANIZATION AND
BODY SYSTEMS



Figure 1.5 The 11 organ systems of the human body.

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TYPES OF ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY

Study of human body can be approached in following ways:

- Systemic anatomy approach used in textbook; examines human body primarily by looking at *individual* organ systems
- Regional anatomy divides body into regions of study such as head and neck

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TYPES OF ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY

Study of human body (continued):

- Surface anatomy studies surface markings of body
- Gross anatomy examines structures that can be seen with *unaided eye*
- Microscopic anatomy studies structures that can <u>only</u> be seen with aid of a *microscope*; include: Histology (study of *tissues*) and Cytology (study of *cells*)

Types of Anatomy and Physiology

- Physiology has subfields classified by organ or organ system being studied; examples include:
 - Neurophysiology studies *brain* and *nerves*
 - Cardiovascular physiology studies heart and blood vessels
- Physiologists may also specialize in levels of organization other than systemic; some study body's chemical and cellular processes; others study specific tissues or organs

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MODULE 1.3 THE LANGUAGE OF ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY

THE LANGUAGE OF ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY

Language of science, A&P included, is built on a group of *word roots*, which are core components of words with <u>specific</u> *meanings*:

- Word roots are combined with specific prefixes and suffixes to yield scientific terms
- Building anatomical terms from word roots, prefixes, and suffixes is discussed on inside back cover of textbook

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ANATOMICAL POSITION

- Anatomical position common frame of reference from which <u>all</u> body parts and regions are described:
 - Body is standing upright; feet are shoulder width apart, with upper limbs at sides of trunk and head and palms facing forward
 - Body is <u>always</u> referred to as if it were in anatomical position, even when it's in *another position*
 - "Right" and "left" always refers to right and left sides of body being described, not our own

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ANATOMICAL POSITION



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DIRECTIONAL TERMS

- Directional terms, another means of ensuring accurate communication, describes *relative location* of body parts and markings; some of more common paired terms include (Figure 1.6):
 - Anterior (ventral) refers to front, in humans while posterior (dorsal) refers to back; can refer to either body as a whole or to a body part
 - Superior (cranial) means toward head while inferior (caudal) refers to toward tail; terms are used to refer to positions only on head, neck, and trunk

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DIRECTIONAL TERMS

- **Directional terms** (continued):
 - Proximal refers to something being closer to point of origin; distal refers to being more distant or further away from same point of origin
 - The body's midline is an imaginary line that runs down middle of the body; medial refers to a position that is *closer* to midline; lateral refers to a position that is *further away*
 - Superficial refers to structures that are closer to surface of the body while deep refers to those further away

DIRECTIONAL TERMS

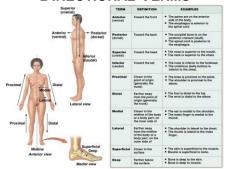


Figure 1.6 Directional terms

REGIONAL TERMS

- **Regional Terms** body can be divided into two regions: axial region, which includes head, neck, and trunk and appendicular region which includes upper and lower limbs or appendages (Figure 1.7)
 - Each broad region can be divided into several smaller
 - · A summary of regional terms can be found in companion workbook

REGIONAL TERMS Vertebra Figure 1.7a Regional terms.

REGIONAL TERMS



Figure 1.7b, c, d Regional terms.

CONCEPT BOOST: PUTTING ANATOMICAL TERMS TOGETHER

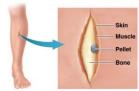
- Name region left cervical
- Add descriptive directional terms - where, exactly, incision is located; incision is on anterior side, lateral to midline; begins inferior to mental region and ends superior to thoracic region



- · Describe depth of incision deep to skin and muscle but superficial to
- Put it all together incision made on left anterior cervical region 1 centimeter lateral to midline; extended vertically from 1 centimeter inferior to mental region to 2 centimeters superior to thoracic region, and was deep to skin and muscle but superficial to larynx

CONCEPT BOOST: PUTTING ANATOMICAL TERMS TOGETHER

- Start with region left crural
- Add descriptive directional terms (need to use proximal and distal, since describing limbs) - anterior, on medial side, proximal to tarsal region and distal to patellar region



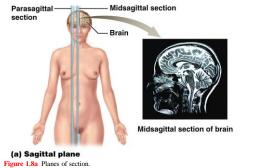
- Describe depth of incision deep to skin and muscle but superficial to bone
- Put it all together wound is on left anteromedial crural region, 6 centimeters proximal to tarsal region and 10 centimeters distal to patellar region; pellet is lodged deep to skin and muscle but superficial to bone

PLANES OF SECTION

Three primary planes of section provide a means of studying form and function of a body region by dividing body or a body part up for examination:

- Sagittal plane divides body or body part into right and left sections; includes following two variations (Figure
 - Midsagittal plane (median plane) divides body or body part into equal left and right sections
 - Parasagittal plane divides body or body part into unequal right and left sections

PLANES OF SECTION



PLANES OF SECTION

- Frontal plane (coronal plane) divides body or body part into anterior and posterior sections (Figure
- Transverse plane (horizontal plane) divides body or body part into superior and inferior sections or proximal and distal sections when describing structures of appendicular region (**Figure 1.8c**)
- Oblique plane, a less standardized plane, is taken at an angle; useful for examining structures that are difficult to examine using only three primary planes of section

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PLANES OF SECTION

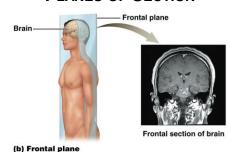


Figure 1.8b Planes of section.

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PLANES OF SECTION

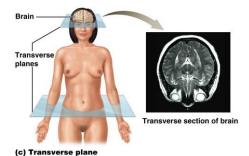


Figure 1.8c Planes of section.

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MODULE 1.4 THE ORGANIZATION OF THE HUMAN BODY

- A cavity is any fluid-filled space within body; axial region of body is divided into several cavities
- Cavities protect internal organs and allow them to move and expand as necessary to perform their functions
- Major cavities include dorsal and ventral cavities and their subdivisions

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BODY CAVITIES

- Dorsal Body Cavity largely located on posterior side of body; subdivided into two cavities (Figure 1.9a):
 - Cranial cavity within skull; protects brain
 - Vertebral (spinal) cavity within vertebral column; protects spinal cord
 - Subdivisions are continuous and filled with cerebrospinal fluid (CSF);
 bathes and protects both brain and spinal cord

Figure 1.9a The dorsal and ventral body cavities.



(a) Dorsal body cavity, latera view

BODY CAVITIES

- Ventral Body Cavity (Figures 1.9b, 1.10)
 - Separated into two divisions by diaphragm:
 - Thoracic cavity and its subdivisions are superior to diaphragm
 - Abdominopelvic cavity and its subdivisions are inferior to diaphragm

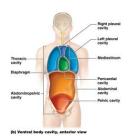


Figure 1.9b The dorsal and ventral body cavities.

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BODY CAVITIES

- Ventral Body Cavity (continued):
 - Thoracic cavity divided into three smaller cavities:
 - $\begin{array}{c} \circ \ \, \textbf{Pleural cavities} \text{each} \ \underline{\text{surround}} \\ \text{either left or right } lung \end{array}$
 - Mediastinum between pleural cavities; houses heart, great vessels, trachea (windpipe), and esophagus; not within serous membrane
 - Pericardial cavity within mediastinum; within serous membrane that surrounds heart



Figure 1.9b The dorsal and ventral body cavities.

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BODY CAVITIES

- Ventral Body Cavity (continued):
 - Abdominopelvic cavity subdivided into superior abdominal cavity (spans from diaphragm to bony pelvis) and pelvic cavity (area within bony pelvis)
 - Contains organs from several systems (digestive, lymphatic, reproductive, and urinary)
 - Peritoneal cavity abdominal subcavity found within serous membrane

Figure 1.9b The dorsal and ventral body cavities.



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BODY CAVITIES

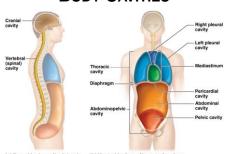


Figure 1.9 The dorsal and ventral body cavities.

- Ventral Body Cavity (continued):
 - Abdominopelvic cavity can be divided up into segments or quadrants
 - Imaginary lines that cross at umbilicus divide cavity into four quadrants (Figure 1.10a):
 - o Right upper quadrant (RUQ)
 - $_{\circ}$ Right lower quadrant (RLQ)
 - o Left upper quadrant (LUQ)
 - $_{\circ}$ Left lower quadrant (LLQ)

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BODY CAVITIES

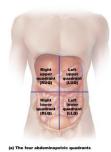


Figure 1.10a The four quadrants and nine regions of the abdominopelvic cavity.

BODY CAVITIES

- Ventral Body Cavity (continued):
 - Abdominopelvic cavity can also be divided into nine segments using two parasagittal and two transverse imaginary lines (Figure 1.10b):
 - Right and left hypochondriac regions below cartilage of
 - **Epigastric region** middle superior region *above stomach* and between right and left hypochondriac regions
 - Right and left lumbar regions middle segments at same level as lumbar vertebrae

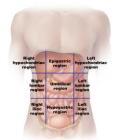
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BODY CAVITIES

- Ventral Body Cavity (continued):
 - Abdominopelvic cavity (continued):
 - $_{\circ}$ $Umbilical\ region$ between lumbar regions, $over\ umbilicus$
 - \circ \boldsymbol{Right} and \boldsymbol{left} iliac or inguinal regions most inferior segments

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BODY CAVITIES



(b) The nine abdominopelvic regions

Figure 1.10b The four quadrants and nine regions of the abdominopelvic cavity.

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ABDOMINAL PAIN

- Common complaint of individuals seeking health care
- Cause of pain can be difficult to diagnose due to number of structures in abdominopelvic cavity; four quadrant system makes this easier
- Organ location in specific quadrants can narrow potential diagnoses; helpful first step; examples:
 - RLQ appendix, right ovary (females), first section of large intestine, last part of small intestine
 - LUQ stomach, spleen, pancreas, parts of large intestine

- Serous membranes (Figure 1.11):
 - Thin sheets of tissue; form certain cavities found in ventral cavity; surround heart, lungs, and many abdominal organs
 - Appear to be two membranes when sectioned; actually consists of a single, continuous layer of tissue; folds over itself to create a double-layered structure
 - Within cavity between two layers is an extremely thin layer of fluid called serous fluid

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BODY CAVITIES

- Serous membranes (continued):
 - Serous fluid
 - o Watery, slippery lubricant
 - o Fills space between membrane layers
 - o Produced by cells of membrane
 - o Prevents friction caused by movement of organs
 - Visceral layer in contact with underlying organ
 - Parietal layer outermost layer attached to surrounding structures

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BODY CAVITIES

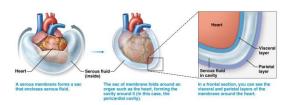


Figure 1.11 How a serous membrane envelops the heart.

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BODY CAVITIES

- Body has three serous body cavities formed by three main serous membranes:
 - Pleural membranes (Figure 1.12a)
 - Consist of <u>outer</u> parietal pleura (follow contours of thoracic wall) and <u>inner</u> visceral pleura (runs along surface of lungs)
 - Thin space enclosed by pleural membranes forms pleural cavities

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BODY CAVITIES

- · Body has three serous body cavities (continued):
 - Pericardial membranes (Figure 1.12a)
 - Consist of <u>outer</u> parietal pericardium (separates heart from mediastinum) and *inner* visceral pericardium (lies directly on heart muscle)
 - \circ Space created by pericardial membranes forms pericardial cavity

BODY CAVITIES

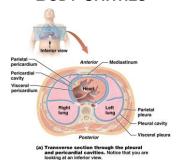


Figure 1.12a The serous membranes of the ventral body cavities.

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- Body has three serous body cavities (continued):
 - Peritoneal membranes, surrounds some of abdominal organs (Figure 1.12b)
 - $_{\circ}$ Consist of $\underline{\text{outer}}$ parietal peritoneum and $\underline{\text{inner}}$ visceral peritoneum
 - o Space between these layers forms peritoneal cavity
 - Doesn't cover every organ; kidneys lie outside of and behind parietal peritoneum and are thus called retroperitoneal organs

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BODY CAVITIES



Figure 1.12b The serous membranes of the ventral body cavities.

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MEDICAL IMAGING

- Used to look inside patients <u>without</u> surgery; different forms of radiation form images of internal structures
- Examples of imaging techniques; show sections of body planes:
 - X-Ray uses ionizing radiation; chest image is shown
 - Computed tomography scan (CT) also uses ionizing radiation; 3-D image is computer generated from data; transverse section of abdominopelvic and peritoneal cavities is shown





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MEDICAL IMAGING

 Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) – body is placed within a magnetic field; computer compiles data producing a 3-D image; two scans on right show inside brain and cranial cavity (top) and inside vertebral cavity (bottom), both sectioned midsagittally





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MODULE 1.5 CORE PRINCIPLES IN ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY

OVERALL THEME

- Physiological Processes Operate to Maintain Body's Homeostasis (maintenance of internal environment)
 - Homeostatic imbalances disturbances in homeostasis can lead to disease or death if <u>uncorrected</u>
 - Body's internal environment result of a wide range of coordinated processes or variables, including temperature, chemical composition of blood and other body fluids, and many others
 - To prevent imbalance, most variables are controlled (regulated) variables; maintained within a narrow range, close to a normal value

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COMMON MISCONCEPTIONS ABOUT HOMEOSTASIS

- Misconception 1: Negative feedback is <u>bad</u> for body; positive feedback is <u>good</u>
 - When most of us hear "negative," we think of bad consequences; when we hear "positive," good consequences come to mind
 - Negative and positive feedback refer only to direction of output in response to an initial change; normally, both negative and positive feedback promote homeostasis

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COMMON MISCONCEPTIONS ABOUT HOMEOSTASIS

- Misconception 2: Maintaining homeostasis means body's internal environment is static or unchanging
 - Maintenance of "set points" or "normal ranges" does NOT mean body's internal environment is <u>unchanging</u>
 - When you eat, levels of sugar (and other nutrients) and water in blood increase; levels of various other chemicals in blood change; digestive system undergoes multiple physiological processes to digest food.
 - These sorts of changes are occurring constantly

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COMMON MISCONCEPTIONS ABOUT HOMEOSTASIS

- Misconception 3: Regulatory mechanisms and feedback loops are either "on" or "off," like a switch
 - Since body's internal environment is a dynamic place, feedback loops are constantly engaged in some degree of activity
 - Example blood sugar regulation; level of sugar in blood is <u>constantly</u> changing; negative feedback loops that regulate blood sugar therefore must <u>always</u> be in operation

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COMMON MISCONCEPTIONS ABOUT HOMEOSTASIS

- Misconception 4: Any physiological variable can be controlled:
 - Variable can be controlled through feedback loops <u>only</u> if receptors exist to detect changes in set point
 - Changes in an <u>unregulated</u> variable can disrupt homeostasis for a regulated variable

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COMMON MISCONCEPTIONS ABOUT HOMEOSTASIS

- Misconception 4 (continued):
 - For example, vitamin D (involved in calcium ion homeostasis); receptors exist for level of calcium ions, but not for vitamin D
 - So if vitamin D level falls too low, body has no mechanism to return level to normal; a lower vitamin D level, in turn, impacts level of calcium ions

CORE PRINCIPLES IN A&P

Core principles – concepts of anatomy and physiology repeated throughout textbook; related to maintenance of homeostasis:

- Feedback loops
- · Relationship between structure and function
- Gradients
- Cell-to-cell communication

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CORE PRINCIPLES IN A&P



Feedback Loops Core Principle - two mechanisms vital to maintenance of homeostasis (Figures 1.13, 1.14):

• Positive feedback loops – less common than negative feedback loops; effector activity increases and reinforces initial stimulus; shuts off when conditions return to the normal range

CORE PRINCIPLES IN A&P

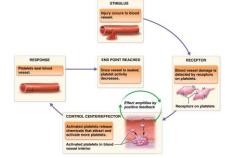


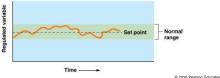
Figure 1.14 Control of blood clotting by a positive feedback mechanism

CORE PRINCIPLES IN A&P

- Negative feedback loops (continued):
 - Negative feedback loops oppose initial change in a regulated variable; reduce output
 - When a change in status of a regulated variable is detected, a series of events is triggered to return variable to its normal value

CORE PRINCIPLES IN A&P

- Negative feedback loops (continued):
 - · Each regulated variable has a set point or an established normal value
 - Normal value for a regulated variable's set point is usually a range of values called the normal range



CORE PRINCIPLES IN A&P

- Negative feedback loops (continued):
 - When regulated variable is <u>outside</u> its normal range, information called a stimulus is detected by specialized cellular structure called receptor (sensor)
 - · Stimulus is sent to a control center, usually cells of nervous or endocrine system; determine that variable is outside of set point

CORE PRINCIPLES IN A&P

- Negative feedback loops (continued):
 - Control center then signals other cells or organs, called effectors; cause physiological responses that return variable to normal homeostatic range (Figure
 - Negative feedback loop ends or is closed once variable has returned to normal

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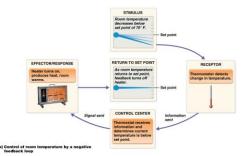


Figure 1.13a Comparison of how negative feedback mechanisms control room and body temperature.

CORE PRINCIPLES IN A&P

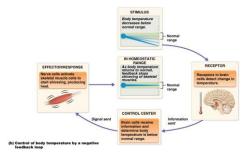


Figure 1.13b Comparison of how negative feedback mechanisms control room and body temperature.

CHILDBIRTH, PITOCIN, AND POSITIVE FEEDBACK LOOPS

- Childbirth begins with **labor**; occurs by *positive feedback*:
 - · Baby's head stretches cervix (stimulus); data sent to brain (control center); signals uterus (effector); uterus produces hormone oxytocin; oxytocin stimulates uterine contractions (response)
 - Contractions move baby's head, causing more cervical stretching; stimulates release of more hormone; effect continues to be amplified until baby is born
- **Pitocin** (*synthetic* oxytocin) induces labor; stimulates uterine contractions, initiating above feedback loop; oxytocin release causes progressively stronger contractions and eventual childbirth

CORE PRINCIPLES IN A&P



- Structure and Function Core Principle One of most basic principles in A&P; known as principle of complementarity of structure and function:
 - · Form of a structure is always such that it best suits its function
 - States simply that form follows function; applies to each level of organization even down to chemical level **Figure 1.15**)

CORE PRINCIPLES IN A&P

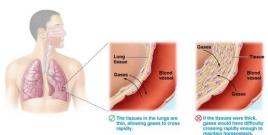


Figure 1.15 The relationship between structure and function. This figure explores structure and function using the example of what would happen if the tissues in the lung were thick instead of thin.

CORE PRINCIPLES IN A&P



- · Gradient Core Principle physiological cornerstone (Figure 1.16):
 - Gradient present any time more of something exists in one area than another, where two areas are connected
 - · Gradients drive many physiological processes (respiration, nutrient exchange, formation of urine to name a few)

CORE PRINCIPLES IN A&P

- Gradient Core Principle (continued):
 - Examples of three common gradients found in human body:
 - Temperature gradient when there is a temperature difference between two connected regions (Figure 1.16a)
 - Concentration gradient where there is a concentration difference between two connected regions (Figure 1.16b)
 - \circ $Pressure\ gradient$ when there is a pressure difference between two connected regions (Figure 1.16c)

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CORE PRINCIPLES IN A&P

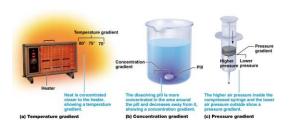


Figure 1.16 Examples of gradients.

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CORE PRINCIPLES IN A&P



- Cell-Cell Communication Core Principle cell to cell communication is required to coordinate body functions
 - Cells in body have to work in a coordinated fashion to ensure homeostasis of entire organism is maintained
 - Usually accomplished with either chemical messengers or electrical signals; one cell triggers a response from another cell
 - Electrical signals are usually transmitted between neighboring cells; chemical messengers can affect neighboring cells or travel to distant cells to cause effect (Figure 1.17)

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CORE PRINCIPLES IN A&P

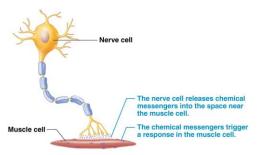


Figure 1.17 Communication between a nerve cell and a muscle cell.