Chapter 1 : Anatomy - Wikipedia

As well as believing in the reality of Forms, Plato believed in the immortality of the human soul. The soul was, he thought, an entity that was fundamentally distinct from the body although it could be and often was affected byâ€¦ Chemical composition of the body Chemically, the human body consists mainly of water and of organic compounds â€”i. Water is found in the extracellular fluids of the body the blood plasma , the lymph , and the interstitial fluid and within the cells themselves. It serves as a solvent without which the chemistry of life could not take place. The human body is about 60 percent water by weight. Lipids â€”chiefly fats , phospholipids , and steroids â€”are major structural components of the human body. Fats provide an energy reserve for the body, and fat pads also serve as insulation and shock absorbers. Phospholipids and the steroid compound cholesterol are major components of the membrane that surrounds each cell. Proteins also serve as a major structural component of the body. Like lipids, proteins are an important constituent of the cell membrane. In addition, such extracellular materials as hair and nails are composed of protein. Proteins also perform numerous functional roles in the body. Particularly important are cellular proteins called enzymes , which catalyze the chemical reactions necessary for life. Carbohydrates are present in the human body largely as fuels, either as simple sugars circulating through the bloodstream or as glycogen , a storage compound found in the liver and the muscles. Small amounts of carbohydrates also occur in cell membranes, but, in contrast to plants and many invertebrate animals, humans have little structural carbohydrate in their bodies. Nucleic acids make up the genetic materials of the body. It is DNA, passed from parents to offspring, that dictates the inherited characteristics of each individual human. Chief among these are calcium , phosphorus , sodium , magnesium , and iron. Calcium is also present as ions in the blood and interstitial fluid , as is sodium. Ions of phosphorus, potassium, and magnesium, on the other hand , are abundant within the intercellular fluid. Iron is present mainly as part of hemoglobin , the oxygen-carrying pigment of the red blood cells. Other mineral constituents of the body, found in minute but necessary concentrations, include cobalt , copper , iodine , manganese , and zinc. Organization of the body The cell is the basic living unit of the human bodyâ€”indeed, of all organisms. The human body consists of trillions of cells, each capable of growth, metabolism , response to stimuli, and, with some exceptions, reproduction. Although there are some different types of cells in the body, these can be grouped into four basic classes. These four basic cell types, together with their extracellular materials, form the fundamental tissues of the human body: Bone and blood are considered specialized connective tissues, in which the intercellular matrix is, respectively, hard and liquid. The most basic unit is the cell; groups of similar cells form tissues; groups of different tissues make up organs; groups of organs form organ systems; cells, tissues, organs, and organ systems combine to form a multicellular organism. The next level of organization in the body is that of the organ. An organ is a group of tissues that constitutes a distinct structural and functional unit. Thus, the heart is an organ composed of all four tissues, whose function is to pump blood throughout the body. Of course, the heart does not function in isolation; it is part of a system composed of blood and blood vessels as well. The highest level of body organization, then, is that of the organ system. The body includes nine major organ systems, each composed of various organs and tissues that work together as a functional unit. The chief constituents and prime functions of each system are summarized below. Basic form and development In general structure, the human body follows a plan that can be described as a cylinder enclosing two tubes and a rod. This body plan is most clearly evident in the embryo ; by birth, the plan is apparent only in the trunk regionâ€”i. The body wall forms the cylinder. The two tubes are the ventrally located alimentary canal i. Between the tubes lies the rodâ€”the notochord in the embryo, which becomes the vertebral column prior to birth. The terms dorsal and ventral refer respectively to the back and the front, or belly, of an animal. Within the embryo, the essential body parts are: Everything in the body derives from one of these six embryonic parts. The mesoderm constitutes a considerable pad of tissue on each side of the embryo, extending all the way from the back to the front sides of the body wall. It is hollow, for a cleftlike space appears in it on each side. These are the right and left body cavities. In the dorsal part of the body they are temporary; in the ventral part they become permanent, forming the two pleural cavities, which house the lungs; the peritoneal cavity, which contains the abdominal organs; and the pericardial cavity, which encloses the heart. The dorsal part of the mesoderm becomes separated from the ventral mesoderm and divides itself into serial parts like a row of blocks, 31 on each side. These mesodermal segments grow in all directions toward the epidermal membrane. They form bones, muscles, and the deeper, leathery part of the skin. Dorsally they form bony arches protecting the spinal cord, and ventrally the ribs protecting the alimentary canal and heart. Thus they form the body wall and the limbsâ€”much the weightier part of the body. They give the segmental character to the body wall in neck and trunk, and, following their lead, the spinal cord becomes correspondingly segmented. The ventral mesoderm is not so extensive; it remains near the alimentary tube and becomes the continuous muscle layer of the stomach and intestine. It also forms the lining of the body cavities, the smooth, shining, slippery pleura and peritoneum. The mesenchyme forms blood and lymph vessels, the heart, and the loose cells of connective tissues. The neural tube itself is formed from the ectoderm at a very early stage. It is not in immediate contact with the epidermis, for the dorsal mesoderm grows up around it and around the roots of the cranial nerves as a covering, separating the brain from the epidermis. Posteriorly the neural tube terminates in the adult opposite the first lumbar vertebra. If the cylindrical body wall is followed headward, it is found to terminate ventrally as the tongue , dorsally in the skull around the brain, ears, and eyes. There is a considerable interval between eyes and tongue. This is occupied partly by a deep depression of the epidermis between them, which dips in to join the alimentary tube lining of the mouth. Posteriorly the ventral body wall joins the dorsal at the tailbone coccyx , thus terminating the body cavities. Headward, the alimentary tube extends up in front of the notochord and projects above the upper part of the body wall tongue and in front of and below the brain to join the epidermal depression. From the epidermal depression are formed the teeth and most of the mouth lining; from the upper end of the alimentary canal are formed the pharynx, larynx , trachea , and lungs. The alimentary canal at its tail end splits longitudinally into two tubesâ€”an anterior and a posterior. The anterior tube becomes the bladder , urethra, and, in the female, the lining of the vagina , where it joins a depression of the ectoderm. The posterior dorsal tube becomes the rectum and ends just in front of the coccyx by joining another ectodermal depression the anus. Effects of aging As the human body ages it undergoes various changes, which are experienced at different times and at varying rates among individuals. It becomes thin and dry and loses elasticity. Patches of darker pigmentation appear, commonly called liver spots, though they have no relation to that organ. Hair grays and thins. Wounds take longer to heal; some reparations take five times as long at 60 as at 10 years of age. Sensory fibres in spinal nerves become fewer; the ganglion cells become pigmented and some of them die. In the auditory apparatus some nerve cells and fibres are lost, and the ability to hear high notes diminishes. In the eye the lens loses its elasticity. Organs such as the liver and kidneys lose mass with age and decline in efficiency. The brain is somewhat smaller after the age of 40 and shrinks markedly after age 75, especially in the frontal and occipital lobes. This shrinkage is not, however, correlated with declines in mental capacity. Intellectual declines in the elderly are the consequence of underlying disease conditions, such as Alzheimer disease or cerebrovascular disease. The bones become lighter and more brittle because of a loss of calcium. This loss in bone mass is greater in women than men after the fifth decade. In joints the cartilage covering the ends of bone becomes thinner and sometimes disappears in spots, so bone meets bone directly and the old joints creak. Compression of the spinal column can lead to a loss of height. Muscular strength decreases but with marked individual variability. The arteries become fibrous and sclerosed. Because of decreasing elasticity, they tend to become rigid tubes. Fatty spots, which appear in their lining even in youth, are always present in old age. Thus, the potential longevity of the human bodyâ€”about yearsâ€”seems to be encoded within the very cells of the body. Change incident to environmental factors Although the basic form of the human body was established in human anthropoid ancestors, evolutionary adaptations to different environments are apparent among various human populations. For example, physical adaptations in humans are seen in response to extreme cold , humid heat, and high altitudes. Extreme cold favours short, round persons with short arms and legs, flat faces with fat pads over the sinuses, narrow noses, and a heavier than average layer of body fat. These adaptations provide minimum surface area in relation to body mass for minimum heat loss, minimum heat loss in the extremities which allows manual dexterity during exposure to cold and guards against frostbite , and protection of the lungs and base of the brain against cold air in the nasal passages. In hot climates the problem is not in maintaining body heat but in dissipating it. Ordinarily the body rids itself of excess heat by sweating. In conditions of humid heat, however, the humidity of the surrounding air prevents the evaporation of perspiration to some extent, and overheating may result. Hence, the heat-adapted person in humid climates is characteristically tall and thin, so that there is maximum surface area for heat radiation. The person living in hot climates has little body fat; often a wide nose, since warming of the air in the nasal passages is not desirable; and, usually, dark skin, which provides a shield from harmful solar radiation. High altitudes demand a degree of cold adaptation , as well as adaptation for low air pressure and the consequent low oxygen.

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The best known aspect of morphology, usually called anatomy, is the study of gross structure, or form, of organs and organisms. It should not be inferred however, that even the human body, which has been extensively studied, has been so completely explored that nothingâ€¦ Gross anatomy This ancient discipline reached its culmination between and , by which time its subject matter was firmly established. Beliefs in life after death and a disquieting uncertainty concerning the possibility of bodily resurrection further inhibited systematic study. Nevertheless, knowledge of the body was acquired by treating wounds, aiding in childbirth , and setting broken limbs. The field remained speculative rather than descriptive, though, until the achievements of the Alexandrian medical school and its foremost figure, Herophilus flourished bce , who dissected human cadavers and thus gave anatomy a considerable factual basis for the first time. Herophilus made many important discoveries and was followed by his younger contemporary Erasistratus , who is sometimes regarded as the founder of physiology. In the 2nd century ce, Greek physician Galen assembled and arranged all the discoveries of the Greek anatomists, including with them his own concepts of physiology and his discoveries in experimental medicine. The many books Galen wrote became the unquestioned authority for anatomy and medicine in Europe because they were the only ancient Greek anatomical texts that survived the Dark Ages in the form of Arabic and then Latin translations. Hieronymus Fabricius , Gabriello Fallopius , and Bartolomeo Eustachio were among the most important Italian anatomists, and their detailed studies led to fundamental progress in the related field of physiology. Microscopic anatomy The new application of magnifying glasses and compound microscopes to biological studies in the second half of the 17th century was the most important factor in the subsequent development of anatomical research. Thenceforth attention gradually shifted from the identification and understanding of bodily structures visible to the naked eye to those of microscopic size. These technical advances enabled Matthias Jakob Schleiden and Theodor Schwann to recognize in â€”39 that the cell is the fundamental unit of organization in all living things. The need for thinner, more transparent tissue specimens for study under the light microscope stimulated the development of improved methods of dissection, notably machines called microtomes that can slice specimens into extremely thin sections. In order to better distinguish the detail in these sections, synthetic dyes were used to stain tissues with different colours. Thin sections and staining had become standard tools for microscopic anatomists by the late 19th century. The field of cytology , which is the study of cells, and that of histology , which is the study of tissue organization from the cellular level up, both arose in the 19th century with the data and techniques of microscopic anatomy as their basis. In the 20th century anatomists tended to scrutinize tinier and tinier units of structure as new technologies enabled them to discern details far beyond the limits of resolution of light microscopes. These advances were made possible by the electron microscope , which stimulated an enormous amount of research on subcellular structures beginning in the s and became the prime tool of anatomical research. About the same time, the use of X-ray diffraction for studying the structures of many types of molecules present in living things gave rise to the new subspecialty of molecular anatomy. Anatomical nomenclature Scientific names for the parts and structures of the human body are usually in Latin; for example, the name musculus biceps brachii denotes the biceps muscle of the upper arm. Some such names were bequeathed to Europe by ancient Greek and Roman writers, and many more were coined by European anatomists from the 16th century on. Expanding medical knowledge meant the discovery of many bodily structures and tissues, but there was no uniformity of nomenclature , and thousands of new names were added as medical writers followed their own fancies, usually expressing them in a Latin form. By the end of the 19th century the confusion caused by the enormous number of names had become intolerable. Medical dictionaries sometimes listed as many as 20 synonyms for one name, and more than 50, names were in use throughout Europe. In the German Anatomical Society undertook the task of standardizing the nomenclature, and, with the help of other national anatomical societies, a complete list of anatomical terms and names was approved in that reduced the 50, names to 5, In this work was supplanted by the Terminologia Anatomica, which recognizes about 7, terms describing macroscopic structures of human anatomy and is considered to be the international standard on human anatomical nomenclature. The Terminologia Anatomica, produced by the International Federation of Associations of Anatomists and the Federative Committee on Anatomical Terminology later known as the Federative International Programme on Anatomical Terminologies , was made available online in Learn More in these related Britannica articles:

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Skeleton of a diamondback rattlesnake Reptiles are a class of animals comprising turtles , tuataras , lizards , snakes and crocodiles. They are tetrapods , but the snakes and a few species of lizard either have no limbs or their limbs are much reduced in size. Their bones are better ossified and their skeletons stronger than those of amphibians. The teeth are conical and mostly uniform in size. The surface cells of the epidermis are modified into horny scales which create a waterproof layer. Reptiles are unable to use their skin for respiration as do amphibians and have a more efficient respiratory system drawing air into their lungs by expanding their chest walls. The heart resembles that of the amphibian but there is a septum which more completely separates the oxygenated and deoxygenated bloodstreams. The reproductive system has evolved for internal fertilization, with a copulatory organ present in most species. The eggs are surrounded by amniotic membranes which prevents them from drying out and are laid on land, or develop internally in some species. The bladder is small as nitrogenous waste is excreted as uric acid. They have an inflexible trunk encased in a horny carapace above and a plastron below. These are formed from bony plates embedded in the dermis which are overlain by horny ones and are partially fused with the ribs and spine. The neck is long and flexible and the head and the legs can be drawn back inside the shell. Turtles are vegetarians and the typical reptile teeth have been replaced by sharp, horny plates. In aquatic species, the front legs are modified into flippers. There is one living species, Sphenodon punctatus. The skull has two openings fenestrae on either side and the jaw is rigidly attached to the skull. There is one row of teeth in the lower jaw and this fits between the two rows in the upper jaw when the animal chews. The teeth are merely projections of bony material from the jaw and eventually wear down. The brain and heart are more primitive than those of other reptiles, and the lungs have a single chamber and lack bronchi. The tuatara has a well-developed parietal eye on its forehead. This results in the jaws being less rigidly attached which allows the mouth to open wider. Lizards are mostly quadrupeds, with the trunk held off the ground by short, sideways-facing legs, but a few species have no limbs and resemble snakes. Lizards have moveable eyelids, eardrums are present and some species have a central parietal eye. The skeleton consists of a skull, a hyoid bone, spine and ribs though a few species retain a vestige of the pelvis and rear limbs in the form of pelvic spurs. The bar under the second fenestra has also been lost and the jaws have extreme flexibility allowing the snake to swallow its prey whole. Snakes lack moveable eyelids, the eyes being covered by transparent "spectacle" scales. They do not have eardrums but can detect ground vibrations through the bones of their skull. Their forked tongues are used as organs of taste and smell and some species have sensory pits on their heads enabling them to locate warm-blooded prey. The head and trunk are dorso-ventrally flattened and the tail is laterally compressed. It undulates from side to side to force the animal through the water when swimming. The tough keratinized scales provide body armour and some are fused to the skull. The nostrils, eyes and ears are elevated above the top of the flat head enabling them to remain above the surface of the water when the animal is floating. Valves seal the nostrils and ears when it is submerged. Unlike other reptiles, crocodilians have hearts with four chambers allowing complete separation of oxygenated and deoxygenated blood. Bird anatomy Part of a wing. Birds are endothermic , have a high metabolic rate , a light skeletal system and powerful muscles. The long bones are thin, hollow and very light. Air sac extensions from the lungs occupy the centre of some bones. The sternum is wide and usually has a keel and the caudal vertebrae are fused. There are no teeth and the narrow jaws are adapted into a horn-covered beak. The eyes are relatively large, particularly in nocturnal species such as owls. They face forwards in predators and sideways in ducks. The only cutaneous gland is the single uropygial gland near the base of the tail. This produces an oily secretion that waterproofs the feathers when the bird preens. There are scales on the legs, feet and claws on the tips of the toes. Mammal anatomy Mammals are a diverse class of animals, mostly terrestrial but some are aquatic and others have evolved flapping or gliding flight. They mostly have four limbs but some aquatic mammals have no limbs or limbs modified into fins and the forelimbs of bats are modified into wings. The legs of most mammals are situated below the trunk, which is held well clear of the ground. The bones of mammals are well ossified and their teeth, which are usually differentiated, are coated in a layer of prismatic enamel. Mammals have three bones in the middle ear and a cochlea in the inner ear. They are clothed in hair and their skin contains glands which secrete sweat. Some of these glands are specialized as mammary glands , producing milk to feed the young. Mammals breathe with lungs and have a muscular diaphragm separating the thorax from the abdomen which helps them draw air into the lungs. The mammalian heart has four chambers and oxygenated and deoxygenated blood are kept entirely separate. Nitrogenous waste is excreted primarily as urea. The exception to this are the egg-laying monotremes , the platypus and the echidnas of Australia. Humans have a head , neck , trunk which includes the thorax and abdomen , two arms and hands , and two legs and feet. Generally, students of certain biological sciences , paramedics , prosthetists and orthotists, physiotherapists , occupational therapists , nurses , podiatrists , and medical students learn gross anatomy and microscopic anatomy from anatomical models, skeletons, textbooks, diagrams, photographs, lectures and tutorials, and in addition, medical students generally also learn gross anatomy through practical experience of dissection and inspection of cadavers. The study of microscopic anatomy or histology can be aided by practical experience examining histological preparations or slides under a microscope. Human anatomy can be taught regionally or systemically; that is, respectively, studying anatomy by bodily regions such as the head and chest, or studying by specific systems, such as the nervous or respiratory systems. They are often involved in teaching anatomy, and research into certain systems, organs, tissues or cells. By definition, none of these creatures has a backbone. The cells of single-cell protozoans have the same basic structure as those of multicellular animals but some parts are specialized into the equivalent of tissues and organs. Locomotion is often provided by cilia or flagella or may proceed via the advance of pseudopodia , food may be gathered by phagocytosis , energy needs may be supplied by photosynthesis and the cell may be supported by an endoskeleton or an exoskeleton. Some protozoans can form multicellular colonies. The most basic types of metazoan tissues are epithelium and connective tissue, both of which are present in nearly all invertebrates. The outer surface of the epidermis is normally formed of epithelial cells and secretes an extracellular matrix which provides support to the organism. An endoskeleton derived from the mesoderm is present in echinoderms , sponges and some cephalopods. Exoskeletons are derived from the epidermis and is composed of chitin in arthropods insects, spiders, ticks, shrimps, crabs, lobsters. Calcium carbonate constitutes the shells of molluscs , brachiopods and some tube-building polychaete worms and silica forms the exoskeleton of the microscopic diatoms and radiolaria. The outer epithelial layer may include cells of several types including sensory cells, gland cells and stinging cells. There may also be protrusions such as microvilli , cilia, bristles, spines and tubercles. He observed that when a ring-like portion of bark was removed on a trunk a swelling occurred in the tissues above the ring, and he unmistakably interpreted this as growth stimulated by food coming down from the leaves, and being captured above the ring. Arthropod , Insect morphology , and Spider anatomy Arthropods comprise the largest phylum in the animal kingdom with over a million known invertebrate species. The segments of the body are organized into three distinct parts, a head, a thorax and an abdomen. The thorax has three pairs of segmented legs , one pair each for the three segments that compose the thorax and one or two pairs of wings. The abdomen is composed of eleven segments, some of which may be fused and houses the digestive , respiratory , excretory and reproductive systems. Spiders have no wings and no antennae. They have mouthparts called chelicerae which are often connected to venom glands as most spiders are venomous. They have a second pair of appendages called pedipalps attached to the cephalothorax. These have similar segmentation to the legs and function as taste and smell organs. At the end of each male pedipalp is a spoon-shaped cymbium that acts to support the copulatory organ. Other branches of anatomy[edit] Superficial or surface anatomy is important as the study of anatomical landmarks that can be readily seen from the exterior contours of the body. Superficial is a directional term that indicates that structures are located relatively close to the surface of the body.

Chapter 6 : Anatomical Sciences Journal

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