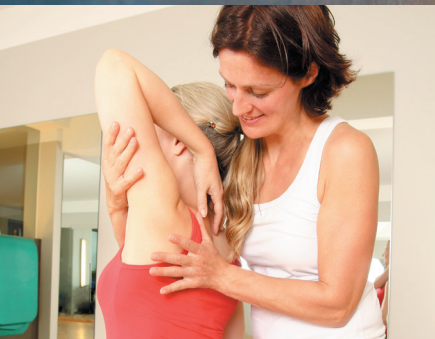




PRINCIPLES OF  
NATOMY  
**A & P**  
HYSIOLOGY  
1ST ASIA-PACIFIC  
EDITION

**TORTORA | DERRICKSON**  
**BURKETT | DYE | COOKE**  
**DIVERSI | MCKEAN | MELLIFONT**  
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PRINCIPLES OF  
NATOMY

**A&P**

HYSIOLOGY

FIRST ASIA-PACIFIC EDITION

**GERARD J. TORTORA**  
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**WILEY**

First published 2016 by  
John Wiley & Sons Australia, Ltd  
42 McDougall Street, Milton Qld 4064

Typeset in 10.5/12.5 Times LT Std

Australian edition © John Wiley & Sons, Ltd 2016

Authorised adaptation of Gerard J. Tortora and Bryan Derrickson,  
*Principles of Anatomy and Physiology, 14th edition*  
(ISBN 9781118345009), published by John Wiley & Sons,  
New York, United States of America. © 2014, 2012, 2009, 2006,  
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National Library of Australia  
Cataloguing-in-Publication entry

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Creator:	Tortora, Gerard J., author.
Title:	Principles of anatomy and physiology / Gerard J Tortora, Bryan H Derrickson, Brendan Burkett, Danielle Dye, Julie Cooke, Tara Diversi, Mark McKean, Rebecca Mellifont, Latika Samalia, Gregory Peoples.
Edition:	1st Asia–Pacific edition
ISBN:	9780730314622 (paperback)
Notes:	Includes index.
Subjects:	Human anatomy—Textbooks.
Other Creators/ Contributors:	Derrickson, Bryan H., author. Burkett, Brendan, author. Dye, Danielle, author. Cooke, Julie, author. Diversi, Tara, author. McKean, Mark, author. Mellifont, Rebecca, author. Samalia, Latika, author. Peoples, Gregory, author.
Dewey Number:	611.00711

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Typeset in India by Aptara

Printed in China by  
Printplus Limited

10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

# BRIEF CONTENTS

1	AN INTRODUCTION TO THE HUMAN BODY	1
2	THE CHEMICAL LEVEL OF ORGANISATION	27
3	THE CELLULAR LEVEL OF ORGANISATION	61
4	THE TISSUE LEVEL OF ORGANISATION	110
5	THE INTEGUMENTARY SYSTEM	147
6	THE SKELETAL SYSTEM: BONE TISSUE	176
7	THE SKELETAL SYSTEM: THE AXIAL SKELETON	200
8	THE SKELETAL SYSTEM: THE APPENDICULAR SKELETON	239
9	JOINTS	267
10	MUSCULAR TISSUE	301
11	THE MUSCULAR SYSTEM	338
12	NERVOUS TISSUE	409
13	THE SPINAL CORD AND SPINAL NERVES	453
14	THE BRAIN AND CRANIAL NERVES	486
15	THE AUTONOMIC NERVOUS SYSTEM	536
16	SENSORY, MOTOR, AND INTEGRATIVE SYSTEMS	560
17	THE SPECIAL SENSES	588
18	THE ENDOCRINE SYSTEM	632
19	THE CARDIOVASCULAR SYSTEM: THE BLOOD	678
20	THE CARDIOVASCULAR SYSTEM: THE HEART	706
21	THE CARDIOVASCULAR SYSTEM: BLOOD VESSELS AND HAEMODYNAMICS	E-CHAPTER
22	THE LYMPHATIC SYSTEM AND IMMUNITY	E-CHAPTER
23	THE RESPIRATORY SYSTEM	E-CHAPTER
24	THE DIGESTIVE SYSTEM	E-CHAPTER
25	METABOLISM AND NUTRITION	E-CHAPTER
26	THE URINARY SYSTEM	E-CHAPTER
27	FLUID, ELECTROLYTE, AND ACID-BASE HOMEOSTASIS	E-CHAPTER
28	THE REPRODUCTIVE SYSTEMS	E-CHAPTER
29	DEVELOPMENT AND INHERITANCE	E-CHAPTER

APPENDIX A: MEASUREMENTS 749 APPENDIX B: PERIODIC TABLE 751 APPENDIX C:  
NORMAL VALUES FOR SELECTED BLOOD TESTS 752 APPENDIX D: NORMAL VALUES FOR  
SELECTED URINE TESTS 754 GLOSSARY 756 ENDNOTES 785 CREDITS 790 INDEX 793

# CONTENTS

## 1 AN INTRODUCTION TO THE HUMAN BODY 1

- 1.1 Anatomy and physiology defined 2
- 1.2 Levels of structural organisation and body systems 2
- 1.3 Characteristics of the living human organism 5

Basic life processes 5

### 1.4 Homeostasis 8

Homeostasis and body fluids 8

Control of homeostasis 9

Homeostatic imbalances 11

### 1.5 Basic anatomical terminology 12

Body positions 12

Regional names 12

Directional terms 13

Planes and sections 16

Body cavities 17

Abdominopelvic regions and quadrants 19

### 1.6 Medical imaging 20

*Chapter review 24 / Critical thinking questions 26 / Answers to figure questions 26*

## 2 THE CHEMICAL LEVEL OF ORGANISATION 27

### 2.1 How matter is organised 28

Chemical elements 28

Structure of atoms 28

Atomic number and mass number 30

Atomic mass 31

Ions, molecules, and compounds 31

### 2.2 Chemical bonds 32

Ionic bonds 32

Covalent bonds 33

Hydrogen bonds 34

### 2.3 Chemical reactions 35

Forms of energy and chemical reactions 36

Energy transfer in chemical reactions 36

Types of chemical reactions 37

### 2.4 Inorganic compounds and solutions 38

Water 38

Solutions, colloids, and suspensions 40

Inorganic acids, bases, and salts 40

Acid–base balance: the concept of pH 41

Maintaining pH: buffer systems 41

### 2.5 Organic compounds 42

Carbon and its functional groups 42

Carbohydrates 43

Lipids 44

Proteins 49

Nucleic acids: deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) and ribonucleic acid (RNA) 53

Adenosine triphosphate 55

*Chapter review 58 / Critical thinking questions 59 / Answers to figure questions 60*

## 3 THE CELLULAR LEVEL OF ORGANISATION 61

### 3.1 Parts of a cell 62

#### 3.2 The plasma membrane 63

Structure of the plasma membrane 63

Functions of membrane proteins 64

Membrane fluidity 64

Membrane permeability 65

Gradients across the plasma membrane 66

#### 3.3 Transport across the plasma membrane 66

Passive processes 66

Active processes 71

#### 3.4 Cytoplasm 77

Cytosol 77

Organelles 77

#### 3.5 Nucleus 87

#### 3.6 Protein synthesis 90

Transcription 91

Translation 92

#### 3.7 Cell division 94

Somatic cell division 94

Control of cell destiny 98

Reproductive cell division 98

#### 3.8 Cellular diversity 102

#### 3.9 Ageing and cells 102

*Medical terminology 105 / Chapter review 105 / Critical thinking questions 108 / Answers to figure questions 108*

## 4 THE TISSUE LEVEL OF ORGANISATION 110

### 4.1 Types of tissues 111

#### 4.2 Cell junctions 111

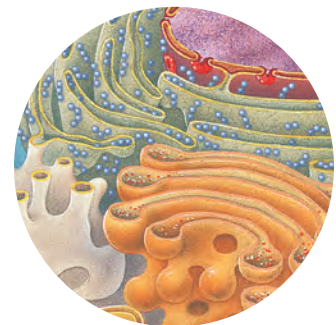
Tight junctions 112

Adherens junctions 112

Desmosomes 113

Hemidesmosomes 113

Gap junctions 113



### 4.3 Comparison between epithelial and connective tissues 113

#### 4.4 Epithelial tissue 114

Classification of epithelial tissue 115

Covering and lining epithelium 116

Glandular epithelium 122

#### 4.5 Connective tissue 125

General features of connective tissue 125

Connective tissue cells 125

Connective tissue extracellular matrix 127

Classification of connective tissue 128

Embryonic connective tissue 128

Mature connective tissue 128

#### 4.6 Membranes 137

Epithelial membranes 137

Synovial membranes 137

#### 4.7 Muscular tissue 139

#### 4.8 Nervous tissue 139

#### 4.9 Excitable cells 141

#### 4.10 Tissue repair: restoring homeostasis 141

#### 4.11 Ageing and tissues 142

*Medical terminology 143 / Chapter review 143 / Critical thinking questions 146 / Answers to figure questions 146*

## 5 THE INTEGUMENTARY SYSTEM 147

### 5.1 Structure of the skin 148

Epidermis 149

Keratinisation and growth of the epidermis 152

Dermis 152

The structural basis of skin colour 153

Tattooing and body piercing 155

### 5.2 Accessory structures of the skin 155

Hair 155

Skin glands 158

Nails 161

### 5.3 Types of skin 162

### 5.4 Functions of the skin 162

Thermoregulation 162

Blood reservoir 162

Protection 163

Cutaneous sensations 163

Excretion and absorption 163

Synthesis of vitamin D 164

### 5.5 Maintaining homeostasis: skin wound healing 164

Epidermal wound healing 164

Deep wound healing 164

### 5.6 Development of the integumentary system 166

### 5.7 Ageing and the integumentary system 168

*Medical terminology 173 / Chapter review 173 / Critical thinking questions 175 / Answers to figure questions 175*

## 6 THE SKELETAL SYSTEM: BONE TISSUE 176

### 6.1 Functions of bone and the skeletal system 177

### 6.2 Structure of bone 177

### 6.3 Histology of bone tissue 178

Compact bone tissue 180

Spongy bone tissue 180

### 6.4 Blood and nerve supply of bone 182

### 6.5 Bone formation 183

Initial bone formation in an embryo and foetus 183

Bone growth during infancy, childhood, and adolescence 186

Remodelling of bone 187

Factors affecting bone growth and bone remodelling 189

### 6.6 Fracture and repair of bone 190

### 6.7 Bone's role in calcium homeostasis 192

### 6.8 Exercise and bone tissue 194

### 6.9 Ageing and bone tissue 195

*Medical terminology 197 / Chapter review 198 / Critical thinking questions 199 / Answers to figure questions 199*

## 7 THE SKELETAL SYSTEM: THE AXIAL SKELETON 200

### 7.1 Divisions of the skeletal system 201

### 7.2 Types of bones 201

### 7.3 Bone surface markings 203

### 7.4 Skull 204

General features and functions 216

Nasal septum 216

Orbits 217

Foramina 217

Unique features of the skull 217

### 7.5 Hyoid bone 221

### 7.6 Vertebral column 221

Normal curves of the vertebral column 222

Intervertebral discs 223

Parts of a typical vertebra 223

Regions of the vertebral column 224

Age-related changes in the vertebral column 224

### 7.7 Thorax 224

*Medical terminology 236 / Chapter review 237 / Critical thinking questions 238 / Answers to figure questions 238*



## 8 THE SKELETAL SYSTEM: THE APPENDICULAR SKELETON 239

### 8.1 Pectoral (shoulder) girdle 240

### 8.2 Upper limb (extremity) 243

### 8.3 Pelvic (hip) girdle 249

## vi CONTENTS

### 8.4 False and true pelvis 251

### 8.5 Comparison of female and male pelvis 253

### 8.6 Lower limb (extremity) 254

### 8.7 Development of the skeletal system 262

*Medical terminology 265 / Chapter review 265 / Critical thinking questions 266 / Answers to figure questions 266*

## 9 JOINTS 267

### 9.1 Joint classifications 268

#### 9.2 Fibrous joints 268

Sutures 268

Syndesmoses 269

Interosseous membranes 269

#### 9.3 Cartilaginous joints 270

Synchondroses 270

Symphyses 270

#### 9.4 Synovial joints 271

Structure of synovial joints 271

Nerve and blood supply 273

Bursae and tendon sheaths 273

#### 9.5 Types of movements at synovial joints 273

Gliding 274

Angular movements 274

Rotation 276

Special movements 277

#### 9.6 Types of synovial joints 278

Plane joints 278

Hinge joints 278

Pivot joints 280

Condyloid joints 280

Saddle joints 280

Ball-and-socket joints 280

#### 9.7 Factors affecting contact and range of motion at synovial joints 281

#### 9.8 Selected joints of the body 282

#### 9.9 Ageing and joints 295

#### 9.10 Arthroplasty 295

Hip replacements 295

Knee replacements 296

*Medical terminology 298 / Chapter review 298 / Critical thinking questions 300 / Answers to figure questions 300*

## 10 MUSCULAR TISSUE 301

### 10.1 Overview of muscular tissue 302

Types of muscular tissue 302

Functions of muscular tissue 302

Properties of muscular tissue 302

### 10.2 Skeletal muscle tissue 303

Connective tissue components 303

Nerve and blood supply 305

Microscopic anatomy of a skeletal muscle fibre 305

Muscle proteins 309

### 10.3 Contraction and relaxation of skeletal muscle fibres 312

The sliding filament mechanism 312

The neuromuscular junction 315

### 10.4 Muscle metabolism 319

Production of ATP in muscle fibres 319

Muscle fatigue 321

Oxygen consumption after exercise 321

### 10.5 Control of muscle tension 321

Motor units 321

Twitch contraction 322

Frequency of stimulation 322

Motor unit recruitment 323

Muscle tone 324

Isotonic and isometric contractions 324

### 10.6 Types of skeletal muscle fibres 325

Slow oxidative fibres 325

Fast oxidative–glycolytic fibres 325

Fast glycolytic fibres 325

Distribution and recruitment of different types of fibres 326

### 10.7 Exercise and skeletal muscle tissue 327

Effective stretching 327

Strength training 327

### 10.8 Cardiac muscle tissue 327

### 10.9 Smooth muscle tissue 328

Microscopic anatomy of smooth muscle 328

Physiology of smooth muscle 328

### 10.10 Regeneration of muscular tissue 330

### 10.11 Development of muscle 331

### 10.12 Ageing and muscular tissue 331

*Medical terminology 334 / Chapter review 334 / Critical thinking questions 337 / Answers to figure questions 337*

## 11 THE MUSCULAR SYSTEM 338

### 11.1 How skeletal muscles produce movements 339

Muscle attachment sites: origin and insertion 339

Lever systems and leverage 340

Effects of fascicle arrangement 340

Coordination among muscles 341

### 11.2 How skeletal muscles are named 343

### 11.3 Principal skeletal muscles 343

*Medical terminology 406 / Chapter review 407 / Critical thinking questions 408 / Answers to figure questions 408*





## 12 NERVOUS TISSUE 409

### 12.1 Overview of the nervous system 410

Organisation of the nervous system 410

Functions of the nervous system 410

### 12.2 Histology of nervous tissue 412

Neurons 412

Neuroglia 416

Myelination 419

Collections of nervous tissue 420

### 12.3 Electrical signals in neurons 421

Ion channels 421

Resting membrane potential 424

Graded potentials 426

Generation of action potentials 428

Propagation of action potentials 430

Encoding of stimulus intensity 433

Comparison of electrical signals produced by excitable cells 433

### 12.4 Signal transmission at synapses 434

Electrical synapses 434

Chemical synapses 435

Excitatory and inhibitory postsynaptic potentials 437

Structure of neurotransmitter receptors 437

Removal of neurotransmitter 439

Spatial and temporal summation of postsynaptic potentials 439

### 12.5 Neurotransmitters 442

Small-molecule neurotransmitters 442

Neuropeptides 444

### 12.6 Neural circuits 445

### 12.7 Regeneration and repair of nervous tissue 446

Neurogenesis in the CNS 447

Damage and repair in the PNS 447

*Medical terminology 449 / Chapter review 449 / Critical thinking questions 452 / Answers to figure questions 452*

## 13 THE SPINAL CORD AND SPINAL NERVES 453

### 13.1 Spinal cord anatomy 454

Protective structures 454

External anatomy of the spinal cord 456

Internal anatomy of the spinal cord 456

### 13.2 Spinal nerves 460

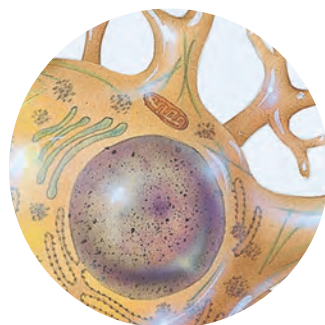
Connective tissue coverings of spinal nerves 461

Distribution of spinal nerves 461

Dermatomes 472

### 13.3 Spinal cord physiology 472

Sensory and motor tracts 472



Reflexes and reflex arcs 474

*Medical terminology 483 / Chapter review 483 / Critical thinking questions 485 / Answers to figure questions 485*

## 14 THE BRAIN AND CRANIAL NERVES 486

### 14.1 Brain organisation, protection, and blood supply 487

Major parts of the brain 487

Protective coverings of the brain 489

Brain blood flow and the blood–brain barrier 490

### 14.2 Cerebrospinal fluid 490

Functions of CSF 490

Formation of CSF in the ventricles 491

Circulation of CSF 491

### 14.3 The brain stem and reticular formation 495

Medulla oblongata 495

Pons 497

Midbrain 497

Reticular formation 498

### 14.4 The cerebellum 500

### 14.5 The diencephalon 502

Thalamus 502

Hypothalamus 503

Epithalamus 505

Circumventricular organs 505

### 14.6 The cerebrum 505

Cerebral cortex 505

Lobes of the cerebrum 505

Cerebral white matter 506

Basal nuclei 507

The limbic system 508

### 14.7 Functional organisation of the cerebral cortex 510

Sensory areas 510

Motor areas 511

Association areas 511

Hemispheric lateralisation 513

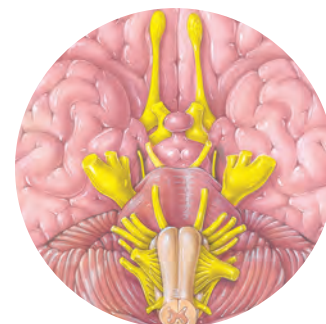
Brain waves 514

### 14.8 Cranial nerves 515

### 14.9 Development of the nervous system 528

### 14.10 Ageing and the nervous system 530

*Medical terminology 532 / Chapter review 532 / Critical thinking questions 534 / Answers to figure questions 535*



## 15 THE AUTONOMIC NERVOUS SYSTEM 536

### 15.1 Comparison of somatic and autonomic nervous systems 537

Somatic nervous system 537

Autonomic nervous system 537

Comparison of somatic and autonomic motor neurons 537

## viii CONTENTS

### 15.2 Anatomy of autonomic motor pathways 539

Anatomical components 539

Structure of the sympathetic division 545

Structure of the parasympathetic division 547

Structure of the enteric division 547

### 15.3 ANS neurotransmitters and receptors 549

Cholinergic neurons and receptors 549

Adrenergic neurons and receptors 549

Receptor agonists and antagonists 551

### 15.4 Physiology of the ANS 551

Autonomic tone 551

Sympathetic responses 551

Parasympathetic responses 552

### 15.5 Integration and control of autonomic functions 554

Autonomic reflexes 554

Autonomic control by higher centres 554

*Medical terminology 557 / Chapter review 557 / Critical thinking questions 559 / Answers to figure questions 559*

## 16 SENSORY, MOTOR, AND INTEGRATIVE SYSTEMS 560

### 16.1 Sensation 561

Sensory modalities 561

The process of sensation 561

Sensory receptors 562

### 16.2 Somatic sensations 565

Tactile sensations 565

Thermal sensations 566

Pain sensations 566

Proprioceptive sensations 568

### 16.3 Somatic sensory pathways 571

Posterior column–medial lemniscus pathway to the cortex 572

Anterolateral pathway to the cortex 572

Trigeminothalamic pathway to the cortex 572

Mapping the primary somatosensory area 573

Somatic sensory pathways to the cerebellum 574

### 16.4 Somatic motor pathways 576

Organisation of upper motor neuron pathways 577

Roles of the basal nuclei 579

Modulation of movement by the cerebellum 581

### 16.5 Integrative functions of the cerebrum 582

Wakefulness and sleep 582

Learning and memory 583

*Medical terminology 585 / Chapter review 585 / Critical thinking questions 587 / Answers to figure questions 587*

## 17 THE SPECIAL SENSES 588

### 17.1 Olfaction: sense of smell 589

Anatomy of olfactory receptors 589

Physiology of olfaction 590

Odour thresholds and adaptation 591

The olfactory pathway 591

### 17.2 Gustation: sense of taste 592

Anatomy of taste buds and papillae 592

Physiology of gustation 592

Taste thresholds and adaptation 594

The gustatory pathway 594

### 17.3 Vision 595

Electromagnetic radiation 595

Accessory structures of the eye 595

Anatomy of the eyeball 599

Image formation 603

Convergence 606

Physiology of vision 606

The visual pathway 609

### 17.4 Hearing and equilibrium 611

Anatomy of the ear 611

The nature of sound waves 617

Physiology of hearing 617

The auditory pathway 619

Physiology of equilibrium 619

Equilibrium pathways 623

### 17.5 Development of the eyes and ears 625

Eyes 625

Ears 625

### 17.6 Ageing and the special senses 627

*Medical terminology 629 / Chapter review 629 / Critical thinking questions 631 / Answers to figure questions 631*

## 18 THE ENDOCRINE SYSTEM 632

### 18.1 Comparison of control by the nervous and endocrine systems 633

### 18.2 Endocrine glands 633

### 18.3 Hormone activity 634

The role of hormone receptors 634

Circulating and local hormones 635

Chemical classes of hormones 635

Hormone transport in the blood 636

### 18.4 Mechanisms of hormone action 636

Action of lipid-soluble hormones 637

Action of water-soluble hormones 638

Hormone interactions 639

### 18.5 Control of hormone secretion 639

### 18.6 Hypothalamus and pituitary gland 640

Anterior pituitary 640

Posterior pituitary 645

### 18.7 Thyroid gland 648

Formation, storage, and release of thyroid hormones 650

Actions of thyroid hormones 650

Control of thyroid hormone secretion 651

Calcitonin 651



**18.8 Parathyroid glands 652**

Parathyroid hormone 652

Control of secretion of calcitonin and parathyroid hormone 652

**18.9 Adrenal glands 654**

Adrenal cortex 656

Adrenal medulla 658

**18.10 Pancreatic islets 660**

Cell types in the pancreatic islets 660

Control of secretion of glucagon and insulin 661

**18.11 Ovaries and testes 663****18.12 Pineal gland and thymus 664****18.13 Other endocrine tissues and organs, eicosanoids, and growth factors 664**

Hormones from other endocrine tissues and organs 664

Eicosanoids 664

Growth factors 665

**18.14 The stress response 665**

The fight-or-flight response 666

The resistance reaction 666

Exhaustion 666

Stress and disease 666

**18.15 Development of the endocrine system 668****18.16 Ageing and the endocrine system 669***Medical terminology 673 / Chapter review 673 / Critical thinking questions 677 / Answers to figure questions 677***19 THE CARDIOVASCULAR SYSTEM: THE BLOOD 678****19.1 Functions and properties of blood 679**

Functions of blood 679

Physical characteristics of blood 679

Components of blood 679

**19.2 Formation of blood cells 683****19.3 Red blood cells 685**

RBC anatomy 685

RBC physiology 686

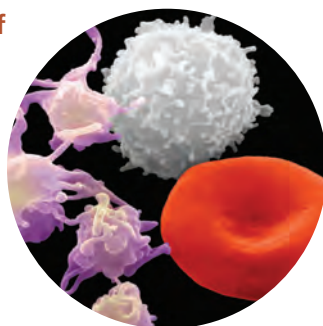
RBC life cycle 686

Erythropoiesis: production of RBCs 688

**19.4 White blood cells 689**

Types of white blood cells 689

Functions of white blood cells 690

**19.5 Platelets 692****19.6 Stem cell transplants from bone marrow and cord blood 694****19.7 Haemostasis 694**

Vascular spasm 694

Platelet plug formation 694

Blood clotting 696

Role of vitamin K in clotting 697

Homeostatic control mechanisms 698

Intravascular clotting 698

**19.8 Blood groups and blood types 698**

ABO blood group 699

Transfusions 699

Rh blood group 700

Typing and cross-matching blood for transfusion 700

*Medical terminology 703 / Chapter review 703 / Critical thinking questions 705 / Answers to figure questions 705***20 THE CARDIOVASCULAR SYSTEM: THE HEART 706****20.1 Anatomy of the heart 707**

Location of the heart 707

Pericardium 708

Layers of the heart wall 709

Chambers of the heart 709

Myocardial thickness and function 713

Fibrous skeleton of the heart 713

**20.2 Heart valves and circulation of blood 715**

Operation of the atrioventricular valves 715

Operation of the semilunar valves 716

Systemic and pulmonary circulations 717

Coronary circulation 717

**20.3 Cardiac muscle tissue and the cardiac conduction system 720**

Histology of cardiac muscle tissue 720

Autorhythmic fibres: the conduction system 722

Action potential and contraction of contractile fibres 722

ATP production in cardiac muscle 725

Electrocardiogram 725

Correlation of ECG waves with atrial and ventricular systole 726

**20.4 The cardiac cycle 728**

Pressure and volume changes during the cardiac cycle 728

Heart sounds 730

**20.5 Cardiac output 730**

Regulation of stroke volume 731

Regulation of heart rate 732

**20.6 Exercise and the heart 735****20.7 Help for failing hearts 736****20.8 Development of the heart 738***Medical terminology 745 / Chapter review 746 / Critical thinking questions 748 / Answers to figure questions 748*

## 21 THE CARDIOVASCULAR SYSTEM: BLOOD VESSELS AND HAEMODYNAMICS E-CHAPTER

### 21.1 Structure and function of blood vessels

Basic structure of a blood vessel

Arteries

Anastomoses

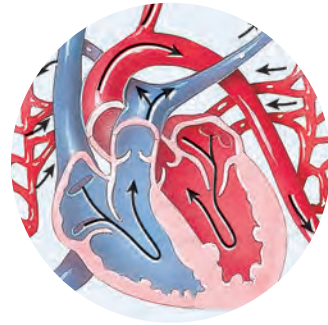
Arterioles

Capillaries

Venules

Veins

Blood distribution



### 21.2 Capillary exchange

Diffusion

Transcytosis

Bulk flow: filtration and reabsorption

### 21.3 Haemodynamics: factors affecting blood flow

Blood pressure

Vascular resistance

Venous return

Velocity of blood flow

### 21.4 Control of blood pressure and blood flow

Role of the cardiovascular centre

Neural regulation of blood pressure

Hormonal regulation of blood pressure

Autoregulation of blood flow

### 21.5 Checking circulation

Pulse

Measuring blood pressure

### 21.6 Shock and homeostasis

Types of shock

Homeostatic responses to shock

Signs and symptoms of shock

### 21.7 Circulatory routes

The systemic circulation

The hepatic portal circulation

The pulmonary circulation

The foetal circulation

### 21.8 Development of blood vessels and blood

### 21.9 Ageing and the cardiovascular system

*Medical terminology / Chapter review / Critical thinking questions / Answers to figure questions*

## 22 THE LYMPHATIC SYSTEM AND IMMUNITY E-CHAPTER

### 22.1 Lymphatic system structure and function

Functions of the lymphatic system

Lymphatic vessels and lymph circulation

Lymphatic organs and tissues

### 22.2 Development of lymphatic tissues

### 22.3 Innate immunity

First line of defence: skin and mucous membranes

Second line of defence: internal defences

### 22.4 Adaptive immunity

Maturation of T cells and B cells

Types of adaptive immunity

Clonal selection: the principle

Antigens and antigen receptors

Major histocompatibility complex antigens

Pathways of antigen processing

Cytokines

### 22.5 Cell-mediated immunity

Activation of T cells

Activation and clonal selection of helper T cells

Activation and clonal selection of cytotoxic T cells

Elimination of invaders

Immunological surveillance

### 22.6 Antibody-mediated immunity

Activation and clonal selection of B cells

Antibodies

Immunological memory

### 22.7 Self-recognition and self-tolerance

### 22.8 Stress and immunity

### 22.9 Ageing and the immune system

*Medical terminology / Chapter review / Critical thinking questions / Answers to figure questions*

## 23 THE RESPIRATORY SYSTEM E-CHAPTER

### 23.1 Respiratory system anatomy

Nose

Pharynx

Larynx

The structures of voice production

Trachea

Bronchi

Lungs

Patency of the respiratory system

### 23.2 Pulmonary ventilation

Pressure changes during pulmonary ventilation

Other factors affecting pulmonary ventilation

Breathing patterns and modified breathing movements

### 23.3 Lung volumes and capacities

### 23.4 Exchange of oxygen and carbon dioxide

Gas laws: Dalton's law and Henry's law

External and internal respiration

### 23.5 Transport of oxygen and carbon dioxide

Oxygen transport

Carbon dioxide transport

Summary of gas exchange and transport in lungs and tissues

**23.6 Control of breathing**

Respiratory centre  
Regulation of the respiratory centre

**23.7 Exercise and the respiratory system****23.8 Development of the respiratory system****23.9 Ageing and the respiratory system**

*Medical terminology / Chapter review / Critical thinking questions / Answers to figure questions*

**24 THE DIGESTIVE SYSTEM** E-CHAPTER**24.1 Overview of the digestive system****24.2 Layers of the GI tract**

Mucosa  
Submucosa  
Muscularis  
Serosa

**24.3 Neural innervation of the GI tract**

Enteric nervous system  
Autonomic nervous system  
Gastrointestinal reflex pathways

**24.4 Peritoneum****24.5 Mouth**

Salivary glands  
Tongue  
Teeth  
Mechanical and chemical digestion in the mouth

**24.6 Pharynx****24.7 Oesophagus**

Histology of the oesophagus  
Physiology of the oesophagus

**24.8 Deglutition****24.9 Stomach**

Anatomy of the stomach  
Histology of the stomach  
Mechanical and chemical digestion in the stomach

**24.10 Pancreas**

Anatomy of the pancreas  
Histology of the pancreas  
Composition and functions of pancreatic juice

**24.11 Liver and gall bladder**

Anatomy of the liver and gall bladder  
Histology of the liver and gall bladder  
Blood supply of the liver  
Functions of the liver and gall bladder

**24.12 Small intestine**

Anatomy of the small intestine  
Histology of the small intestine  
Role of intestinal juice and brush-border enzymes  
Mechanical digestion in the small intestine

Chemical digestion in the small intestine

Absorption in the small intestine

**24.13 Large intestine**

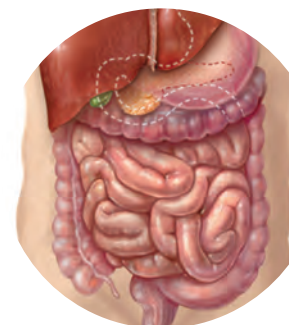
Anatomy of the large intestine  
Histology of the large intestine  
Mechanical digestion in the large intestine  
Chemical digestion in the large intestine  
Absorption and faeces formation in the large intestine  
The defecation reflex

**24.14 Phases of digestion**

Cephalic phase  
Gastric phase  
Intestinal phase  
Other hormones of the digestive system

**24.15 Development of the digestive system****24.16 Ageing and the digestive system**

*Medical terminology / Chapter review / Critical thinking questions / Answers to figure questions*

**25 METABOLISM AND NUTRITION** E-CHAPTER**25.1 Metabolic reactions**

Coupling of catabolism and anabolism by ATP

**25.2 Energy transfer**

Oxidation–reduction reactions  
Mechanisms of ATP generation

**25.3 Carbohydrate metabolism**

The fate of glucose  
Glucose movement into cells  
Glucose catabolism  
Glucose anabolism

**25.4 Lipid metabolism**

Transport of lipids by lipoproteins  
Sources and significance of blood cholesterol  
The fate of lipids  
Triglyceride storage  
Lipid catabolism: lipolysis  
Lipid anabolism: lipogenesis

**25.5 Protein metabolism**

The fate of proteins  
Protein catabolism  
Protein anabolism

**25.6 Key molecules at metabolic crossroads**

The role of glucose 6-phosphate  
The role of pyruvic acid  
The role of acetyl coenzyme A

**25.7 Metabolic adaptations**

Metabolism during the absorptive state

## xii CONTENTS

Metabolism during the postabsorptive state

Metabolism during fasting and starvation

### 25.8 Heat and energy balance

Metabolic rate

Body temperature homeostasis

Energy homeostasis and regulation of food intake

### 25.9 Nutrition

Guidelines for healthy eating

Minerals

Vitamins

*Medical terminology / Chapter review / Critical thinking questions / Answers to figure questions*

## 26 THE URINARY SYSTEM E-CHAPTER

### 26.1 Overview of kidney functions

### 26.2 Anatomy and histology of the kidneys

External anatomy of the kidneys

Internal anatomy of the kidneys

Blood and nerve supply of the kidneys

The nephron

### 26.3 Overview of renal physiology

### 26.4 Glomerular filtration

The filtration membrane

Net filtration pressure

Glomerular filtration rate

### 26.5 Tubular reabsorption and tubular secretion

Principles of tubular reabsorption and secretion

Reabsorption and secretion in the proximal convoluted tubule

Reabsorption in the nephron loop

Reabsorption in the early distal convoluted tubule

Reabsorption and secretion in the late distal convoluted tubule and collecting duct

Homeostatic regulation of tubular reabsorption and tubular secretion

### 26.6 Production of dilute and concentrated urine

Formation of dilute urine

Formation of concentrated urine

### 26.7 Evaluation of kidney function

Urinalysis

Blood tests

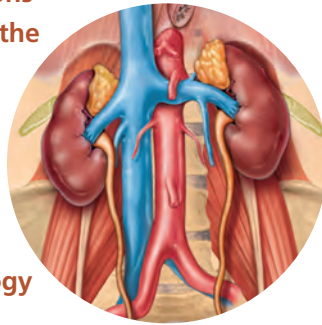
Renal plasma clearance

### 26.8 Urine transportation, storage, and elimination

Ureters

Urinary bladder

Urethra



### 26.9 Waste management in other body systems

### 26.10 Development of the urinary system

### 26.11 Ageing and the urinary system

*Medical terminology / Chapter review / Critical thinking questions / Answers to figure questions*

## 27 FLUID, ELECTROLYTE, AND ACID–BASE HOMEOSTASIS E-CHAPTER

### 27.1 Fluid compartments and fluid homeostasis

Sources of body water gain and loss

Regulation of body water gain

Regulation of water and solute loss

Movement of water between body fluid compartments

### 27.2 Electrolytes in body fluids

Concentrations of electrolytes in body fluids

Sodium

Chloride

Potassium

Bicarbonate

Calcium

Phosphate

Magnesium

### 27.3 Acid–base balance

The actions of buffer systems

Exhalation of carbon dioxide

Kidney excretion of H<sup>+</sup>

Acid–base imbalances

### 27.4 Ageing and fluid, electrolyte, and acid–base homeostasis

*Chapter review / Critical thinking questions / Answers to figure questions*

## 28 THE REPRODUCTIVE SYSTEMS E-CHAPTER

### 28.1 Male reproductive system

Scrotum

Testes

Reproductive system ducts in males

Accessory sex glands

Semen

Penis

### 28.2 Female reproductive system

Ovaries

Uterine tubes

Uterus

Vagina

Vulva

Perineum

Mammary glands

**28.3 The female reproductive cycle**

Hormonal regulation of the female reproductive cycle  
Phases of the female reproductive cycle

**28.4 Birth control methods and abortion**

Birth control methods  
Abortion

**28.5 Development of the reproductive systems****28.6 Ageing and the reproductive systems**

*Medical terminology / Chapter review / Critical thinking questions / Answers to figure questions*

## 29 DEVELOPMENT AND INHERITANCE E-CHAPTER

**29.1 Embryonic period**

First week of development  
Second week of development  
Third week of development  
Fourth week of development  
Fifth through eighth weeks of development

**29.2 Foetal period****29.3 Teratogens**

Chemicals and drugs  
Cigarette smoking  
Irradiation

**29.4 Prenatal diagnostic tests**

Foetal ultrasonography



Amniocentesis

Chorionic villi sampling

Noninvasive prenatal tests

**29.5 Maternal changes during pregnancy**

Hormones of pregnancy

Changes during pregnancy

**29.6 Exercise and pregnancy****29.7 Labour****29.8 Adjustments of the infant at birth**

Respiratory adjustments

Cardiovascular adjustments

**29.9 The physiology of lactation****29.10 Inheritance**

Genotype and phenotype

Variations on dominant–recessive inheritance

Autosomes, sex chromosomes, and sex determination

Sex-linked inheritance

*Medical terminology / Chapter review / Critical thinking questions / Answers to figure questions*

APPENDIX A: MEASUREMENTS 749

APPENDIX B: PERIODIC TABLE 751

APPENDIX C: NORMAL VALUES FOR SELECTED BLOOD TESTS 752

APPENDIX D: NORMAL VALUES FOR SELECTED URINE TESTS 754

GLOSSARY 756 ENDNOTES 785 CREDITS 790 INDEX 793

## CHAPTER 1

*Noninvasive diagnostic techniques* 5  
*Autopsy* 8  
*Diagnosis of disease* 12

## CHAPTER 2

*Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)* 31  
*Free radicals and antioxidants* 32  
*Mushrooms for healthy bones* 46  
*Fatty acids in health and disease* 48  
*DNA fingerprinting* 55  
*Gene doping* 56  
*Energy pathways for exercise* 57

## CHAPTER 3

*Blue-ringed octopus and sodium channel blockade* 68  
*Medical uses of isotonic, hypertonic, and hypotonic solutions* 71  
*Digitalis increases Ca<sup>2+</sup> in heart muscle cells* 73  
*Viruses and receptor-mediated endocytosis* 74  
*Phagocytosis and microbes* 75  
*Cilia and smoking* 80  
*Smooth ER and drug tolerance* 81  
*Tay-Sachs disease* 85  
*Proteasomes and disease* 85  
*Mitochondria and high-intensity interval training (HIIT)* 87  
*Genomics* 88  
*Next generation sequencing and incidental findings* 94  
*miRNA7 and cancer* 97  
*Free radicals* 103

## CHAPTER 4

*Biopsy* 111  
*Basement membranes and disease* 114  
*Papanicolaou test* 122  
*Barrett's oesophagus* 125  
*Chondroitin sulphate, glucosamine, and joint disease* 127  
*Fat of different colours?* 129  
*Stem cell therapy for cartilage repair* 136  
*Adhesions* 142

## CHAPTER 5

*Skin grafts* 151  
*Psoriasis* 152  
*Stretch marks* 153  
*Tension lines and surgery* 153

*Albinism and vitiligo* 154  
*Melanoma* 154  
*Hair removal* 157  
*Chemotherapy and hair loss* 157  
*Hair and hormones* 157  
*Acne, depression, and isotretinoin* 158  
*Impacted cerumen* 160  
*Exercise-induced urticaria* 163  
*RacingthePlanet* 166  
*Sun damage, sunscreens, and sunblocks* 169

## CHAPTER 6

*Nano engineering advances bone-forming material* 182  
*Remodelling and orthodontics* 189  
*Paget's disease of bone in Australia* 189  
*Hormonal abnormalities that affect height* 190  
*Handy recovery time* 191  
*A bone to pick with cyclists* 194

## CHAPTER 7

*CleftPALS Queensland* 214  
*Temporomandibular joint syndrome* 215  
*Deviated nasal septum* 216  
*Australians suffering sinusitis* 220  
*Crouch, bind, set!* 224  
*Caudal anaesthesia* 231  
*Ribs and rowing* 234

## CHAPTER 8

*Fractured clavicle* 241  
*Hitting the wall* 248  
*Pelvimetry* 253  
*Fun runner's knee* 257  
*Bone grafting* 258  
*Fractures of the metatarsals* 259  
*Flatfoot and clawfoot* 261

## CHAPTER 9

*Osteitis pubis* 270  
*Autologous chondrocyte implantation* 271  
*Torn cartilage and arthroscopy* 272  
*Measurement of 3D joint movement* 273  
*General range differences between sports* 282  
*Rotator cuff injury, dislocated and separated shoulder, and torn glenoid labrum* 288  
*Osseointegration* 295

## CHAPTER 10

*Fibromyalgia* 303  
*'Riding in reverse': the muscular benefits of eccentric cycling* 305  
*Rigor mortis* 315  
*Understanding of muscular dystrophy* 317  
*Hypoxia-inducible factor (HIF) and improved muscle oxygen efficiency* 320  
*Anaerobic training versus aerobic training* 324  
*Hypotonia and hypertonia* 324  
*Anabolic steroids* 327  
*Omega-3 fatty acids supporting ageing muscle* 332

## CHAPTER 11

*Intramuscular injections* 341  
*Benefits of stretching* 343  
*Bell's palsy* 347  
*Strabismus* 350  
*Gravity and the mandible* 352  
*Intubation during anaesthesia* 355  
*Dysphagia* 357  
*Forward head posture* 359  
*Inguinal hernia* 361  
*Injury of levator ani and urinary stress incontinence* 367  
*Impingement syndrome* 373  
*(A)symmetry of muscles in sport* 378  
*Carpal tunnel syndrome* 385  
*Back injuries and heavy lifting* 388  
*Compression garments* 391  
*Pulled hamstrings* 395  
*Achilles tendon* 398

## CHAPTER 12

*Regulating your temperature* 412  
*Neurotoxins and local anaesthetics* 432  
*Assessing maximal rate of force contraction* 437  
*Neurotransmitters and exercise* 440  
*Modifying the effects of neurotransmitters* 445  
*Neuroblastoma* 448

## CHAPTER 13

*Spinal cord injuries* 454  
*Injuries to the phrenic nerves* 463  
*Injuries to nerves emerging from the brachial plexus* 464



*Accredited exercise physiologists* 466  
*Injuries to the lumbar plexus* 469  
*Lumbar–pelvic instability* 470  
*Reflexes and diagnosis* 479  
*Paralympians on the world stage* 481

**CHAPTER 14**  
*Breaching the blood–brain barrier* 490  
*Epidural anaesthetic and lumbar puncture* 492  
*Injury to the medulla* 497  
*Ataxia* 501  
*Brain control of skilled motor movements* 511  
*Aphasia* 512  
*Concussion in sport* 515  
*Dental anaesthesia* 515  
*Anosmia* 516  
*Anopia* 517  
*Strabismus, ptosis, and diplopia* 519  
*Trigeminal neuralgia* 520  
*Bell’s palsy* 521  
*Vertigo, ataxia, nystagmus, and tinnitus* 522  
*Dysphagia, aptyalia, and ageusia* 523  
*Vagal neuropathy, dysphagia, and tachycardia* 524  
*Paralysis of the sternocleidomastoid and trapezius muscles* 525  
*Dysarthria and dysphagia* 526  
*Exercise and the brain* 530

**CHAPTER 15**  
*Vasovagal shock: rugby player faints at tackle* 545  
*Horner’s syndrome* 547  
*Bladder control* 548

**CHAPTER 16**  
*Plyometrics and the stretch shortening cycle* 561  
*Proprioceptive neuromuscular facilitation* 564  
*Phantom limb sensation* 566  
*Falls prevention in the elderly* 568  
*Muscle tone* 571  
*Syphilis* 575  
*Paralysis* 576  
*Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis* 577  
*Disorders of the basal nuclei* 581  
*Sleep disorders* 583  
*Amnesia* 584

**CHAPTER 17**  
*Hyposmia* 592  
*Taste aversion* 595  
*Red eye* 599  
*Detached retina in sport* 602  
*Age-related macular disease* 605  
*Presbyopia* 605  
*LASIK* 606  
*Colour blindness and night blindness* 609  
*Glue ear* 617  
*Loud sounds and hair cell damage* 617  
*Cochlear implants* 619  
*Motion sickness* 625

**CHAPTER 18**  
*Blocking hormone receptors* 635  
*Administering hormones* 636  
*High-intensity sport triggers cortisol responses* 640  
*Athletes and insulinlike growth hormone* 644  
*Oxytocin and childbirth* 646  
*Congenital adrenal hyperplasia* 658  
*The adrenal medulla in the midst of heart failure* 659  
*New technology in type 1 diabetes* 663  
*Seasonal affective disorder and jet lag* 664  
*Nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs* 665  
*Posttraumatic stress disorder* 668

**CHAPTER 19**  
*The Athlete Biological Passport* 679  
*Platelets — more than just a clotting agent!* 682  
*Bone marrow examination* 683  
*Medical uses of haemopoietic growth factors* 685  
*Carbon monoxide poisoning — the silent killer* 686  
*Iron overload and tissue damage* 688  
*Reticulocyte count* 688  
*Blood doping* 689  
*Complete blood count* 692  
*Genetic emphysema* 692  
*Aspirin and thrombolytic agents* 698  
*Haemolytic disease of the newborn* 700  
*Anticoagulants* 701

**CHAPTER 20**  
*Cardiopulmonary resuscitation* 709  
*Myocarditis and endocarditis* 709

*Ageing and the heart* 714  
*Heart valve disorders* 717  
*Myocardial ischaemia and infarction* 720  
*Artificial pacemakers* 722  
*Heart murmurs* 730  
*The dive reflex* 733  
*Heart rate variability* 735  
*Chemotherapy and heart health* 735

**CHAPTER 21 E-CHAPTER**  
*Angiogenesis and disease*  
*Central venous catheter placement*  
*Oedema*  
*Syncope*  
*Carotid sinus massage and carotid sinus syncope*  
*Pulmonary embolus in a skier*  
*Cauliflower ears in high-impact sports*  
*Coronary heart disease and cardiac stent*

**CHAPTER 22 E-CHAPTER**  
*Metastasis through lymphatic vessels*  
*Ruptured spleen*  
*Tonsillitis*  
*Microbial evasion of phagocytosis*  
*Abscesses and ulcers*  
*Cytokine therapy*  
*Cancer and immunosurveillance*  
*Monoclonal antibodies*  
*Cancer immunology*  
*Immunity and exercise*  
*Immunosenescence*

**CHAPTER 23 E-CHAPTER**  
*Rhinoplasty*  
*Tonsillectomy*  
*Laryngitis and cancer of the larynx*  
*Tracheotomy and intubation*  
*Exercise-induced asthma in athletes*  
*Pneumothorax and haemothorax*  
*Cystic fibrosis and sweating*  
*Measuring ventilation outside the exercise laboratory*  
*Respiratory muscle training for COPD patients*  
*Hyperbaric oxygenation*  
*Carbon monoxide poisoning*  
*Hypoxia*  
*Effects of smoking on the respiratory system*

**CHAPTER 24** E-CHAPTER

Peritonitis  
 Mumps  
 Root canal therapy  
 Gastroesophageal reflux disease  
 Pylorospasm and pyloric stenosis  
 Chemotherapy-induced nausea and vomiting  
 Pancreatitis and pancreatic cancer  
 Jaundice  
 Liver function tests  
 Gallstones  
 GI distress in athletes  
 Absorption of alcohol  
 Appendicitis  
 Polyps in the colon  
 Occult blood  
 FODMAPs diet  
 Coeliac disease in athletes

**CHAPTER 25** E-CHAPTER

AIS supplements framework  
 Ketosis  
 Muscle protein synthesis  
 Hypothermia  
 Emotional eating

Factors contributing to weight loss  
 Maggie Beer Foundation and aged care

**CHAPTER 26** E-CHAPTER

Nephroptosis (floating kidney)  
 Loss of plasma proteins in urine causes oedema  
 Glucosuria  
 Diuretics  
 Urinalysis in professional cycling  
 Diabetes and renal disease  
 Urinary incontinence and overactive bladder  
 Exercise-associated hypernatraemia: not just water intoxication

**CHAPTER 27** E-CHAPTER

Dehydration in the elderly  
 Dietary salt and chronic kidney disease  
 Alcohol and hydration for athletes  
 Exercise-associated hyponatraemia  
 Diagnosis of acid–base imbalances

**CHAPTER 28** E-CHAPTER

Endurance mountain biking and the testicles  
 Prostate cancer and androgen deprivation therapy

Circumcision  
 Premature ejaculation  
 Polycystic ovarian disease (PCOD)  
 Uterine prolapse  
 Hysterectomy  
 Episiotomy  
 Breast augmentation and reduction  
 Fibrocystic disease of the breasts  
 Female athlete triad: disordered eating, amenorrhea, and premature osteoporosis  
 Training during pregnancy

**CHAPTER 29** E-CHAPTER

Stem cell research and therapeutic cloning  
 Ectopic pregnancy  
 Anencephaly  
 Placenta previa  
 Early pregnancy tests  
 Pregnancy-induced hypertension  
 Physical activity during pregnancy  
 Dystocia and caesarean section  
 Premature infants

## FOCUS ON HOMEOSTASIS

**CHAPTER 5** Integumentary system 170**CHAPTER 8** Skeletal system 264**CHAPTER 11** Muscular system 405**CHAPTER 15** Nervous system 556**CHAPTER 18** Endocrine system 670**CHAPTER 21** Cardiovascular system E-CHAPTER**CHAPTER 22** Lymphatic system and immunity E-CHAPTER**CHAPTER 23** Respiratory system E-CHAPTER**CHAPTER 24** Digestive system E-CHAPTER**CHAPTER 26** Urinary system E-CHAPTER**CHAPTER 28** Reproductive systems E-CHAPTER

# PREFACE

Creating the first ever Asia–Pacific edition of an anatomy and physiology resource has been an exciting ride! As a multidisciplinary author team we are bound by a common passion to make the anatomy and physiology course a springboard to a rewarding career in a range of health-related professions. We have created an extensive body of features that bring anatomy and physiology concepts to life through sport, exercise science and clinical scenarios students will easily relate to. The central theme of this resource — homeostasis — is a universal one, but we have strived to deliver deeper student engagement and understanding through the context, examples and applications we have highlighted from our local region.

We couldn't have built a resource of this magnitude on our own, and would like to extend our heartfelt thanks to all our academic colleagues who reviewed our work, the participants of our digital advisory boards and the attendees of Wiley's 'Insights into improving student outcomes and increasing retention in A&P' events. We would also like to thank Jerry Tortora and Bryan Derrickson for the outstanding source material, and the team at Wiley Australia for their support and encouragement throughout this journey. Wiley's commitment to affordability in this subject area is something we warmly welcome as an author team who want to see our resource as accessible as possible for students in our region. Special thanks to Terry Burkitt (Publishing Manager), Kylie Challenor (Managing Content Editor), Rebecca Cam (Digital Content Editor), Anne-Marie Seymour (National Marketing Manager), Delia Sala (Graphic Designer) and Jo Hawthorne (Senior Composition Coordinator).

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*August 2015*

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Above all, Jerry is devoted to his students and their aspirations. In recognition of this commitment, Jerry was the recipient of MACUB's 1992 President's Memorial Award. In 1996, he received a National Institute for Staff and Organizational Development (NISOD) excellence award from the University of Texas and was selected to represent Bergen Community College in a campaign to increase awareness of the contributions of community colleges to higher education.

Jerry is the author of several best-selling science textbooks and laboratory manuals, a calling that often requires an additional 40 hours per week beyond his teaching responsibilities. Nevertheless, he still makes time for four or five weekly aerobic workouts that include biking and running. He also enjoys attending college basketball and professional hockey games and performances at the Metropolitan Opera House.

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**Gregory Peoples** (Bachelor of Biomedical Science, first class honours; PhD) is currently a Senior Lecturer in the School of Medicine at the University of Wollongong. His primary training is medical science with a particular research focus on exercise and nutritional physiology. His research publications have emphasised the important role of omega-3 fish oil in the human diet to optimise heart and skeletal muscle function. Gregory has ten years' experience coordinating and lecturing undergraduate human anatomy and physiology at the University of Wollongong. His programs have been designed and implemented for students studying courses in exercise science and nutrition and have an emphasis on the applied nature of these professions, underpinned with a sound application of science.

# HOW TO USE THIS RESOURCE

## 15 The autonomic nervous system

### The autonomic nervous system and homeostasis

The autonomic nervous system contributes to homeostasis by responding to subconscious visceral sensations and exciting or inhibiting smooth muscle, cardiac muscle, and glands.

In this chapter, the peripheral nervous system is divided into somatic nervous system (SNS) and autonomic nervous system (ANS). Like the somatic nervous system, the autonomic nervous system (ANS) (aw'-tō-NOM-ik) operates via reflex arcs. (The derivation is auto- = self; -nomic = law.) Structurally, the ANS includes autonomic sensory neurons, integrating centres in the central nervous system (CNS), autonomic motor neurons, and the enteric division or enteric nervous system (ENS).

A continual flow of nerve impulses from (1) autonomic sensory neurons in visceral organs and blood vessels propagate into (2) integrating centres in the CNS. Then, impulses in (3) autonomic motor neurons propagate to various effector tissues, thereby regulating the activity of smooth muscle, cardiac muscle, and many glands. The ANS usually operates without conscious control.

The Rugby Union's Bledisloe Cup is played annually between the New Zealand All Blacks and Australian Wallabies. The cup was donated by Lord Bledisloe, former Governor-General of New Zealand, in 1931. The All Blacks team performs a 'Haka' at the beginning of all rugby matches — a traditional Māori ceremonial war dance. This is an activity adopted by the New Zealand rugby players prior to competitions as a challenge to the opposition. The players in black — the All Blacks —



are all charged with high energy. They are reciting the Haka in excitement, jumping, their eyes are wide open with dilated pupils. The players have an elevated heart rate and blood pressure and increased perspiration as well. These signs are all due to sympathetic nervous system stimulation.

The sympathetic nervous system is one of the two divisions of the autonomic nervous system. It is responsible for the 'fight or flight' response, the physiologic changes that occur during a state of emergency or stress. These physiologic changes give the subject added strength during emergency states. In the case of these players, it is the anticipation of the game and physical stress that causes an increase in sympathetic outflow. The parasympathetic system works opposite to the sympathetic nervous system and controls physiologic activities opposite those seen in these excited rugby players at the beginning of the Bledisloe cup.

Did you ever wonder how some blood pressure medications exert their effects through the autonomic nervous system?

536

A short opening case frames the context of the chapter using a real-world clinical or sports example relevant to Australia, New Zealand and the Asia-Pacific.

Impacting visuals highlight key anatomical structures and functions, including the importance of homeostasis and the mechanisms that support it, using easy-to-understand figures, exhibits and tables.

### Protective coverings of the brain

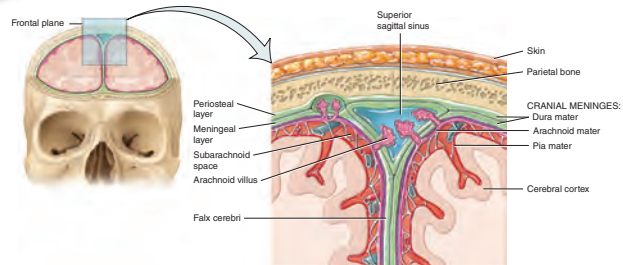
The cranium (see figure 7.4) and the cranial meninges surround and protect the brain. The cranial meninges (me-NIN-jēz) are continuous with the spinal meninges, have the same basic structure, and bear the same names: the outer **dura mater**

14.1 BRAIN ORGANISATION, PROTECTION, AND BLOOD SUPPLY 489

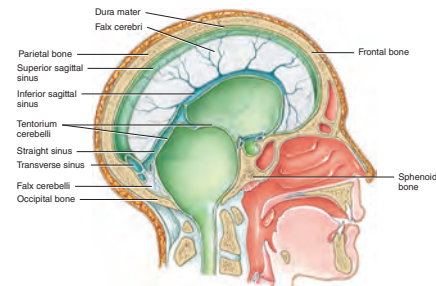
(DOO-ra MĀ-ter), the middle **arachnoid mater** (a-RAK-noyd), and the inner **pia mater** (PĒ-a or PĪ-a) (figure 14.2). However, the cranial dura mater has two layers; the spinal dura mater has only one. The two dural layers are called the **periosteal layer** (which is external) and the **meningeal layer** (which is internal).

Figure 14.2 The protective coverings of the brain.

Key Cranial bones and cranial meninges protect the brain.



(a) Anterior view of frontal section through skull showing the cranial meninges



(b) Sagittal section of extensions of the dura mater

What are the three layers of the cranial meninges, from superficial to deep?

**CLINICAL CONNECTION | New technology in type 1 diabetes**

Type 1 diabetes makes up 10–15 per cent of all diabetes cases. The discovery of insulin nearly 100 years ago has now informed best practice in managing and potentially treating type 1 diabetes. Management of type 1 diabetes has centred on the monitoring of blood sugar levels. Adjustments then focus on a combination of diet to deliver carbohydrates, the regulation of physical activity, and then the injection of insulin to aid in the uptake of glucose into the cells of the body. For a person living with type 1 diabetes, this is a life-long cycle occurring multiple times per day. As such, modern medicine has been focused on how to replace the failed pancreatic beta cells responsible for natural insulin secretion.

Pancreatic islet cell transplant is one strategy that would allow the pancreas to resume the role of glucose maintenance. Given that the mass of these cells is as little as 1–2 per cent of the entire pancreas, the task of cell isolation is challenging. Key aspects of the transplant process to date has been the cell technology in collecting islet cells in large enough numbers. Combined with state-of-the-art immunosuppressant therapy, early success has been demonstrated with patients regaining metabolic control. At the Garvan Institute of Medical Research, Sydney, the question of how to replace the islet cells without coming under attack from the immune system of the patient

is one key area of research. Early studies involving animal models suggest that blocking the work of immune function T cells will allow the survival of the transplanted pancreatic beta cells. In other words, they can be surgically placed into the pancreas of the type 1 diabetic and remain undetected from the natural immune system.

The future treatment of type 1 diabetes look promising. Given that the disease strikes most often in early childhood, this type of cell transplant and combination therapy will literally result in a life-time change for people.<sup>4</sup>



**CHECKPOINT**

- How are blood levels of glucagon and insulin controlled?
- What are the effects of exercise versus eating a carbohydrate- and protein-rich meal on the secretion of insulin and glucagon?

**18.11 Ovaries and testes**

**OBJECTIVE**

- Describe the location, hormones, and functions of the male and female gonads.

**Gonads** are the organs that produce gametes — sperm in males and oocytes in females. In addition to their reproductive function, the gonads secrete hormones. The **ovaries**, paired oval bodies located in the female pelvic cavity, produce several steroid hormones, including two **oestrogens** (estradiol and estrone) and **progesterone**. These female sex hormones, along with follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH) and luteinising hormone (LH) from the anterior pituitary, regulate the menstrual cycle, maintain pregnancy, and prepare the mammary glands for lactation. They also promote enlargement of the breasts and widening of the hips at puberty, and help maintain these female secondary sex characteristics. The ovaries also produce **inhibin**, a protein hormone that inhibits secretion of FSH. During pregnancy, the ovaries and placenta produce a peptide hormone called **relaxin (RLX)**, which increases the flexibility of the pubic symphysis during pregnancy and helps dilate the uterine cervix during labour and delivery. These actions help ease the baby's passage by enlarging the birth canal.

The male gonads, the **testes**, are oval glands that lie in the scrotum. The main hormone produced and secreted by the testes is **testosterone**, an **androgen** or male sex hormone. Testosterone stimulates descent of the testes before birth, regulates production

of sperm, and stimulates the development and maintenance of male secondary sex characteristics, such as beard growth and deepening of the voice. The testes also produce inhibin, which inhibits secretion of FSH. The detailed structure of the ovaries and testes and the specific roles of sex hormones are discussed in chapter 28. **Table 18.10** summarises the hormones produced by the ovaries and testes and their principal actions.

**TABLE 18.10**

**Summary of hormones of the ovaries and testes**

HORMONE	PRINCIPAL ACTIONS
<b>OVARIAN HORMONES</b>	
Oestrogens and progesterone	Together with gonadotrophic hormones of anterior pituitary, regulate female reproductive cycle, maintain pregnancy, prepare mammary glands for lactation, and promote development and maintenance of female secondary sex characteristics.
Relaxin (RLX)	Increases flexibility of pubic symphysis during pregnancy; helps dilate uterine cervix during labour and delivery.
Inhibin	Inhibits secretion of FSH from anterior pituitary.
<b>TESTICULAR HORMONES</b>	
Testosterone	Stimulates descent of testes before birth; regulates sperm production; promotes development and maintenance of male secondary sex characteristics.
Inhibin	Inhibits secretion of FSH from anterior pituitary.

CHAPTER 18

tissue, areolar connective tissue, and blood vessels. Collectively, the vertebral foramina of all vertebrae form the **vertebral (spinal) canal**. The pedicles exhibit superior and inferior indentations called **vertebral notches**. When the vertebral notches are stacked on top of one another, they form an opening between adjoining vertebrae on both sides of the column. Each opening, called an **intervertebral foramen**, permits the passage of a single spinal nerve carrying information to and from the spinal cord.

**Processes**

Seven **processes** arise from the vertebral arch. At the point where a lamina and pedicle join, a **transverse process** extends laterally on each side. A single **spinous process (spine)** projects posteriorly from the junction of the laminae. These three processes serve as points of attachment for muscles. The remaining four processes form joints with other vertebrae above or below. The two **superior articular processes** of a vertebra articulate (form joints) with the two inferior articular processes of the vertebra immediately above them. In turn, the two **inferior articular processes** of that vertebra articulate with the two superior articular processes of the vertebra immediately below them, and so on. The articulating surfaces of

the articular processes, which are referred to as **facets** (FAS-ets or fa-SETS = little faces), are covered with hyaline cartilage. The articulations formed between the vertebral bodies and articular facets of successive vertebrae are termed **intervertebral joints**.

**Regions of the vertebral column**

**Exhibits 7.11** through **7.16** present the five regions of the vertebral column, beginning superiorly and moving inferiorly. The regions are the cervical, thoracic, lumbar, sacral, and coccygeal. Note that vertebrae in each region are numbered in sequence, from superior to inferior. When you actually view the bones of the vertebral column, you will notice that the transition from one region to the next is not abrupt but gradual, a feature that helps the vertebrae fit together.

**Age-related changes in the vertebral column**

With advancing age the vertebral column undergoes changes that are characteristic of the skeletal system in general. These changes include reduction in the mass and density of the bone along with a reduction in the collagen-to-mineral content within the bone, changes that make the bones more brittle and susceptible to damage. The articular surfaces, those surfaces where neighbouring bones move against one another, lose their covering cartilage as they age; in their place rough bony growths form that lead to arthritic conditions. In the vertebral column, bony growths around the intervertebral discs, called **osteophytes**, can lead to a narrowing (stenosis) of the vertebral canal. This narrowing can lead to compression of spinal nerves and the spinal cord, which can manifest as pain and decreased muscle function in the back and lower limbs.

**CHECKPOINT**

- What are the functions of the vertebral column?
- Describe the four curves of the vertebral column.
- What are the three main parts of a typical vertebra?
- What are the principal distinguishing characteristics of the bones of the various regions of the vertebral column?

**SPORT SPOTLIGHT | Crouch, bind, set!**

New Zealand's Accident Compensation Corporation (ACC) paid out almost \$64 million for rugby union injuries during the 2012–13 financial year. Competitive scrummaging is a valued aspect of New Zealand's national game, but plays a role in this significant injury toll. Scrums require a pack of forwards to provide forceful and coordinated collisions at low body height to provide a platform for ball possession. Due to the physical brutality of this phase of play, if executed awkwardly scrums can pose a risk of chronic degenerative injuries to the spine. On very rare occasions, catastrophic cervical spine injuries do occur.

From the junior rugby level, players are educated to use a 'mayday' call — a safety technique used when a player considers a scrum to be collapsing, or when they believe they are in a dangerous position. When the 'mayday' call is sounded, other members of the scrum are encouraged to repeat the call to ensure it is heard by members of both teams and the referee. All players immediately stop pushing to release pressure on the front row and drop to their knees. The front row then simultaneously lands their faces on the ground to protect their necks. The scrum is slowly disassembled from the outside in. A recent All Blacks versus Wallabies match in Sydney was the first match played under a new rule to reduce risk to players in the scrum. The amended referee language to engage both sides of the scrum — 'crouch, bind, set' — requires players to first bind arms before colliding, increasing balance and decreasing the risk of serious spinal injuries.<sup>4</sup>



**7.7 Thorax**

**OBJECTIVE**

- Identify the bones of the thorax and their functions.

The term **thorax** refers to the entire chest region. The skeletal part of the thorax, the **thoracic cage**, is a bony enclosure formed by the sternum, ribs and their costal cartilages, and the bodies of the thoracic vertebrae (see **exhibits 7.1** and **7.10**). The costal cartilages attach the ribs to the sternum. The thoracic cage is narrower at its superior end and broader at its inferior end and is flattened from front to back. It encloses and protects the organs in the thoracic and superior abdominal cavities, provides support for the bones of the upper limbs, and, as you will see in chapter 23, plays a role in breathing.

**CHECKPOINT**

- What bones form the skeleton of the thorax?
- What are the functions of the bones of the thorax?
- How are ribs classified?

**Clinical Connection and Sport Spotlight** vignettes help students understand the relevance of anatomical structures and functions using practical allied health and sports examples specific to Australian, New Zealand and Asia-Pacific audiences.

Following selected chapters, **Focus on Homeostasis** fosters understanding of how each body system contributes to overall homeostasis through its interaction with other systems.

**FOCUS on HOMEOSTASIS**

**SKELETAL SYSTEM**

- Skin helps activate vitamin D, needed for proper absorption of dietary calcium and phosphorus to build and maintain bones

**MUSCULAR SYSTEM**

- Skin helps provide calcium ions, needed for muscle contraction

**NERVOUS SYSTEM**

- Nerve endings in skin and subcutaneous tissue provide input to brain for touch, pressure, thermal, and pain sensations

**ENDOCRINE SYSTEM**

- Keratinocytes in skin help activate vitamin D to calcitriol, a hormone that aids absorption of dietary calcium and phosphorus

**CARDIOVASCULAR SYSTEM**

- Local chemical changes in dermis cause widening and narrowing of skin blood vessels, which help adjust blood flow to skin

**LYMPHATIC SYSTEM and IMMUNITY**

- Skin is 'first line of defence' in immunity, providing mechanical barriers and chemical secretions that discourage penetration and growth of microbes
- Intraepidermal macrophages in epidermis participate in immune responses by recognising and processing foreign antigens
- Macrophages in dermis phagocytose microbes that penetrate skin surface

**RESPIRATORY SYSTEM**

- Hairs in nose filter dust particles from inhaled air
- Stimulation of pain nerve endings in skin may alter breathing rate

**DIGESTIVE SYSTEM**

- Skin helps activate vitamin D to the hormone calcitriol, which promotes absorption of dietary calcium and phosphorus in small intestine

**URINARY SYSTEM**

- Kidney cells receive partially activated vitamin D hormone from skin and convert it to calcitriol
- Some waste products are excreted from body in sweat, contributing to excretion by urinary system

**REPRODUCTIVE SYSTEMS**

- Nerve endings in skin and subcutaneous tissue respond to erotic stimuli, thereby contributing to sexual pleasure
- Suckling of a baby stimulates nerve endings in skin, leading to milk ejection
- Mammary glands (modified sweat glands) produce milk
- Skin stretches during pregnancy as foetus enlarges

**CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE INTEGUMENTARY SYSTEM**

**FOR ALL BODY SYSTEMS**

- Skin and hair provide barriers that protect all internal organs from damaging agents in external environment
- Sweat glands and skin blood vessels regulate body temperature, needed for proper functioning of other body systems

Most chapters in the text are followed by concise discussions of major disorders illustrating departures from normal homeostasis, as well as a glossary of key medical terminology including both normal and pathological conditions.

Generally, tissues heal faster and leave less obvious scars in the young than in the aged. In fact, surgery performed on foetuses leaves no scars at all. The younger body is generally in a better nutritional state, its tissues have a better blood supply, and its cells have a higher metabolic rate. Thus, its cells can synthesise needed materials and divide more quickly. The extracellular components of tissues also change with age. Glucose, the most abundant sugar in the body, plays a role in the ageing process. As the body ages, glucose is haphazardly added to proteins inside and outside cells, forming irreversible cross-links between adjacent protein molecules. With advancing age, more cross-links form, which contributes to the stiffening and loss of elasticity that occur in ageing tissues. Collagen fibres,

responsible for the strength of tendons, increase in number and change in quality with ageing. Changes in the collagen of arterial walls affect the flexibility of arteries as much as the fatty deposits associated with atherosclerosis (see ‘Coronary artery disease’ in the ‘Disorders: Homeostatic imbalances’ section of chapter 20). Elastin, another extracellular component, is responsible for the elasticity of blood vessels and skin. It thickens, fragments, and acquires a greater affinity for calcium with age — changes that may also be associated with the development of atherosclerosis.

**CHECKPOINT**  
24. What common changes occur in epithelial and connective tissues with ageing?

**DISORDERS: HOMEOSTATIC IMBALANCES**

Disorders of epithelial tissue are mainly specific to individual organs, such as peptic ulcer disease (PUD), which erodes the epithelial lining of the stomach or small intestine. For this reason, epithelial disorders are described along with their relevant body systems throughout the text. The most prevalent disorders of connective tissues are **auto-immune diseases** — diseases in which antibodies produced by the immune system fail to distinguish what is foreign from what is self and attack the body’s own tissues. One of the most common auto-immune disorders is rheumatoid arthritis, which attacks the synovial membranes of joints. Because connective tissue is one of the most abundant and widely distributed of the four main types of tissues, disorders related to them often affect multiple body systems. Common disorders of muscular tissues and nervous tissue are described at the ends of chapters 10 and 12, respectively.

**Systemic lupus erythematosus**  
**Systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE)**, (er-i-thé-ma-TO-sút), or simply **lupus**, is a chronic inflammatory disease of connective tissue occurring mostly in nonwhite women during their childbearing years. It is an autoimmune disease that can cause tissue damage in every body system. The disease, which can range from a mild condition in most patients to a rapidly fatal disease, is marked by

periods of exacerbation and remission. The prevalence of SLE is about 1 in 2000, with females more likely to be afflicted than males by a ratio of 8 or 9 to 1.

Although the cause of SLE is unknown, genetic, environmental, and hormonal factors all have been implicated. The genetic component is suggested by studies of twins and family history. Environmental factors include viruses, bacteria, chemicals, drugs, exposure to excessive sunlight, and emotional stress. Sex hormones, such as oestrogens, may also trigger SLE.

Signs and symptoms of SLE include painful joints, low-grade fever, fatigue, mouth ulcers, weight loss, enlarged lymph nodes and spleen, sensitivity to sunlight, rapid loss of large amounts of scalp hair, and anorexia. A distinguishing feature of lupus is an eruption across the bridge of the nose and cheeks called a ‘butterfly rash’. Other skin lesions may occur, including blistering and ulceration. The erosive nature of some SLE skin lesions was thought to resemble the damage inflicted by the bite of a wolf — thus, the name *lupus* (= wolf). The most serious complications of the disease involve inflammation of the kidneys, liver, spleen, lungs, heart, brain, and gastrointestinal tract. Because there is no cure for SLE, treatment is supportive, including anti-inflammatory drugs such as aspirin, and immunosuppressive drugs.

**MEDICAL TERMINOLOGY**

**Atrophy** (AT-ró-fé; a- without; -trophy = nourishment) A decrease in the size of cells, with a subsequent decrease in the size of the affected tissue or organ.

**Hypertrophy** (hi-PÉR-ró-fé; hyper- above) Increase in the size of a tissue because its cells enlarge without undergoing cell division.

**Tissue rejection** An immune response of the body directed at foreign proteins in a transplanted tissue or organ; immunosuppressive drugs, such as cyclosporine, have largely overcome tissue rejection in heart, kidney, and liver-transplant patients.

**Tissue transplantation** The replacement of a diseased or injured tissue or organ. The most successful transplants involve use of a person’s own tissues or those from an identical twin.

**Xenotransplantation** (xé-nó-táns-plán-TÁ-shun; xéno- strange, foreign) The replacement of a diseased or injured tissue or organ with cells or tissues from an animal. Porcine (from pigs) and bovine (from cows) heart valves are used for some heart-valve replacement surgeries.

**CHAPTER REVIEW**

**Review**

**4.1 Types of tissues**

1. A tissue is a group of cells, usually with similar embryological origin, specialised for a particular function.
2. The tissues of the body are classified into four basic types: epithelial, connective, muscular, and nervous.

Each chapter concludes with a chapter review summarising key concepts, as well as critical thinking questions and answers to figure questions.

**CHAPTER REVIEW**

**Review**

**Introduction**

1. Bones protect soft body parts and make movement possible; they also serve as landmarks for locating parts of other body systems.
2. The musculoskeletal system is composed of the bones, joints, and muscles working together.

**7.1 Divisions of the skeletal system (see table 7.1)**

1. The axial skeleton consists of bones arranged along the longitudinal axis. The parts of the axial skeleton are the skull, auditory ossicles (ear bones), hyoid bone, vertebral column, sternum, and ribs.
2. The appendicular skeleton consists of the bones of the girdles and the upper and lower limbs (extremities). The parts of the appendicular skeleton are the pectoral (shoulder) girdles, bones of the upper limbs, pelvic (hip) girdles, and bones of the lower limbs.

**7.2 Types of bones**

1. On the basis of shape, bones are classified as long, short, flat, irregular, or sesamoid. Sesamoid bones develop in tendons or ligaments.
2. Sutural bones are found within the sutures of some cranial bones.

**7.3 Bone surface markings**

1. Surface markings are structural features visible on the surfaces of bones.
2. Each marking — whether a depression, an opening, or a process — is structured for a specific function, such as joint formation, muscle attachment, or passage of nerves and blood vessels (see table 7.2).

**7.4 Skull**

1. The 22 bones of the skull include cranial bones and facial bones.
2. The eight cranial bones are the frontal, parietal (2), temporal (2), occipital, sphenoid, and ethmoid.
3. The 14 facial bones are the nasal (2), maxillae (2), zygomatic (2), lacrimal (2), palatine (2), inferior nasal conchae (2), vomer, and mandible.
4. The nasal septum consists of the vomer, perpendicular plate of the ethmoid, and septal cartilage. The nasal septum divides the nasal cavity into left and right sides.
5. Seven skull bones form each of the orbits (eye sockets).
6. The foramina of the skull bones provide passages for nerves and blood vessels (see table 7.3).
7. Sutures are immovable joints in adults that connect most bones of the skull. Examples are the coronal, sagittal, lambdoid, and squamous sutures.
8. Paranasal sinuses are cavities in bones of the skull that are connected to the nasal cavity. The frontal, sphenoid, and ethmoid bones and the maxillae contain paranasal sinuses.
9. Fontanelles are mesenchyme-filled spaces between the cranial bones of foetuses and infants. The major fontanelles are the anterior, posterior, anterolaterals (2), and posterolaterals (2). After birth, the fontanelles fill in with bone and become sutures.

**7.5 Hyoid bone**

1. The hyoid bone is a U-shaped bone that does not articulate with any other bone.
2. It supports the tongue and provides attachment for some tongue muscles and for some muscles of the pharynx and neck.

**7.6 Vertebral column**

1. The vertebral column, sternum, and ribs constitute the skeleton of the body’s trunk.
2. The 26 bones of the adult vertebral column are the cervical vertebrae (7), the thoracic vertebrae (12), the lumbar vertebrae (5), the sacrum (5 fused vertebrae), and the coccyx (usually 4 fused vertebrae).
3. The adult vertebral column contains four normal curves (cervical, thoracic, lumbar, and sacral) that provide strength, support, and balance.
4. Each vertebra usually consists of a vertebral body, vertebral arch, and seven processes. Vertebrae in the different regions of the column vary in size, shape, and detail.

**7.7 Thorax**

1. The thoracic skeleton consists of the sternum, ribs, costal cartilages, and thoracic vertebrae.
2. The thoracic cage protects vital organs in the chest area and upper abdomen.

**CRITICAL THINKING QUESTIONS**

1. Jimmy is in a car accident. He can’t open his mouth and has been told that he suffers from the following: black eye, broken nose, broken cheek, broken upper jaw, damaged eye socket, and punctured lung. Describe *exactly* what structures have been affected by his car accident.
2. Bubba is a tug-of-war expert. He practices day and night by pulling on a rope attached to an 800-lb anchor. What kinds of changes in his bone structure would you expect him to develop?
3. A new mother brings her newborn infant home and has been told by her well-meaning friend not to wash the baby’s hair for several months because the water and soap could ‘get through that soft area in the top of the head and cause brain damage’. Explain to her why this is not true.

**ANSWERS TO FIGURE QUESTIONS**

- 7.1 The skull and vertebral column are part of the axial skeleton. The clavicle, shoulder girdle, humerus, pelvic girdle, and femur are part of the appendicular skeleton.
- 7.2 Flat bones protect underlying organs and provide a large surface area for muscle attachment.
- 7.3 The frontal, parietal, sphenoid, ethmoid, and temporal bones are all cranial bones (the occipital bone is not shown).
- 7.4 The parietal and temporal bones are joined by the squamous suture, the parietal and occipital bones are joined by the lambdoid suture, and the parietal and frontal bones are joined by the coronal suture.
- 7.5 The temporal bone articulates with the mandible and the parietal, sphenoid, zygomatic, and occipital bones.
- 7.6 The parietal bones form the posterior, lateral portion of the cranium.
- 7.7 The medulla oblongata of the brain connects with the spinal cord in the foramen magnum.
- 7.8 From the crista galli of the ethmoid bone, the sphenoid articulates with the frontal, parietal, temporal, occipital, parietal, and frontal bones, ending again at the crista galli of the ethmoid bone.
- 7.9 The perpendicular plate of the ethmoid bone forms the superior part of the nasal septum, and the lateral masses compose most of the medial walls of the orbits.
- 7.10 The mandible is the only movable skull bone, other than the auditory ossicles.
- 7.11 The nasal septum divides the nasal cavity into right and left sides.
- 7.12 Bones forming the orbit are the frontal, sphenoid, zygomatic, maxilla, lacrimal, ethmoid, and palatine.
- 7.13 The paranasal sinuses produce mucus and serve as resonating chambers for vocalisations.
- 7.14 The paired anterolateral fontanelles are bordered by four different skull bones: the frontal, parietal, temporal, and sphenoid bones.
- 7.15 The hyoid bone is the only bone of the body that does not articulate with any other bone.
- 7.16 The thoracic and sacral curves of the vertebral column are concave relative to the anterior of the body.
- 7.17 The vertebral foramina enclose the spinal cord; the intervertebral foramina provide spaces through which spinal nerves exit the vertebral column.
- 7.18 The atlas moving on the axis at the atlanto-axial joint permits movement of the head to signify ‘no’.
- 7.19 The facets and demifacets on the vertebral bodies of the thoracic vertebrae articulate with the heads of the ribs, and the facets on the transverse processes of these vertebrae articulate with the tubercles of the ribs.
- 7.20 The lumbar vertebrae are the largest and strongest in the body because the amount of weight supported by vertebrae increases towards the inferior end of the vertebral column.
- 7.21 There are four pairs of sacral foramina, for a total of eight. Each anterior sacral foramen joins a posterior sacral foramen at the intervertebral foramen. Nerves and blood vessels pass through these tunnels in the bone.
- 7.22 The body of the sternum articulates directly or indirectly with ribs 2–10.
- 7.23 The facet on the head of a rib fits into a facet or demifacet on the body of a vertebra, and the articular part of the tubercle of a rib articulates with the facet of the transverse process of a vertebra.
- 7.24 Most herniated discs occur in the lumbar region because it bears most of the body weight and most flexing and bending occur there.
- 7.25 Kyphosis is common in individuals with advanced osteoporosis.
- 7.26 Deficiency of folic acid is associated with spina bifida.



# 1

# An introduction to the human body

## The human body and homeostasis

*Humans have many ways to maintain homeostasis, the state of relative stability of the body's internal environment. Disruptions to homeostasis often set in motion corrective cycles, called feedback systems, that help restore the conditions needed for health and life.*

Our author team, comprising pre-eminent academics from Australia, New Zealand and the Asia-Pacific, will take you on a remarkable journey through the human body — beginning with an overview of the meanings of anatomy and physiology, followed by a discussion of the organisation of the human body and the properties that it shares with all living things. Next, you will discover how the body regulates its own internal environment. This unceasing process — called homeostasis — is a major theme in every chapter of this resource. Finally, we introduce the vocabulary that will help you speak about the body in a way that is understood by scientists and healthcare professionals alike.

Homeostasis is a universal concept that our local author team has brought to life through an exciting series of sporting, exercise science and clinical scenarios that you will easily relate to. Take, for example, how dehydration affects brain performance for Formula 1 racers like Mark Webber, or how the Australian Cancer Council's SunSmart program demonstrates the functions of the integumentary system (skin). We explore why fast bowlers and ballet dancers so frequently suffer from stress fractures, how research by the University of Queensland established the cervical cancer vaccine, and even how the New Zealand rugby team's Haka stimulates nerve impulses.



*Did you ever wonder why an autopsy is performed?*

## 1.1 Anatomy and physiology defined

### OBJECTIVE

- **Define** anatomy and physiology, and name several branches of these sciences.

Two branches of science — anatomy and physiology — provide the foundation for understanding the body's parts and functions. **Anatomy** (a-NAT-ō-mē; *ana-* = up; *-tomy* = process of cutting) is the science of body *structures* and the relationships among them. It was first studied by **dissection** (dis-SEK-shun; *dis-* = apart; *-section* = act of cutting), the careful cutting apart of body structures to study their relationships. Today, a variety of imaging techniques (see [table 1.3](#)) also contribute to the advancement of anatomical knowledge. Whereas anatomy deals with structures of the body, **physiology** (fiz'-ē-OL-ō-jē; *physio-* = nature; *-logy* = study of) is the science of body *functions* — how the body parts work. [Table 1.1](#) describes several branches of anatomy and physiology.

Because structure and function are so closely related, you will learn about the human body by studying its anatomy and physi-

ology together. The structure of a part of the body often reflects its functions. For example, the bones of the skull join tightly to form a rigid case that protects the brain. The bones of the fingers are more loosely joined to allow a variety of movements. The walls of the air sacs in the lungs are very thin, permitting rapid movement of inhaled oxygen into the blood.

### CHECKPOINT

1. What body function might a respiratory therapist strive to improve? What structures are involved?
2. Give your own example of how the structure of a part of the body is related to its function.

## 1.2 Levels of structural organisation and body systems

### OBJECTIVES

- **Describe** the body's six levels of structural organisation.
- **List** the 11 systems of the human body, representative organs present in each, and their general functions.

TABLE 1.1

### Selected branches of anatomy and physiology

BRANCH OF ANATOMY	STUDY OF	BRANCH OF PHYSIOLOGY	STUDY OF
<b>Embryology</b> (em'-brē-OL-ō-jē; <i>embry-</i> = embryo; <i>-logy</i> = study of)	The first eight weeks of development after fertilisation of a human egg.	<b>Neurophysiology</b> (NOOR-ō-fiz-ē-ol'-ō-jē; <i>neuro-</i> = nerve)	Functional properties of nerve cells.
<b>Developmental biology</b>	The complete development of an individual from fertilisation to death.	<b>Endocrinology</b> (en'-dō-kri-NOL-ō-jē; <i>endo-</i> = within; <i>-crin</i> = secretion)	Hormones (chemical regulators in the blood) and how they control body functions.
<b>Cell biology</b>	Cellular structure and functions.	<b>Cardiovascular physiology</b> (kar-dē-ō-VAS-kū-lar; <i>cardi-</i> = heart; <i>vascular</i> = blood vessels)	Functions of the heart and blood vessels.
<b>Histology</b> (his-TOL-ō-jē; <i>hist-</i> = tissue)	Microscopic structure of tissues.	<b>Immunology</b> (im'-ū-NOL-ō-jē; <i>immun-</i> = not susceptible)	The body's defences against disease-causing agents.
<b>Gross anatomy</b>	Structures that can be examined without a microscope.	<b>Respiratory physiology</b> (RES-pi-ra-tōr-ē; <i>respira-</i> = to breathe)	Functions of the air passageways and lungs.
<b>Systemic anatomy</b>	Structure of specific systems of the body such as the nervous or respiratory systems.	<b>Renal physiology</b> (RĒ-nal; <i>ren-</i> = kidney)	Functions of the kidneys.
<b>Regional anatomy</b>	Specific regions of the body such as the head or chest.	<b>Exercise physiology</b>	Changes in cell and organ functions due to muscular activity.
<b>Surface anatomy</b>	Surface markings of the body to understand internal anatomy through visualisation and palpation (gentle touch).	<b>Pathophysiology</b> (Path-ō-fiz-ē-ol'-ō-jē)	Functional changes associated with disease and ageing.
<b>Imaging anatomy</b>	Body structures that can be visualised with techniques such as x-rays, MRI, and CT scans.		
<b>Pathological anatomy</b> (path'-ō-LOJ-i-kal; <i>path-</i> = disease)	Structural changes (gross to microscopic) associated with disease.		

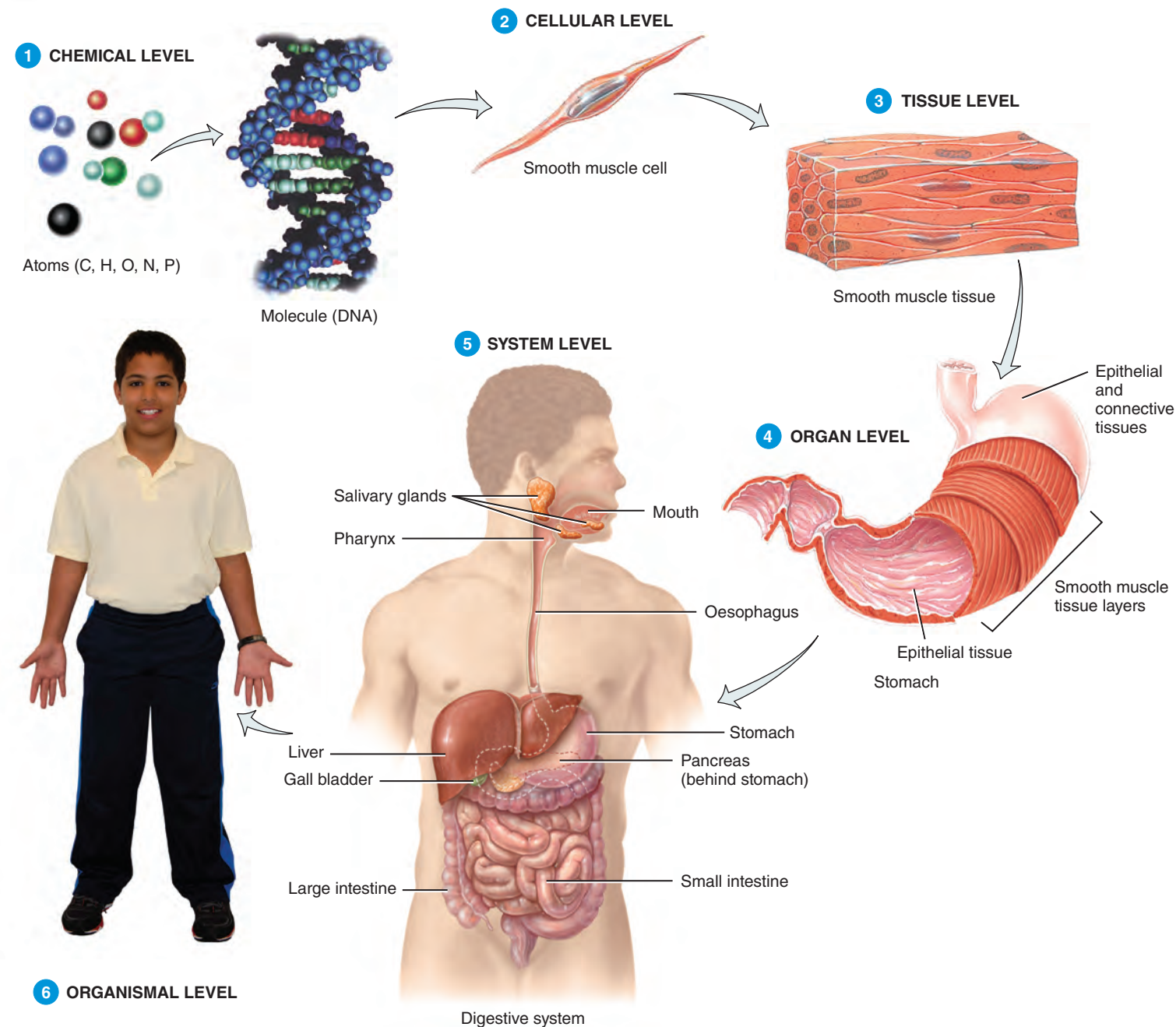
The levels of organisation of a language — letters, words, sentences, paragraphs, and so on — can be compared to the levels of organisation of the human body. Your exploration of the human body will extend from atoms and molecules to the whole person. From the smallest to the largest, six levels of organisation will help you to understand anatomy and physiology: the chemical, cellular, tissue, organ, system, and organismal levels of organisation (figure 1.1).


**1 Chemical level.** This very basic level can be compared to the *letters of the alphabet* and includes **atoms**, the smallest units

of matter that participate in chemical reactions, and **molecules**, two or more atoms joined together. Certain atoms, such as carbon (C), hydrogen (H), oxygen (O), nitrogen (N), phosphorus (P), calcium (Ca), and sulphur (S), are essential for maintaining life. Two familiar molecules found in the body are deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), the genetic material passed from one generation to the next, and glucose, commonly known as blood sugar. Chapters 2 and 25 focus on the chemical level of organisation.

**Figure 1.1** Levels of structural organisation in the human body.

 The levels of structural organisation are chemical, cellular, tissue, organ, system, and organismal.



 Which level of structural organisation is composed of two or more different types of tissues that work together to perform a specific function?

- 2 **Cellular level.** Molecules combine to form **cells**, the basic structural and functional units of an organism that are composed of chemicals. Just as *words* are the smallest elements of language that make sense, cells are the smallest living units in the human body. Among the many kinds of cells in your body are muscle cells, nerve cells, and epithelial cells. **Figure 1.1** shows a smooth muscle cell, one of the three types of muscle cells in the body. The cellular level of organisation is the focus of chapter 3.
- 3 **Tissue level.** **Tissues** are groups of cells and the materials surrounding them that work together to perform a particular function, similar to the way words are put together to form *sentences*. There are just four basic types of tissues in your body: epithelial tissue, connective tissue, muscular tissue, and nervous tissue. *Epithelial tissue* covers body surfaces, lines hollow organs and cavities, and forms glands. *Connective tissue* connects, supports, and protects body organs while distributing blood vessels to other tissues. *Muscular tissue* contracts to make body parts move and generates heat. *Nervous tissue* carries information from one part of the body to another through nerve impulses. Chapter 4 describes the tissue level of organisation in greater detail. Shown in **figure 1.1** is smooth muscle tissue, which consists of tightly packed smooth muscle cells.
- 4 **Organ level.** At the organ level different types of tissues are joined together. Similar to the relationship between sentences and *paragraphs*, **organs** are structures that are composed of two or more different types of tissues; they have specific functions and usually have recognisable

shapes. Examples of organs are the stomach, skin, bones, heart, liver, lungs, and brain. **Figure 1.1** shows how several tissues make up the stomach. The stomach’s outer covering is a layer of epithelial tissue and connective tissue that reduces friction when the stomach moves and rubs against other organs. Underneath are three layers of a type of muscular tissue called *smooth muscle tissue*, which contracts to churn and mix food and then push it into the next digestive organ, the small intestine. The innermost lining is an *epithelial tissue layer* that produces fluid and chemicals responsible for digestion in the stomach.

- 5 **System level.** A **system** (or *chapter* in our language analogy) consists of related organs (*paragraphs*) with a common function. An example of the system level, also called the *organ-system level*, is the digestive system, which breaks down and absorbs food. Its organs include the mouth, salivary glands, pharynx (throat), oesophagus (food tube), stomach, small intestine, large intestine, liver, gall bladder, and pancreas. Sometimes an organ is part of more than one system. The pancreas, for example, is part of both the digestive system and the hormone-producing endocrine system.
- 6 **Organismal level.** An **organism** (OR-ga-nizm), any living individual, can be compared to a *book* in our analogy. All the parts of the human body functioning together constitute the total organism.

In the chapters that follow, you will study the anatomy and physiology of the body systems. **Table 1.2** lists the components and introduces the functions of these systems. You will also discover

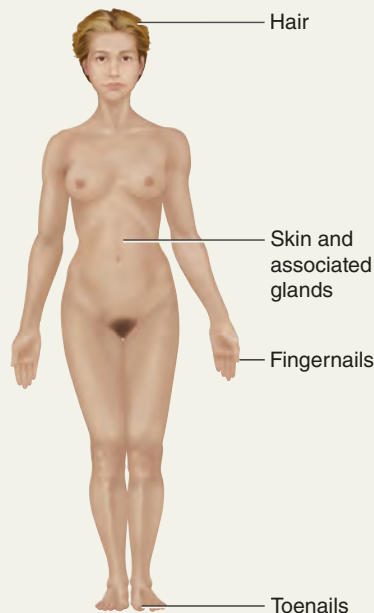
**TABLE 1.2**

**The eleven systems of the human body**

**INTEGUMENTARY SYSTEM (CHAPTER 5)**

**Components:** Skin and associated structures, such as **hair, fingernails and toenails, sweat glands, and oil glands.**

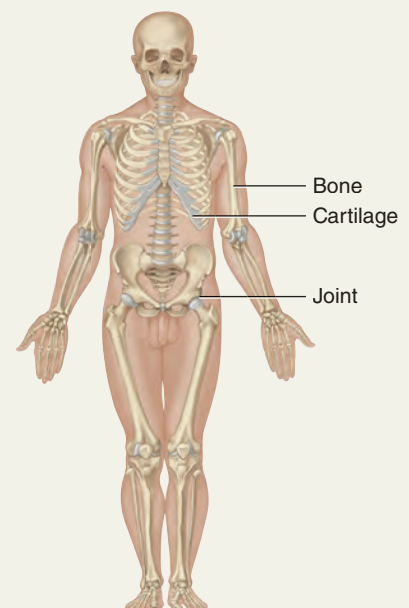
**Functions:** Protects body; helps regulate body temperature; eliminates some wastes; helps make vitamin D; detects sensations such as touch, pain, warmth, and cold; stores fat and provides insulation.



**SKELETAL SYSTEM (CHAPTERS 6–9)**

**Components:** **Bones and joints** of the body and their associated **cartilages.**

**Functions:** Supports and protects body; provides surface area for muscle attachments; aids body movements; houses cells that produce blood cells; stores minerals and lipids (fats).



that all body systems influence one another. As you study each of the body systems in more detail, you will discover how they work together to maintain health, provide protection from disease, and allow for reproduction of the human species.

### CLINICAL CONNECTION | *Noninvasive diagnostic techniques*

Health-care professionals and students of anatomy and physiology commonly use several noninvasive diagnostic techniques to assess certain aspects of body structure and function. A noninvasive diagnostic technique is one that does not involve insertion of an instrument or device through the skin or a body opening. In inspection, the examiner observes the body for any changes that deviate from normal. For example, a physician may examine the mouth cavity for evidence of disease. Following inspection, one or more additional techniques may be employed. In palpation (pal-PĀ-shun; *palp-* = gently touching) the examiner feels body surfaces with the hands. An example is palpating the abdomen to detect enlarged or tender internal organs or abnormal masses. In auscultation (aws-kul-TĀ-shun; *auscult-* = listening) the examiner listens to body sounds to evaluate the functioning of certain organs, often using a stethoscope to amplify the sounds. An example is auscultation of the lungs during breathing to check for crackling sounds associated with abnormal fluid accumulation. In percussion (pur-KUSH-un; *percus-* = beat through) the examiner taps on the body surface with the fingertips and listens to the resulting sound. Hollow cavities or spaces produce a different sound than solid organs. For example, percussion may reveal the abnormal presence of fluid in the lungs or air in the intestines. It may also provide information about the size, consistency, and position of an underlying structure. An understanding of anatomy is important for the effective application of most of these diagnostic techniques. •

## 1.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF THE LIVING HUMAN ORGANISM 5

### CHECKPOINT

3. Define the following terms: atom, molecule, cell, tissue, organ, system, and organism.
4. At what levels of organisation would an exercise physiologist study the human body? (*Hint: refer to table 1.1.*)
5. Referring to [table 1.2](#), which body systems help eliminate wastes?

## 1.3 Characteristics of the living human organism

### OBJECTIVE

- Define the important life processes of the human body.

### Basic life processes

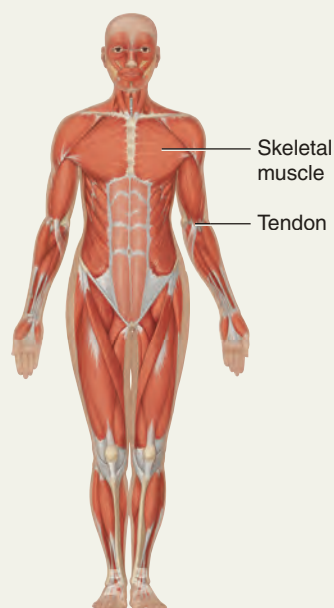
Certain processes distinguish organisms, or living things, from nonliving things. Following are the six most important life processes of the human body.

1. **Metabolism** (me-TAB-ō-lizm) is the sum of all chemical processes that occur in the body. One phase of metabolism is **catabolism** (ka-TAB-ō-lizm; *catabol-* = throwing down; *-ism* = a condition), the breakdown of complex chemical substances into simpler components. The other phase of metabolism is **anabolism** (a-NAB-ō-lizm; *anabol-* = a raising up), the building up of complex chemical substances from smaller, simpler components. For example, digestive processes catabolise (split)

### MUSCULAR SYSTEM (CHAPTERS 10, 11)

**Components:** Specifically, **skeletal muscle** tissue — muscle usually attached to bones (other muscle tissues include smooth and cardiac).

**Functions:** Participates in body movements, such as walking; maintains posture; produces heat.



### NERVOUS SYSTEM (CHAPTERS 12–17)

**Components:** **Brain, spinal cord, nerves**, and special sense organs, such as **eyes and ears**.

**Functions:** Generates action potentials (nerve impulses) to regulate body activities; detects changes in body's internal and external environments, interprets changes, and responds by causing muscular contractions or glandular secretions.

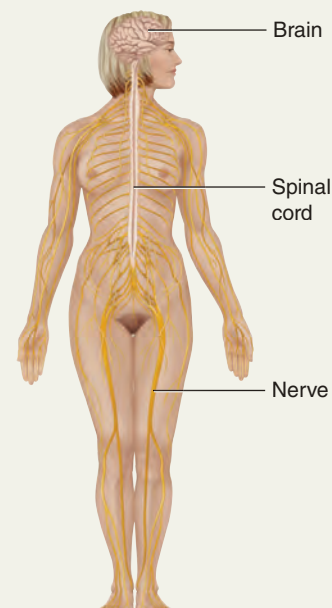


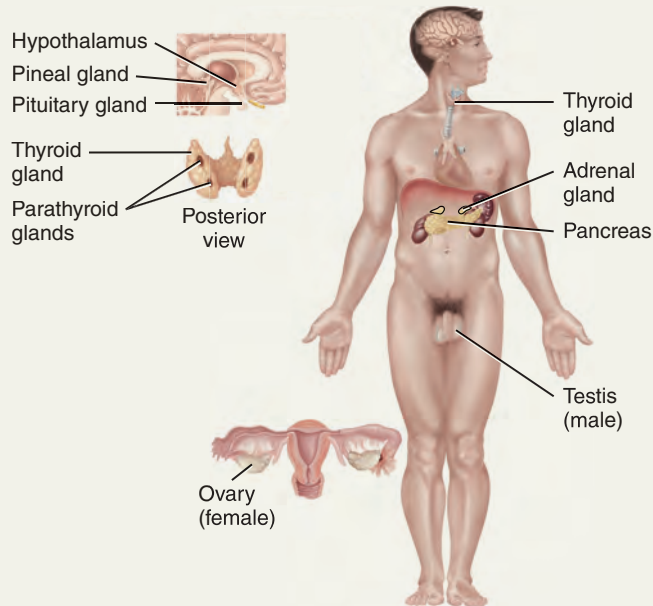
TABLE 1.2 CONTINUED

The eleven systems of the human body

**ENDOCRINE SYSTEM (CHAPTER 18)**

**Components:** Hormone-producing glands (**pineal gland, hypothalamus, pituitary gland, thymus, thyroid gland, parathyroid glands, adrenal glands, pancreas, ovaries, and testes**) and hormone-producing cells in several other organs.

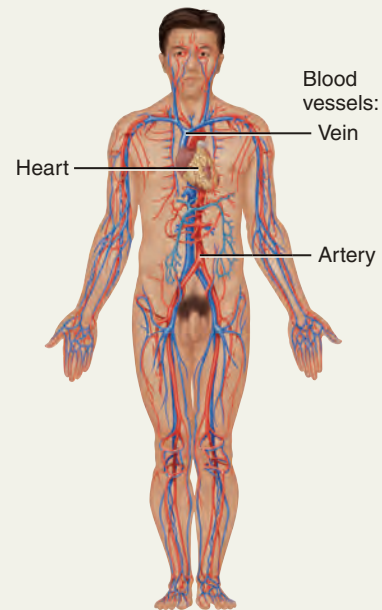
**Functions:** Regulates body activities by releasing hormones (chemical messengers transported in blood from endocrine gland or tissue to target organ).



**CARDIOVASCULAR SYSTEM (CHAPTERS 19–21)**

**Components:** Blood, heart, and blood vessels.

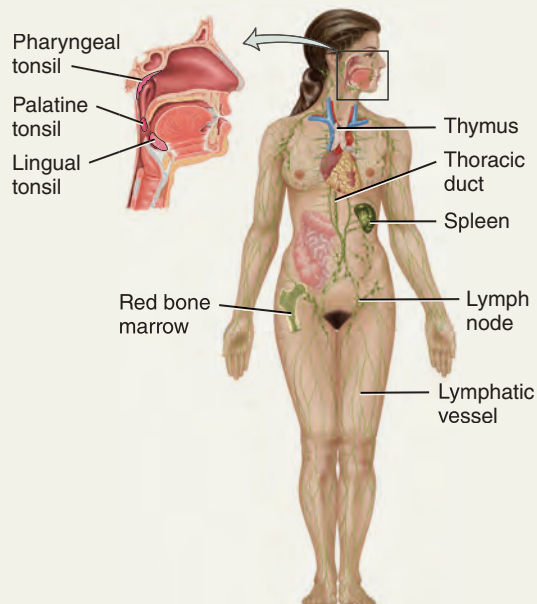
**Functions:** Heart pumps blood through blood vessels; blood carries oxygen and nutrients to cells and carbon dioxide and wastes away from cells and helps regulate acid–base balance, temperature, and water content of body fluids; blood components help defend against disease and repair damaged blood vessels.



**LYMPHATIC SYSTEM AND IMMUNITY (CHAPTER 22)**

**Components:** Lymphatic fluid and vessels; spleen, thymus, lymph nodes, and tonsils; cells that carry out immune responses (**B cells, T cells, and others**).

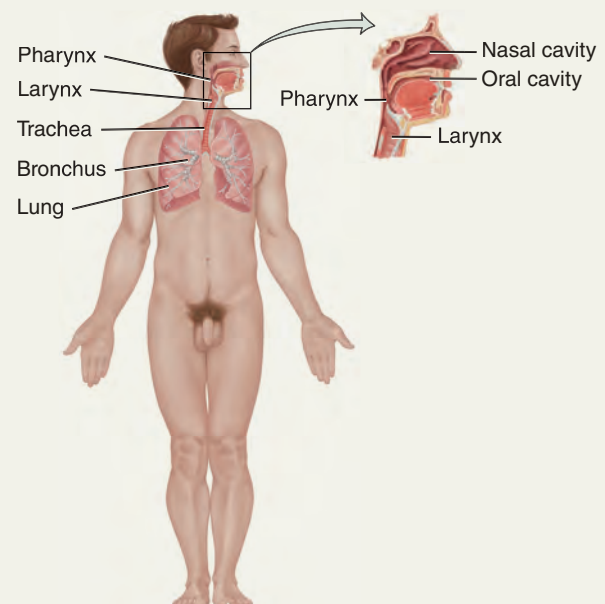
**Functions:** Returns proteins and fluid to blood; carries lipids from gastrointestinal tract to blood; contains sites of maturation and proliferation of B cells and T cells that protect against disease-causing microbes.



**RESPIRATORY SYSTEM (CHAPTER 23)**

**Components:** Lungs and air passageways such as the **pharynx** (throat), **larynx** (voice box), **trachea** (windpipe), and **bronchial tubes** leading into and out of lungs.

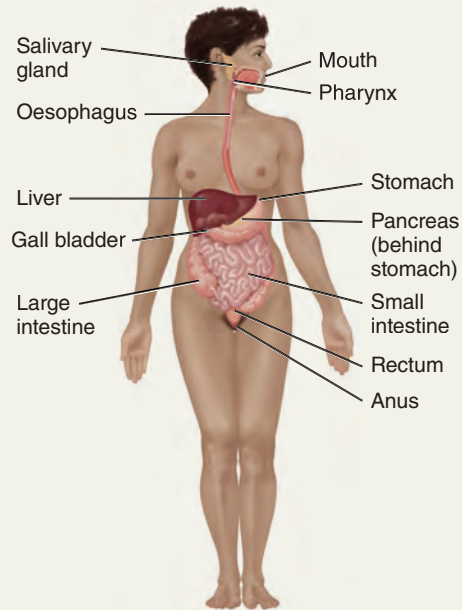
**Functions:** Transfers oxygen from inhaled air to blood and carbon dioxide from blood to exhaled air; helps regulate acid–base balance of body fluids; air flowing out of lungs through vocal cords produces sounds.



**DIGESTIVE SYSTEM (CHAPTER 24)**

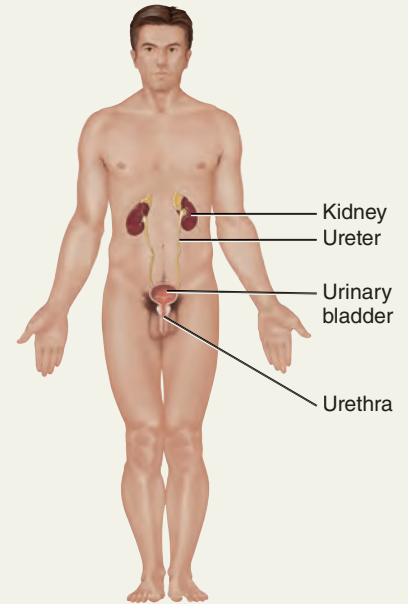
**Components:** Organs of gastrointestinal tract, a long tube that includes the **mouth, pharynx** (throat), **oesophagus** (food tube), **stomach, small and large intestines**, and **anus**; also includes accessory organs that assist in digestive processes, such as **salivary glands, liver, gall bladder, and pancreas**.

**Functions:** Achieves physical and chemical breakdown of food; absorbs nutrients; eliminates solid wastes.

**URINARY SYSTEM (CHAPTER 26)**

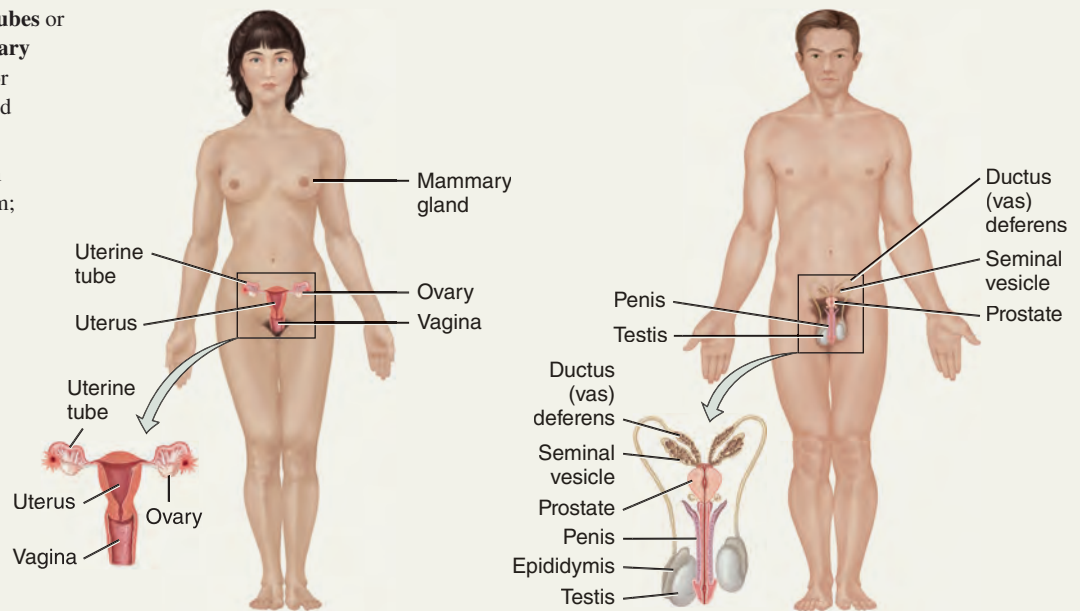
**Components:** **Kidneys, ureters, urinary bladder, and urethra.**

**Functions:** Produces, stores, and eliminates urine; eliminates wastes and regulates volume and chemical composition of blood; helps maintain the acid–base balance of body fluids; maintains body’s mineral balance; helps regulate production of red blood cells.

**REPRODUCTIVE SYSTEMS (CHAPTER 28)**

**Components:** **Gonads** (testes in males and **ovaries** in females) and associated organs (**uterine tubes** or **fallopian tubes, uterus, vagina, and mammary glands** in females and **epididymis, ductus or vas deferens, seminal vesicles, prostate, and penis** in males).

**Functions:** Gonads produce gametes (sperm or oocytes) that unite to form a new organism; gonads also release hormones that regulate reproduction and other body processes; associated organs transport and store gametes; mammary glands produce milk.



proteins in food into amino acids. These amino acids are then used to anabolise (build) new proteins that make up body structures such as muscles and bones.

- 2. Responsiveness** is the body’s ability to detect and respond to changes. For example, an increase in body temperature during a fever represents a change in the internal environment (within the body), and turning your head towards the sound of squealing brakes is a response to a change in the external

environment (outside the body) to prepare the body for a potential threat. Different cells in the body respond to environmental changes in characteristic ways. Nerve cells respond by generating electrical signals known as nerve impulses (action potentials). Muscle cells respond by contracting, which generates force to move body parts.

- 3. Movement** includes motion of the whole body, individual organs, single cells, and even tiny structures inside cells. For

example, the coordinated action of leg muscles moves your whole body from one place to another when you walk or run. After you eat a meal that contains fats, your gall bladder contracts and releases bile into the gastrointestinal tract to help digest them. When a body tissue is damaged or infected, certain white blood cells move from the bloodstream into the affected tissue to help clean up and repair the area. Inside the cell, various parts, such as secretory vesicles (see [figure 3.20](#)), move from one position to another to carry out their functions.

4. **Growth** is an increase in body size that results from an increase in the size of existing cells, an increase in the number of cells, or both. In addition, a tissue sometimes increases in size because the amount of material between cells increases. In a growing bone, for example, mineral deposits accumulate between bone cells, causing the bone to grow in length and width.
5. **Differentiation** (dif'-er-en-shē-Ā-shun) is the development of a cell from an unspecialised to a specialised state. Such precursor cells, which can divide and give rise to cells that undergo differentiation, are known as **stem cells**. As you will see later in the text, each type of cell in the body has a specialised structure or function that differs from that of its precursor (ancestor) cells. For example, red blood cells and several types of white blood cells all arise from the same unspecialised precursor cells in red bone marrow. Also through differentiation, a single fertilised human egg (ovum) develops into an embryo, and then into a foetus, an infant, a child, and finally an adult.
6. **Reproduction** (rē-prō-DUK-shun) refers either to (1) the formation of new cells for tissue growth, repair, or replacement, or (2) the production of a new individual. The formation of new cells occurs through cell division. The production of a new individual occurs through the fertilisation of an ovum by a sperm cell to form a zygote, followed by repeated cell divisions and the differentiation of these cells.

When any one of the life processes ceases to occur properly, the result is death of cells and tissues, which may lead to death of the organism. Clinically, loss of the heartbeat, absence of spontaneous breathing, and loss of brain functions indicate death in the human body.

#### CLINICAL CONNECTION | Autopsy

An autopsy (AW-top-sē = seeing with one's own eyes) or *necropsy* is a postmortem (after death) examination of the body and dissection of its internal organs to confirm or determine the cause of death. An autopsy can uncover the existence of diseases not detected during life, determine the extent of injuries, and explain how those injuries may have contributed to a person's death. It also may provide more information about a disease, assist in the accumulation of statistical data, and educate health-care students. Moreover, an autopsy can reveal conditions that may affect offspring or siblings (such as congenital heart defects). Sometimes an autopsy is legally required, such as during a criminal investigation. It may also be useful in resolving disputes between beneficiaries and insurance companies about the cause of death. •

#### CHECKPOINT

6. List the six most important life processes in the human body.

## 1.4 Homeostasis

### OBJECTIVES

- Define homeostasis.
- Describe the components of a feedback system.
- Contrast the operation of negative and positive feedback systems.
- Explain how homeostatic imbalances are related to disorders.

**Homeostasis** (hō'-mē-ō-STĀ-sis; *homeo-* = sameness; *-stasis* = standing still) is the condition of equilibrium (balance) in the body's internal environment due to the constant interaction of the body's many regulatory processes. Homeostasis is a dynamic condition. In response to changing conditions, the body's equilibrium can shift among points in a narrow range that is compatible with maintaining life. For example, the level of glucose in blood normally stays between 70 and 110 milligrams of glucose per 100 millilitres of blood.\* Each structure, from the cellular level to the system level, contributes in some way to keeping the internal environment of the body within normal limits.

### Homeostasis and body fluids

An important aspect of homeostasis is maintaining the volume and composition of **body fluids**, dilute, watery solutions containing dissolved chemicals that are found inside cells as well as surrounding them. The fluid within cells is **intracellular fluid** (*intra-* = inside), abbreviated **ICF**. The fluid outside body cells is **extracellular fluid (ECF)** (*extra-* = outside). The ECF that fills the narrow spaces between cells of tissues is known as **interstitial fluid** (in'-ter-STISH-al; *inter-* = between). As you progress with your studies, you will learn that the ECF differs depending on where it occurs in the body: ECF within blood vessels is termed **blood plasma**, within lymphatic vessels it is called **lymph**, in and around the brain and spinal cord it is known as **cerebrospinal fluid**, in joints it is referred to as **synovial fluid**, and the ECF of the eyes is called **aqueous humour** and **vitreous body**.

The proper functioning of body cells depends on precise regulation of the composition of the interstitial fluid surrounding them. Because of this, interstitial fluid is often called the body's *internal environment*. The composition of interstitial fluid changes as substances move back and forth between it and blood plasma. Such exchange of materials occurs across the thin walls of the smallest blood vessels in the body, the *blood capillaries*. This movement in both directions across capillary walls provides needed materials, such as glucose, oxygen, ions, and so on, to tissue cells. It also removes wastes, such as carbon dioxide, from interstitial fluid.

\*Appendix A describes metric and imperial measurements.



## Control of homeostasis

Homeostasis in the human body is continually being disturbed. Some disruptions come from the external environment in the form of physical insults such as the intense heat of a hot summer day or a lack of enough oxygen for that two-mile run. Other disruptions originate in the internal environment, such as a blood glucose level that falls too low when you skip breakfast. Homeostatic imbalances may also occur due to psychological stresses in our social environment — the demands of work and school, for example. In most cases the disruption of homeostasis is mild and temporary, and the responses of body cells quickly restore balance in the internal environment. However, in some cases the disruption of homeostasis may be intense and prolonged, as in poisoning, overexposure to temperature extremes, severe infection, or major surgery.

Fortunately, the body has many regulating systems that can usually bring the internal environment back into balance. Most often, the nervous system and the endocrine system, working together or independently, provide the needed corrective measures. The nervous system regulates homeostasis by sending electrical signals known as *nerve impulses* (*action potentials*) to organs that can counteract changes from the balanced state. The endocrine system includes many glands that secrete messenger molecules called *hormones* into the blood. Nerve impulses typically cause rapid changes, but hormones usually work more slowly. Both means of regulation, however, work towards the same end, usually through negative feedback systems.

### Feedback systems


The body can regulate its internal environment through many feedback systems. A **feedback system** or *feedback loop* is a cycle of events in which the status of a body condition is monitored, evaluated, changed, remonitored, reevaluated, and so on. Each monitored variable, such as body temperature, blood pressure, or blood glucose level, is termed a *controlled condition*. Any disruption that changes a controlled condition is called a *stimulus*. A feedback system includes three basic components: a receptor, a control centre, and an effector (figure 1.2).

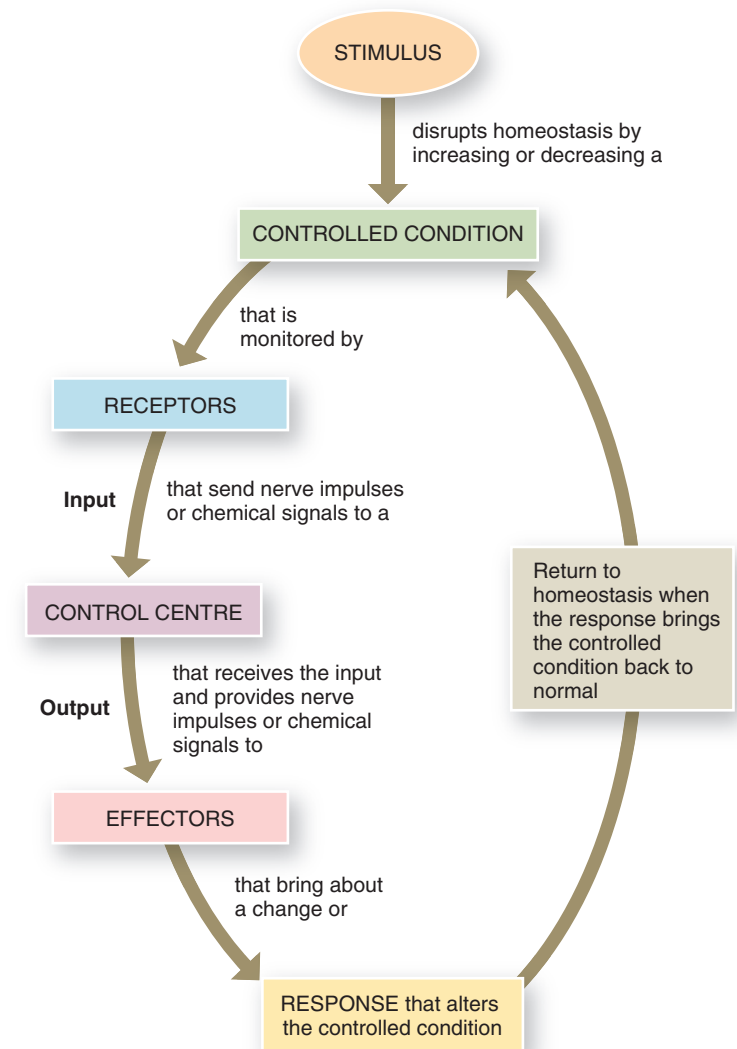
1. A **receptor** is a body structure that monitors changes in a controlled condition and sends input to a control centre. This pathway is called an *afferent pathway* (AF-er-ent; *af-* = towards; *-ferrent* = carried), since the information flows *towards* the control centre. Typically, the *input* is in the form of nerve impulses or chemical signals. For example, certain nerve endings in the skin sense temperature and can detect changes, such as a dramatic drop in temperature.
2. A **control centre** in the body, for example, the brain, sets the range of values within which a controlled condition should be maintained (set point), evaluates the input it receives from receptors, and generates output commands when they are needed. *Output* from the control centre typically occurs as nerve impulses, or hormones or other chemical signals. This pathway is called an *efferent pathway* (EF-er-ent; *ef-* = away from), since the information flows *away from* the control


centre. In our skin temperature example, the brain acts as the control centre, receiving nerve impulses from the skin receptors and generating nerve impulses as output.

3. An **effector** (e-FEK-tor) is a body structure that receives output from the control centre and produces a **response** or effect that changes the controlled condition. Nearly every organ or tissue in the body can behave as an effector. When your body temperature drops sharply, your brain (control centre) sends nerve impulses (output) to your skeletal muscles (effectors). The result is shivering, which generates heat and raises your body temperature.

**Figure 1.2** Operation of a feedback system.

 The three basic components of a feedback system are the receptor, control centre, and effector.



 **What is the main difference between negative and positive feedback systems?**

A group of receptors and effectors communicating with their control centre forms a feedback system that can regulate a controlled condition in the body's internal environment. In a feedback system, the response of the system 'feeds back' information to