

## Chapter 1 : Human body - Wikipedia

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Outline of human anatomy and Anatomy Human anatomy is the study of the shape and form of the human body. The human body has four limbs two arms and two legs , a head and a neck which connect to the torso. The spine at the back of the skeleton contains the flexible vertebral column which surrounds the spinal cord , which is a collection of nerve fibres connecting the brain to the rest of the body. Nerves connect the spinal cord and brain to the rest of the body. All major bones, muscles, and nerves in the body are named, with the exception of anatomical variations such as sesamoid bones and accessory muscles. Blood vessels carry blood throughout the body, which moves because of the beating of the heart. Venules and veins collect blood low in oxygen from tissues throughout the body. From here, the blood is pumped into the lungs where it receives oxygen and drains back into the left side of the heart. Here blood passes from small arteries into capillaries , then small veins and the process begins again. Blood carries oxygen , waste products, and hormones from one place in the body to another. Blood is filtered at the kidneys and liver. The body consists of a number of different cavities, separated areas which house different organ systems. The brain and central nervous system reside in an area protected from the rest of the body by the blood brain barrier. The lungs sit in the pleural cavity. The intestines , liver , and spleen sit in the abdominal cavity Height, weight, shape and other body proportions vary individually and with age and sex. Body shape is influenced by the distribution of muscle and fat tissue. Outline of physiology and Physiology Human physiology is the study of how the human body functions. This includes the mechanical, physical, bioelectrical , and biochemical functions of humans in good health, from organs to the cells of which they are composed. The human body consists of many interacting systems of organs. These interact to maintain homeostasis , keeping the body in a stable state with safe levels of substances such as sugar and oxygen in the blood. Some combined systems are referred to by joint names. For example, the nervous system and the endocrine system operate together as the neuroendocrine system. The nervous system receives information from the body, and transmits this to the brain via nerve impulses and neurotransmitters. At the same time, the endocrine system releases hormones, such as to help regulate blood pressure and volume. Together, these systems regulate the internal environment of the body, maintaining blood flow, posture, energy supply, temperature, and acid balance pH.

## Chapter 2 : List of Body Systems | [blog.quintoapp.com](http://blog.quintoapp.com)

*This encyclopedia is a concise yet comprehensive guide to the systems of the human body that is accessible to the lay reader \* Features over pictures, anatomical drawings, tables, and diagrams \* Provides entertaining sidebars and interesting facts throughout the encyclopedia \* Contains a bibliography and index to aid in study \* The.*

As well as believing in the reality of Forms, Plato believed in the immortality of the human soul. The soul was, he thought, an entity that was fundamentally distinct from the body although it could be and often was affected by it.

**Chemical composition of the body** Chemically, the human body consists mainly of water and of organic compounds. Water is found in the extracellular fluids of the body the blood plasma, the lymph, and the interstitial fluid and within the cells themselves. It serves as a solvent without which the chemistry of life could not take place. The human body is about 60 percent water by weight. Lipids—chiefly fats, phospholipids, and steroids—are major structural components of the human body. Fats provide an energy reserve for the body, and fat pads also serve as insulation and shock absorbers. Phospholipids and the steroid compound cholesterol are major components of the membrane that surrounds each cell. Proteins also serve as a major structural component of the body. Like lipids, proteins are an important constituent of the cell membrane. In addition, such extracellular materials as hair and nails are composed of protein. Proteins also perform numerous functional roles in the body. Particularly important are cellular proteins called enzymes, which catalyze the chemical reactions necessary for life. Carbohydrates are present in the human body largely as fuels, either as simple sugars circulating through the bloodstream or as glycogen, a storage compound found in the liver and the muscles. Small amounts of carbohydrates also occur in cell membranes, but, in contrast to plants and many invertebrate animals, humans have little structural carbohydrate in their bodies. Nucleic acids make up the genetic materials of the body. It is DNA, passed from parents to offspring, that dictates the inherited characteristics of each individual human. Chief among these are calcium, phosphorus, sodium, magnesium, and iron. Calcium is also present as ions in the blood and interstitial fluid, as is sodium. Ions of phosphorus, potassium, and magnesium, on the other hand, are abundant within the intercellular fluid. Iron is present mainly as part of hemoglobin, the oxygen-carrying pigment of the red blood cells. Other mineral constituents of the body, found in minute but necessary concentrations, include cobalt, copper, iodine, manganese, and zinc.

**Organization of the body** The cell is the basic living unit of the human body—indeed, of all organisms. The human body consists of trillions of cells, each capable of growth, metabolism, response to stimuli, and, with some exceptions, reproduction. Although there are some different types of cells in the body, these can be grouped into four basic classes. These four basic cell types, together with their extracellular materials, form the fundamental tissues of the human body: Bone and blood are considered specialized connective tissues, in which the intercellular matrix is, respectively, hard and liquid. The most basic unit is the cell; groups of similar cells form tissues; groups of different tissues make up organs; groups of organs form organ systems; cells, tissues, organs, and organ systems combine to form a multicellular organism. The next level of organization in the body is that of the organ. An organ is a group of tissues that constitutes a distinct structural and functional unit. Thus, the heart is an organ composed of all four tissues, whose function is to pump blood throughout the body. Of course, the heart does not function in isolation; it is part of a system composed of blood and blood vessels as well. The highest level of body organization, then, is that of the organ system. The body includes nine major organ systems, each composed of various organs and tissues that work together as a functional unit. The chief constituents and prime functions of each system are summarized below.

**Basic form and development** In general structure, the human body follows a plan that can be described as a cylinder enclosing two tubes and a rod. This body plan is most clearly evident in the embryo; by birth, the plan is apparent only in the trunk region. The body wall forms the cylinder. The two tubes are the ventrally located alimentary canal. Between the tubes lies the rod—the notochord in the embryo, which becomes the vertebral column prior to birth. The terms dorsal and ventral refer respectively to the back and the front, or belly, of an animal. Within the embryo, the essential body parts are: Everything in the body derives from one of these six embryonic parts. The mesoderm constitutes a considerable pad of tissue on each side of

the embryo, extending all the way from the back to the front sides of the body wall. It is hollow, for a cleftlike space appears in it on each side. These are the right and left body cavities. In the dorsal part of the body they are temporary; in the ventral part they become permanent, forming the two pleural cavities, which house the lungs; the peritoneal cavity, which contains the abdominal organs; and the pericardial cavity, which encloses the heart. The dorsal part of the mesoderm becomes separated from the ventral mesoderm and divides itself into serial parts like a row of blocks, 31 on each side. These mesodermal segments grow in all directions toward the epidermal membrane. They form bones, muscles, and the deeper, leathery part of the skin. Dorsally they form bony arches protecting the spinal cord, and ventrally the ribs protecting the alimentary canal and heart. Thus they form the body wall and the limbs—much the weightier part of the body. They give the segmental character to the body wall in neck and trunk, and, following their lead, the spinal cord becomes correspondingly segmented. The ventral mesoderm is not so extensive; it remains near the alimentary tube and becomes the continuous muscle layer of the stomach and intestine. It also forms the lining of the body cavities, the smooth, shining, slippery pleura and peritoneum. The mesenchyme forms blood and lymph vessels, the heart, and the loose cells of connective tissues. The neural tube itself is formed from the ectoderm at a very early stage. It is not in immediate contact with the epidermis, for the dorsal mesoderm grows up around it and around the roots of the cranial nerves as a covering, separating the brain from the epidermis. Posteriorly the neural tube terminates in the adult opposite the first lumbar vertebra. If the cylindrical body wall is followed headward, it is found to terminate ventrally as the tongue, dorsally in the skull around the brain, ears, and eyes. There is a considerable interval between eyes and tongue. This is occupied partly by a deep depression of the epidermis between them, which dips in to join the alimentary tube lining of the mouth. Posteriorly the ventral body wall joins the dorsal at the tailbone coccyx, thus terminating the body cavities. Headward, the alimentary tube extends up in front of the notochord and projects above the upper part of the body wall tongue and in front of and below the brain to join the epidermal depression. From the epidermal depression are formed the teeth and most of the mouth lining; from the upper end of the alimentary canal are formed the pharynx, larynx, trachea, and lungs. The alimentary canal at its tail end splits longitudinally into two tubes—an anterior and a posterior. The anterior tube becomes the bladder, urethra, and, in the female, the lining of the vagina, where it joins a depression of the ectoderm. The posterior dorsal tube becomes the rectum and ends just in front of the coccyx by joining another ectodermal depression the anus. Effects of aging

As the human body ages it undergoes various changes, which are experienced at different times and at varying rates among individuals. It becomes thin and dry and loses elasticity. Patches of darker pigmentation appear, commonly called liver spots, though they have no relation to that organ. Hair grays and thins. Wounds take longer to heal; some reparations take five times as long at 60 as at 10 years of age. Sensory fibres in spinal nerves become fewer; the ganglion cells become pigmented and some of them die. In the auditory apparatus some nerve cells and fibres are lost, and the ability to hear high notes diminishes. In the eye the lens loses its elasticity. Organs such as the liver and kidneys lose mass with age and decline in efficiency. The brain is somewhat smaller after the age of 40 and shrinks markedly after age 75, especially in the frontal and occipital lobes. This shrinkage is not, however, correlated with declines in mental capacity. Intellectual declines in the elderly are the consequence of underlying disease conditions, such as Alzheimer disease or cerebrovascular disease. The bones become lighter and more brittle because of a loss of calcium. This loss in bone mass is greater in women than men after the fifth decade. In joints the cartilage covering the ends of bone becomes thinner and sometimes disappears in spots, so bone meets bone directly and the old joints creak. Compression of the spinal column can lead to a loss of height. Muscular strength decreases but with marked individual variability. The arteries become fibrous and sclerosed. Because of decreasing elasticity, they tend to become rigid tubes. Fatty spots, which appear in their lining even in youth, are always present in old age. Thus, the potential longevity of the human body—about years—seems to be encoded within the very cells of the body. Change incident to environmental factors Although the basic form of the human body was established in human anthropoid ancestors, evolutionary adaptations to different environments are apparent among various human populations. For example, physical adaptations in humans are seen in response to extreme cold, humid heat, and high altitudes. Extreme cold favours short, round persons with short arms and legs, flat faces with fat

pads over the sinuses, narrow noses, and a heavier than average layer of body fat. These adaptations provide minimum surface area in relation to body mass for minimum heat loss, minimum heat loss in the extremities which allows manual dexterity during exposure to cold and guards against frostbite , and protection of the lungs and base of the brain against cold air in the nasal passages. In hot climates the problem is not in maintaining body heat but in dissipating it. Ordinarily the body rids itself of excess heat by sweating. In conditions of humid heat, however, the humidity of the surrounding air prevents the evaporation of perspiration to some extent, and overheating may result. Hence, the heat-adapted person in humid climates is characteristically tall and thin, so that there is maximum surface area for heat radiation. The person living in hot climates has little body fat; often a wide nose, since warming of the air in the nasal passages is not desirable; and, usually, dark skin, which provides a shield from harmful solar radiation. High altitudes demand a degree of cold adaptation , as well as adaptation for low air pressure and the consequent low oxygen.

**Chapter 3 : Encyclopedia of Human Body Systems by Julie McDowell | eBay**

*Introduction*The *Encyclopedia of the Human Body Systems* provides an overview of the physiology of the major organ systems of the body. For the purposes of this book, a system is defined as an organ group that works to perform a function for the body.

See Article History Human skeletal system, the internal skeleton that serves as a framework for the body. This framework consists of many individual bones and cartilages. There also are bands of fibrous connective tissue—the ligaments and the tendons—in intimate relationship with the parts of the skeleton. This article is concerned primarily with the gross structure and the function of the skeleton of the normal human adult. The human skeleton, like that of other vertebrates, consists of two principal subdivisions, each with origins distinct from the others and each presenting certain individual features. These are 1 the axial, comprising the vertebral column—the spine—and much of the skull, and 2 the appendicular, to which the pelvic hip and pectoral shoulder girdles and the bones and cartilages of the limbs belong. Discussed in this article as part of the axial skeleton is a third subdivision, the visceral, comprising the lower jaw, some elements of the upper jaw, and the branchial arches, including the hyoid bone. When one considers the relation of these subdivisions of the skeleton to the soft parts of the human body—such as the nervous system, the digestive system, the respiratory system, the cardiovascular system, and the voluntary muscles of the muscle system—it is clear that the functions of the skeleton are of three different types: Of these functions, support is the most primitive and the oldest; likewise, the axial part of the skeleton was the first to evolve. The vertebral column, corresponding to the notochord in lower organisms, is the main support of the trunk. The central nervous system lies largely within the axial skeleton, the brain being well protected by the cranium and the spinal cord by the vertebral column, by means of the bony neural arches the arches of bone that encircle the spinal cord and the intervening ligaments. A distinctive characteristic of humans as compared with other mammals is erect posture. The human body is to some extent like a walking tower that moves on pillars, represented by the legs. Tremendous advantages have been gained from this erect posture, the chief among which has been the freeing of the arms for a great variety of uses. Nevertheless, erect posture has created a number of mechanical problems—in particular, weight bearing. These problems have had to be met by adaptations of the skeletal system. Protection of the heart, lungs, and other organs and structures in the chest creates a problem somewhat different from that of the central nervous system. These organs, the function of which involves motion, expansion, and contraction, must have a flexible and elastic protective covering. Such a covering is provided by the bony thoracic basket, or rib cage, which forms the skeleton of the wall of the chest, or thorax. The connection of the ribs to the breastbone—the sternum—is in all cases a secondary one, brought about by the relatively pliable rib costal cartilages. The small joints between the ribs and the vertebrae permit a gliding motion of the ribs on the vertebrae during breathing and other activities. The motion is limited by the ligamentous attachments between ribs and vertebrae. The third general function of the skeleton is that of motion. The great majority of the skeletal muscles are firmly anchored to the skeleton, usually to at least two bones and in some cases to many bones. Thus, the motions of the body and its parts, all the way from the lunge of the football player to the delicate manipulations of a handicraft artist or of the use of complicated instruments by a scientist, are made possible by separate and individual engineering arrangements between muscle and bone. In this article the parts of the skeleton are described in terms of their sharing in these functions. The disorders and injuries that can affect the human skeleton are described in the article bone disease.

## Chapter 4 : Encyclopedia of Human Body Systems by Julie McDowell

*The Encyclopedia of the Human Body Systems provides an overview of the physiology of the major organ systems of the body. For the purposes of this book, a system is defined as an organ group that works to perform a function for the body.*

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*Helpful, trusted answers from doctors: Dr. Hom on encyclopedia of human body systems: Diabetes is a systemic disease. It causes damage to small blood vessels, including those in the kidneys, eyes and nerves.*

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*This encyclopedia provides a concise yet comprehensive introduction to each of the systems of the human body, exploring all 11 organ systems of the human body: the circulatory, digestive, endocrine, integumentary, lymphatic, muscular, nervous, reproductive, respiratory, skeletal, and urinary systems.*

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### Chapter 9 : Encyclopedia of Human Body Systems - Greenwood - ABC-CLIO

*The main systems of the human body are. Circulatory system. Circulates blood around the body via the heart, arteries and veins, delivering oxygen and nutrients to organs and cells and carrying their waste products away.*