FUNDAMENTALS of ANATOMY and PHYSIOLOGY of Speech, Language, and Hearing

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Preface

It is with great pleasure that we introduce our new anatomy and physiology textbook for undergraduate programs in communication sciences and disorders. This book is the result of our passion for education and our commitment to the field of speech-language pathology and audiology. We are confident that this book will transform the way students learn anatomy and physiology. The inspiration for this book came from our experience with the Anatomage Virtual Dissection Table, which allowed us to view high-resolution images from virtual cadavers and propelled us to take on this project.

Before we embarked on this mission, we conducted a study with freshmen who had no prior class experience of anatomy and physiology related to speech-language pathology and found that the use of virtual dissection significantly improved their performance in tests and their understanding of anatomy. Encouraged by these results, we decided to write this textbook, which is filled with images from real cadavers, digitized and colored to target specific areas of the human body.

With our experience teaching the new generation of students, we have found that the majority of students skim through their anatomy textbooks because they are unable to process the vast amounts of information in paragraph form. Many students have mentioned that they struggle with integrating, synthesizing, and comprehending the information presented in paragraph form—resulting in a lack of retention of material and a resultant decreased performance on examinations and tests. Students today tend to break down paragraphs into bullet form for processing and consumption of the material and then integrate the details together visually using images.

This generation of students is also *technology dependent*; therefore, we listened to them and decided to write this book to make the learning process enjoyable for them. This text includes all the details of a traditional anatomy and physiology textbook but with unique pedagogical features to enhance the learning process. Our approach is image-heavy and includes a majority of high-resolution pictures from real cadavers. We introduce each topic in paragraph form, followed by information presented primarily in bullet form, which caters to the emerging needs of these students who spend vast amounts of time creating bulleted study guides. Immediate access to digital illustrative content that will supplement and enhance the students' understanding of the primary information is also provided adjacent to each topic. The book includes box features, key terms, chapter objectives, and chapter summaries.

The book comes with online ancillary materials for instructors and students. The student site includes interactive quizzes, vocabulary flashcards, a searchable image bank, and study guides. Instructors can download PowerPoint slides, a test bank, and an image bank, and can also access all of the student materials.

We are proud to say that this textbook is unlike other traditional anatomy and physiology textbooks. Professors who adopt it will immediately notice the difference. We are confident that our approach will boost student engagement and retention of material, leading to increased performance on examinations and tests. Our goal is to provide students with a comprehensive understanding of the human body and how it relates to communication disorders.

Introduction

Learning Objectives

Upon completion of this chapter, students will be able to:

- Understand foundational information about human anatomy and physiology and the use of anatomical nomenclature, orientation, and terms.
- Learn organs and systems of the human body, how they function, and their effects on speech, language, swallowing, cognitive, and hearing abilities.
- Understand the function of the 12 pairs of cranial nerves and how damage to these nerves can impact physiology.

► Key Terms

Biology

The term *biology* originates from the Greek word *Bios* which means "life." Biology is the study of living organisms. There are many specialty areas that fall under biology. These include cell biology, evolutionary biology, molecular biology, biochemistry, physiology, zoology, genetics, botany, and ecology. There is a great deal of overlap within these fields. Biology includes several constant factors: the study of evolution, heredity, consumption of energy, equilibrium, and cell theory. The human biological makeup includes cells, tissues, joints, organs, and systems. *Cell structures* are the basic units of the organism and are the building blocks of life. *Tissues* comprise many similar cells that are responsible for a particular function. *Organs* are formed by grouping several tissues. A *biological system* is a network or a group of two or more organs that combine to function together. *Joints* are where two bones are attached to allow body parts to move.

Anatomy

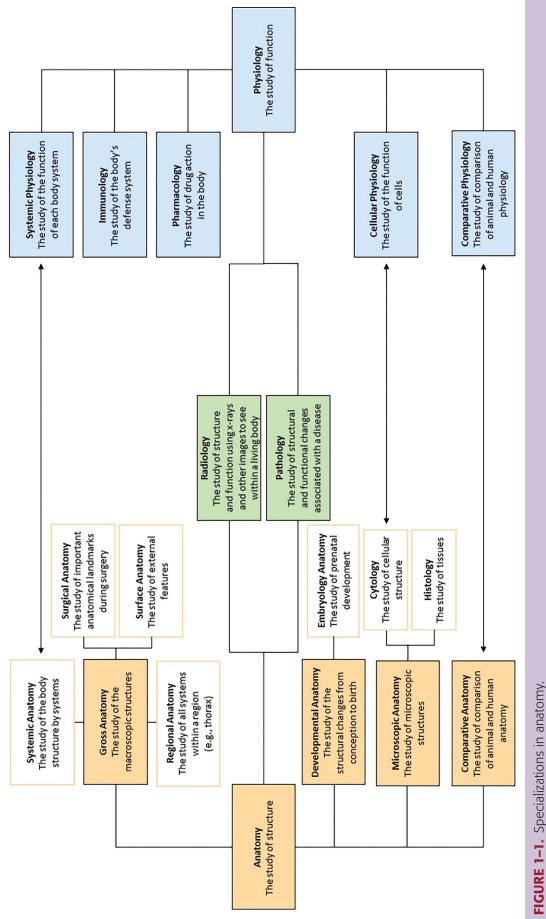
Anatomy is a branch of biology that studies the structures of organisms and their parts. Anatomy deals with dissection (e.g., human cadavers). The term *cadaver* is derived from the Latin verb—*cadere*, which means corpse. Anatomy has two divisions. The first is **macroscopic anatomy** or gross anatomy that uses unaided eyesight to study parts of an animal's body. Gross anatomy also includes superficial anatomy.

Initially, human anatomy was studied by superficially examining the wounds that soldiers sustained during war. Doctors later began to dissect bodies of dead soldiers to determine the cause of death. In the process of dissection, physicians were able to observe the relationships between body parts. In time, a second division of anatomy evolved—**microscopic anatomy**. This type of anatomy allows clinicians to use optical methods to observe structures and tissues inside a living person without dissection. Microscopic anatomy includes **histology**, which is the study of tissues under a light or electron microscope, and **cytology**, which is the study of cell structures and functions.

Within the field of anatomy, several specializations (Figure 1–1) have evolved:

- Developmental anatomy, also called embryology, studies how an embryo develops from a single cell to evolve into a human being. Embryology includes the study of prenatal and postnatal developmental changes and the processes by which these changes occur.
- Surface anatomy, also called superficial anatomy, topographic anatomy, or regional anatomy, studies the surfaces of human body structures. Surface anatomy is important for surgical procedures because it helps doctors identify the position of internal organs from the surface of the body. It establishes a relationship between deeper (internal) organs of the body and the surface of the body.
- **Comparative anatomy** is the study of similarities and differences in the structures of all living organisms. A comparative anatomist can study and compare the bones of humans, birds, chimpanzees, and frogs to look for similarities and differences to determine if various organisms share a common ancestor. Comparative anatomy also helps with classification of anatomical structures of organisms based on similarities. Comparative anatomy is mainly used in the field of paleontology (the study of animal and plant fossils).
- *General* anatomy is the study of gross and microscopic structures including different parts of the body, its fluids, and its tissues.
- **Descriptive anatomy** or **systematic** anatomy is the study of organ systems (e.g., respiratory system) that work together.
- Applied anatomy is also called clinical or practical anatomy. It is mainly concerned with the diagnosis and treatment of various conditions as well as the application of anatomical knowledge to specific fields (e.g., surgery).
- **Radiological anatomy** uses fluorography and radiography to study anatomy (e.g., x-rays).
- Morbid anatomy, also called pathological anatomy, is the study of diseased tissues.

Anatomical variation indicates that there are nonpathological structural anomalies that are different from normal. These differences do not indicate that there is any particular disorder. When looking more carefully at any given species, it should be noted that there is great variation between specimens. This variation does not necessarily mean that there will be differences in function. If there is a detrimental effect on functioning, then treatment may be required to rectify the impairment.



Introduction

Physiology

Physiology is a subdiscipline of biology and includes the study of the functions of living organisms and their parts. Physiology examines how organs, organ systems, organisms, cells, and biomolecules carry out the chemical processes that are inherent in a living organism. One way of studying physiology is to use electroencephalography (EEG) to record electrophysiological activity in the brain. Electrodes are placed on the scalp, and voltage changes in the neurons of the brain can be measured. EEG is often used to diagnose sleep disorders, epilepsy, and other conditions as the EEG readings can show anomalies in brain waves.

Hippocrates, the *father of medicine*, is credited with discussing human physiology as far back as the fourth century BC. Claudius Galenus (AD 130–200), the founder of experimental physiology, was the first to document his experiments to examine the functions of the body; however, Jean Fernel (1497–1558) introduced the term *physiology*.

Physiology is divided into the following specialties:

- *Plant* physiology is a branch of botany. Plant physiologists study the functioning of plants, including respiration, nutrition, photosynthesis, germination, circadian rhythms, and other processes.
- Microbial physiology includes the study of bacteria, parasites, viruses, and fungi. It is used in the fields of metabolic engineering and functional genomics.
- **Cellular physiology** is the examination of factors that are responsible for keeping a cell alive (e.g., water in the roots of a plant).
- Animal physiology is the study of life-supporting processes, functions, and properties of blood flow, genetics, biological structure, regulation of temperature, and hormones in animals and humans.
- Viral physiology is the study of viruses.

Anatomical Nomenclature

For centuries, those involved in the study of anatomy tried to develop a uniform method of assigning names to anatomical structures. By the late 19th century, there were over 50,000 terms for the parts of the body. What became confusing at times is that the same structures were called different names. Some of this confusion stemmed from the words that were derived from Latin or Greek origin or from where the anatomist was educated or country of origin.

In 1895, anatomists were interested in creating an international system of anatomical terminology and agreed on the Basle Nomina Anatomica (BNA). The result of this agreement was that the number of anatomical terms was reduced to 5,528. In 1955, the BNA was revised and updated, and the name was changed to Nomina Anatomica. Around 1985, there were some disagreements about terminology between the International Anatomical Nomenclature Committee and the International Federation of Associations of Anatomists (IFAA); therefore, in 1998, a new, simplified, updated, and uniform anatomical terminology was agreed upon by the IFAA that created a new committee, the Federative Committee on Anatomical Terminology and introduced the term Terminologia Anatomica (TA). It is considered the international standard for anatomical terminology. Gray's Anatomy (2005) specifically recognizes TA (Standring, 2005).

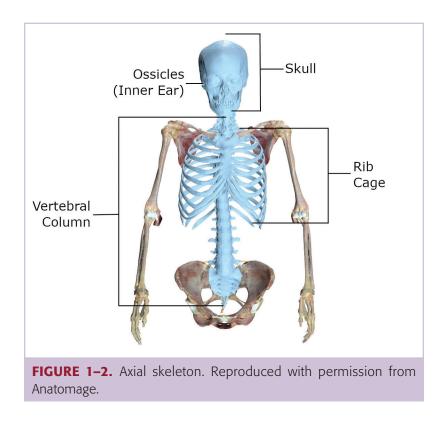
Anatomical Orientation

To study the spatial relationships that exist in the human body, it is necessary to have a point of reference when discussing organs, bones, muscles, nerves, and other structures. The **axial skeleton** (Figure 1–2) comprises the bones of the trunk and the head. In humans, the axial skeleton consists of 80 bones (vertebral column, hyoid bone, skull bones, rib cage, sternum, and ossicles of the middle ear). The entire human skeleton includes the axial skeleton and the **appendicular skeleton** (126 bones) (Figure 1–3). The word *appendicular* is derived from appendage (joined to something). The appendicular skeleton includes the limbs as well as the skeletal structures in the limbs, the pelvic girdles, and the pectoral girdles (also known as the shoulder girdles)—these form the complete skeleton (White et al., 2012).

This point of reference is the **standard anatomical position** where the body is at rest and standing erect with the feet together or slightly apart. The face is directed forward. The arms are at the side and rotated outward, with the palms facing forward. The thumbs are pointed away from the body (Tortora & Derrickson, 2006).

Anatomical Terms

Contrasting pairs of terms for common locations and for anatomical surfaces are listed next and displayed in Table 1–1 and Figure 1–4.



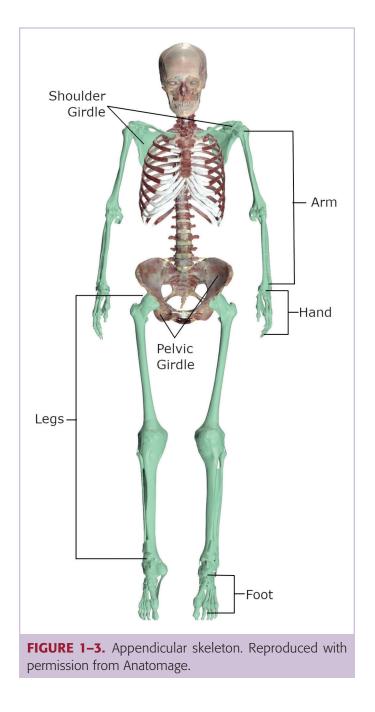


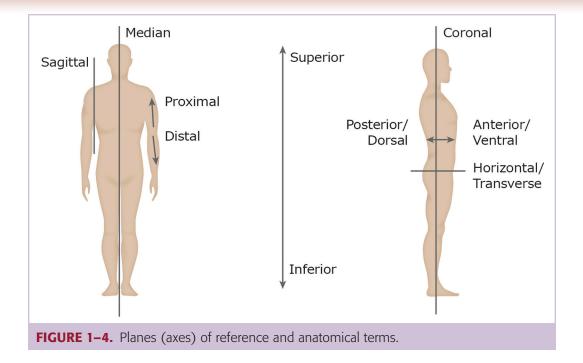
TABLE 1–1. Contrasting Pairs of Terms

| Anterior (ventral)—front of the body (away from the back) | Posterior (dorsal)—back of the body (away from the front) |
|---|---|
| Adduction—moving toward the midline | Abduction—moving away from the midline |
| Agonists —muscles that can cause movement because of their own contraction | Antagonists —muscles that oppose a particular movement |
| Central—situated at the center | Peripheral—situated at the edge |
| Contralateral—opposite side | Ipsilateral—same side |
| Dorsal —away from the front of the body | Ventral—toward the front of the body |
| Endo—inner | Ecto—outer |
| Flexion—bending of a body part | Extension —straightening of a body part |
| Inferior—below another body part | Superior—above another body part |
| Infra—below | Supra—above |
| Internal (deep)—inside | External (superficial)—outside |
| Intrinsic—within the organ | Extrinsic—from the outside |
| Ipsilateral —affecting the same side of the body as the site of the lesion | Contralateral —affecting the opposite side of the body from the site of the lesion |
| Medial—closer to the axis or midline | Lateral—away from the axis or midline |
| Prone—lying flat, facedown | Supine—lying face upward |
| Protraction —moving a body part forward (jutting out the chin) | Retraction —pulling a body part backward (pulling the chin in) |
| Proximal —near to the center of the body | Distal —away from the center of the body |
| Rostral (cranial)—toward the nose, mouth, and head (usually refers to the structures in the cranium) | Caudal —posterior of the body (toward the tailbone) |
| Superficial—toward the surface of the body | Deep —away from the surface of the body |

The human body has axes (singular *axis*) or midlines that give rise to other structures. These are two-dimensional sections of the body. There are three main planes (axes) of the body. These planes are imaginary two-dimensional surfaces that pass through the body (Figure 1–5).

The **sagittal/vertical plane** divides the body into right and left sides vertically. It is named after the sagittal suture that runs from the front to the back of the top of the skull. If this plane courses down the middle of the body, it is called the *median* or *midsagittal* plane; however, it is known as the *longitudinal* section or *parasagittal* plane if it divides the body into unequal right and left sides.

The **frontal/coronal plane** divides the body into ventral/anterior (belly) and dorsal/posterior (back). It is named after the coronal suture that separates the frontal and parietal bones of the skull. This is a longitudinal plane because it is perpendicular to the transverse plane.



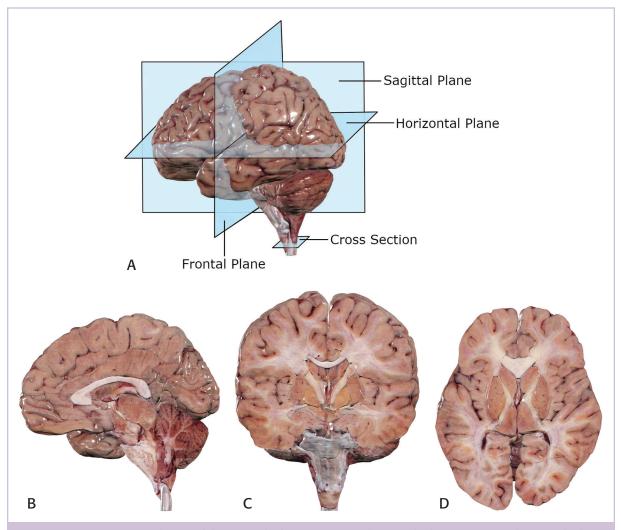


FIGURE 1–5. A. Sagittal/frontal/horizontal plane. **B.** Sagittal/vertical plane. **C.** Frontal/coronal plane. **D.** Horizontal plane. A–D reproduced with permission from Anatomage.