



အဆင့်သို့သွားပြီးနောက် အခြားအဆင့်သို့သွားရန်အတွက် အသက်ရှူခြင်းအတွက်  $H_2O$  ကို ထိန်းသိမ်းပေးရန်အတွက်  $H_2O$  သည် meta ကို ထိန်းသိမ်းပေးသည်။ အစားအစာများကို စုပ်ယူခြင်းအတွက်  $H_2O$  သည်  $CO_2$  ကို ထိန်းသိမ်းပေးသည်။  $H_2O$  သည်  $CO_2$  ကို ထိန်းသိမ်းပေးသည်။  $H_2O$  သည်  $CO_2$  ကို ထိန်းသိမ်းပေးသည်။

### အခန်း ၁၄ ဆီးလမ်းကြောင်း

#### ရည်ရွယ်ချက်မေးခွန်းများ

(စာမျက်နှာ ၅၅၄ တွင်မေးခွန်းများ။)

- 1. F 2. F 3. T 4. T 5. T 6. nephron 7. ပိတ်တစ်ဖက်
- 8. 500 9. 1.b, 2.a, 3.b, 4.b, 5.a, 6.b, 7.b, 8.b, 9.b 10. c
- 11. b 12. b, c, a, d, c 13. c, e, d, a, b, f 14. g, c, d, a, fi
- b, c 15. 1.a, 2.a, 3.c, 4.b, 5.d

#### Quantitative လေ့ကျင့်ခန်း

(စာမျက်နှာ ၅၅၄ တွင်မေးခွန်းများ။)

| သို့ | လူနာ ၁              | လူနာ ၂       |
|------|---------------------|--------------|
| GFR  | 125 ml/မိနစ်        | ၁၂၄ ml/min   |
| RPF  | ၆၅၀ ml/min          | 400 ml/မိနစ် |
| RBF  | ၁၁၂၇ မီလီလီတာ/မိနစ် | ၇၂၇ ml/min   |
| FF   | ၀.၂၀                | ၀.၃၀         |

လူနာ ၁ ၏ တန်ဖိုးအားလုံးသည် ပုံမှန်အတိုင်းအတာအတွင်းရှိသည်။ လူနာ ၂ ၏ တန်ဖိုးများမှာ  $GFR$  သည် ပုံမှန်ဖြစ်သော်လည်း  $RPF$  သည် ပုံမှန်ထက် နည်းပါးသည်။  $RBF$  သည် ပုံမှန်ထက် နည်းပါးသည်။  $FF$  သည် ပုံမှန်ထက် နည်းပါးသည်။  $GFR$  သည် ပုံမှန်ဖြစ်သော်လည်း  $RPF$  သည် ပုံမှန်ထက် နည်းပါးသည်။  $RBF$  သည် ပုံမှန်ထက် နည်းပါးသည်။  $FF$  သည် ပုံမှန်ထက် နည်းပါးသည်။

2. filtered load  $GFR$  (ပလာစမာအာရုံစိုက်မှု)  $\times$  ဆီးစီးဆင်းမှု

(၀.၁၅ လီတာ/မိနစ်)  $\times$  (၁၄၅ မီလီမိုလာ/လီတာ)

၁၈.၁၅ mmol/min

3.  $GFR$  (ဦး [၁] )  $\times$  [၂]  $\times$  [၃]

$\times U_{creatinine}$  [၂]  $\times$  [၃]

(125 ml/min) (3 mg/litre) / (300 mg/litre)

၁.၅ ml/min

၄။ ကင်းရှင်းမှုနှုန်း = ဆီးအာရုံစိုက်မှု  $\times$  ဆီးစီးဆင်းမှု

ပစ္စည်းတစ်ခုရဲ့ နှုန်း

ဓာတ်၏ပလာစမာအာရုံစိုက်မှု

= 7.5. mg/ml  $\times$  1ml/min

၀.၂ မီလီဂရမ်/ml

၇၅ ml/min

75 ml / min ၏ တစ်ဦးချင်းလင်းရေးမှုနှုန်းလျော့နည်းပျမ်းမျှထက်သောကော့ဂျ.  $GFR$  ၁၅ မီလီလီတာ/မိနစ်၊ ဓာတ်ကိုပြန်လည်စုပ်ယူသည်။

အခန်းဆုံးရည်ရွယ်ချက်မေးခွန်းများအတွက်အဖြေများ၊ Quantitative လေ့ကျင့်ခန်းများ၊ စဉ်းစားရန်အချက်များနှင့်လက်တွေ့ထည့်သွင်းစဉ်းစားမှုများ A-51

2. a ။ 2.၅ မီလီဂရမ် / မိနစ် filter

စစ်ထုတ်ထားသောအရည်၏ပလာစမာအာရုံစိုက်မှု

$GFR$  ရပ်တည်ချက်

အရာ ၀ ထွက်စစ်ထုတ်မှု 200 mg/100 ml 125 ml/min

၅၀ မီလီဂရမ်/မိနစ်

၁ 200 mg/min ပြန်လည်စုပ်ယူသည်

တစ်ဦးက  $T$   $\times$   $_{reabs}$  ပစ္စည်းပစ္စာတန်ဖိုးရှိ reabsorbed လိမ့်မည်။

၇၅၀ မီလီဂရမ်/မိနစ်ထုတ်လွှတ်သည်

ပိုင်ဆိုင်ပစ္စည်းပမာဏထုတ်လွှတ်သောဓာတ်ပမာဏ

စစ်ထုတ်ထားသောဓာတ်ပမာဏကိုပြန်လည်စုပ်ယူသည်

၅၀ မီလီဂရမ်/မိနစ် ၅၀ မီလီဂရမ်/မိနစ် ၅၀ မီလီဂရမ်/မိနစ်

၃။ Aldosterone သည် Na reabsorption နှင့် K secretion ကိုလှုံ့ဆော်ပေးသည်။ ကျောက်ကပ်ပြန်များမှ ထိုကြောင့်အထင်ရှားဆုံးလက္ခဏာများမှာ Conn's syndrome (aldosterone ၏ hypersecretion) သည် hypernatremia (သွေးထဲတွင် Na အဆင့်မြင့်တက်ခြင်း) ကြောင့်အလွန်အကျွံဖြစ်ရသည်။ Na reabsorption, hypophosphatemia (ပုံမှန် K အဆင့်အောက်) သွေးထဲတွင် K အလွန်အကျွံထုတ်ခြင်းနှင့် hypertension ကြောင့်ဆားအလွန်အကျွံစားခြင်းနှင့်ဆားလွန်ကဲခြင်းတို့ကြောင့်ဖြစ်ပေါ်လာသောသွေးဖိအားမြင့်တက်ခြင်း၊ ter retention ကို။

4. e ။ ၃၀၀/၃၀၀ ။ တက်နေသောခြေလက်များသည်ရေကိုစိမ့်ဝင်လျှင်၎င်းသည် ခေါင်လိုက် osmotic gradient တစ်ခုတည်ဆောက်ရန်ဖြစ်နိုင်ပါ။ renal medulla ၏ interstitial fluid သည်လည်းမဟုတ်ပါ။  $U_{osm}$  သည်  $U_{int}$  ထက်မြင့်သည်။  $U_{int}$  သည် distal သို့မ ၀ င် hypotonic ဖြစ်လာသည်။  $U_{int}$  ၏ တက်နေသောကိုယ်လက်အင်္ဂါသည် NaCl ကိုကြားဖြတ်သို့စုပ်သည်။ အရည်၊ ရေသည် osmotically နောက်သို့လိုက်လိမ့်မည်။ ထို့ကြောင့် interstitial fluid နှစ်ခုလုံးသည် isosmotic 300 mOsm တွင်ရှိနေလိမ့်မည်။  $U_{int}$  ပလာစမာခြေလက်သည် isotonic 300 mOsm တွင်ရှိနေလိမ့်မည်။ (mosm/လီတာ) tubular အရည်သည် distal tubule ထဲသို့ ၀ င်သည်။ ပုံမှန် 100 mosm/litre အစား 300 mosm/litre ဖြစ်သည်။ osmolality နည်းသောဆီးကိုထုတ်လုပ်ရန်ဖြစ်နိုင်သည်။ လီတာ ၃၀၀ mosm/လီတာ ဒီလိပ် medullary မရှိတော့ vertical osmotic gradient ကိုထုတ်လုပ်ရန်ဖြစ်နိုင်ပေမည်သို့ပင်ဖြစ်စေဆီးသည် ၃၀၀ mosm/လီတာထက်ပိုစုပ်သည်။ vasopressin များစွာရှိသည်။

၅။ အ ဘယ်ကြောင့်ဆိုသော် ဦး နောက်နှင့်အကြားလမ်းကြောင်းများကျဆင်းနေခြင်းကြောင့်ဖြစ်သည်။ motor urethral များသည်ပြင်ပ urethral sphincter ကိုထောက်ပံ့ပေးသည်။ မတော်တဆထိခိုက်ဒဏ်ရာရသူ။ မရှိတော့ဆန္ဒအလျောက် micturition ထိန်းချုပ်နိုင်ပါသည်။ ထို့ကြောင့် Bladder တစ်ဦး ချင်းစီအတွက်ကွက်လပ်ကိုလုံး ၀ အုပ်ချုပ်လိမ့်မည်။ micturition တို့ပြန်မူ

### လက်တွေ့ထည့်သွင်းစဉ်းစားခြင်း

(စာမျက်နှာ ၅၅၅ တွင်မေးခွန်း။)

ဆီးကျိတ်ကြီးခြင်း

tubule သည်ဆီးခွံခန္ဓာကိုယ်မှဆုံးရှုံးသည်။ ခန္ဓာကိုယ်ဖြစ်လာသည်။ ရေဓာတ်ခန်းခြောက်ပြီး ECF osmolality သည်အရက်ကြောင့်မြင့်တက်လာသည်။ စားသုံးမှု။ ဆိုလိုသည်မှာဆီးတွင်အရည်များပိုဆုံးရှုံးသည်။ အရက်၏လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်ကြောင့်အရက်ယမကာကိုပေါင်းလိုက်သည်။ vasopressin ။ ထို့ကြောင့် imbibing ခံရသောသူသည်ရေစားပါးမှုကိုကြုံတွေ့ရသည်။ မကြာသေးမီကအရည်များသောက်နေသော်လည်းရေဆာနေဆဲဖြစ်သည်။

၂။ လူတစ်ဦး သည်ဆားကြွယ်ဝသောဈေး ၁၅၀၀ မီလီလီတာကိုဆုံးရှုံးလျှင်အချို့ရည်သောက်ပါ။ တစ်ချိန်တည်းတွင်ဆားအစားထိုးခြင်းမရှိဘဲရေ ၁၀၀၀ မီလီလီတာ ကာလအပိုင်းအခြားနှင့်ခန္ဓာကိုယ်ပမာဏ ၅၀၀ မီလီလီတာလိမ့်မည်။ အရည်များသည် hypotonic (ခန္ဓာကိုယ်ကျွန်ုပ်တို့သောဆား) ဖြစ်လာလိမ့်မည်။ အခမဲ့  $H_2O$  ၁၀၀၀ မီလီလီတာကိုစားသုံးမိပါကအရည်ပျော့သွားလိမ့်မည်။ အဖြစ်ရလဒ်အနေနှင့် hypothalamic osmoreceptors (လွှမ်းမိုးသော input) vasopressin- လျှို့ဝှက်ဆဲလ်များသည် vasopressin ကို ကျဆင်း စေရန်အချက်ပြလိမ့်မည်။ ထို့ကြောင့်ပိုလျှင်သောစွန့်ပစ်ခြင်းသည်ဆီးစွန့်ထုတ်မှုကိုမြှင့်တက်စေသည်။ ရေသည်ခန္ဓာကိုယ်အရည်များကိုအလွန်မေးမြန်းစေသည်။ တပြိုင်နက်တည်း ဘယ်ဘက် atrial volume receptors သည် vasopressin ကိုအချက်ပြလိမ့်မည်။ ရေကိုထိန်းသိမ်းရန် vasopressin secretion ကို မြှင့် တင်ရန် ဆဲလ်များကိုလှုံ့ဆော်သည်။ ဆီးဖွဲ့စည်းစဉ်တွင်၎င်းသည်ပမာဏပိုမိုထုတ်လျှော့ပါးသက်သာစေသည်။ vasopressin-secreting ဆဲလ်များသို့ကွဲလွဲနေသောကြောင့်သွင်းအားစွန့်ခွဲသည်။ တန်ပြန်အကျိုးဖြစ်ထွန်းစေသော ကြိုအကြောင်းကြောင့်၎င်းနှစ်ခုလုံးကိုအစားထိုးရန်အရေးကြီးသည်။ ဈေးအလွန်အကျွံထွက်ခြင်းသို့မဟုတ်အခြားပုံမှန်မဟုတ်သောဆုံးရှုံးမှုများကြောင့်ရေနှင့်ဆား ဆားကြွယ်ဝသောအရည်များ ဆားကိုရေစားသုံးမှုနှင့်အစားထိုးလျှင် ECF osmolality သည်ပုံမှန်နှင့် vasopressin-secreting နှင့်နီးစပ်သည်။ ဆဲလ်များသည် vasopressin secretion ကိုတိုးပွားစေရန်အချက်ပြများကိုသက်သက်ခံသည်။ ECF အသံအတိုးအကျယ်ကိုပုံမှန်အတိုင်းပြန်ထားပါ။

၃။ dextrose solution ၏အာရုံစိုက်မှုနှင့်သို့သောအခါ ပုံမှန်ခန္ဓာကိုယ်အရည်များကိုအကြောထဲသို့ထည့်သွင်းသည်။ ECF ပမာဏသည် တိုးချဲ့သော်လည်း ECF နှင့် ICF တို့သည် osmotically ညီမျှနေဆဲဖြစ်သည်။  $U_{osm}$  နှင့် ECF အကြားရေအသားတင်ရွေ့လျားမှုမရှိပါ။  $U_{osm}$  နှင့် ICF dextrose သည်ဆဲလ်ထဲသို့ ၀ င်လာပြီး metabolized လုပ်သောအခါ။

### စာမျက်နှာ ၃

### အခန်း ၁၅ အရည်နှင့် အက်ဆစ် - Base Balance

#### ရည်ရွယ်ချက်မေးခွန်းများ

(စာမျက်နှာ ၅၈၆ တွင်မေးခွန်းများ။)

- 1. T 2. F 3. F 4. T 5. T 6. intracellular fluid
- 7.  $[H^+ CO_3]$ ,  $[HCO_3]$  8. d 9. b 10. a, d, e 11. b, c
- 12. c 13. 1. metabolic acidosis, 2. diabetes mellitus
- 3. pH 7.1, 4. respiratory alkalosis, 5. anxiety, 6. pH 7.1
- ၇။ အသက်ရှူလမ်းကြောင်းဆိုင်ရာ acidosis ၈။ အဆုတ်ရောင်ရောဂါ၊ ၉. pH ၇.၁
- 10. metabolic alkalosis, 11. အနိခြင်း, 12. pH 7.7

#### Quantitative လေ့ကျင့်ခန်း

(စာမျက်နှာ ၅၈၇ တွင်မေးခွန်းများ။)

- 1. pH 6.1  $\log [HCO_3^-] / (0.03 \text{ mM/mm Hg } 40 \text{ mm Hg})$
- ၇.၄ ၆.၁ မှတ်တမ်း  $[HCO_3^-] / 1.2 \text{ mM}$
- $\log [HCO_3^-] / 1.2 \text{ mM } 7.4 \text{ } 6.1 \text{ } 1.3$
- $[HCO_3^-] 1.2 \text{ mM } (10 \pm 2) 24 \text{ mM}$
- 2. pH  $\log [H^+]$ ,  $[H^+] 10^{pH}$
- $[H^+] 10^{-6.8}$  pH 6.8 အတွက် 158 nM
- $[H^+] 10^{-8.0}$  pH 8.0 အတွက် 10 nM

၃။ ရေစက်ရေသည်အစားအသုံးအားလုံးတွင်စိမ့်ဝင်နိုင်သည်ကိုသတိပြုပါ။ ၎င်းကိုအခန်းအားလုံးတွင်တည်တံ့မှုဖြစ်စေလိမ့်မည်။ ဘာကြောင့်လဲဆိုတော့ - line သည်ဆဲလ်များ ၀ င်ပါ။ ၎င်းသည် ECF တွင်ရှိနေလိမ့်မည်။ ထွက်ပေါ်လာတဲ့ ပြန်ဖြူးချက်များကိုအောက်ခြေရှိဇယားတွင်အကျဉ်းချုပ်ဖော်ပြထားသည်။ စာမျက်နှာ ပလာစမာပမာဏကိုချွတ်ရာမှာဆားရည်ကပိုကောင်းတယ်ဆိုတာရှင်း

စဉ်းစားရန်အချက်များ

(စာမျက်နှာ ၅၈၇ တွင်မေးခွန်းများ။)

၁။ အရက်ကိုတားဆီးသောအခါဆီးဖြူဇရပ်မှ ပြန်လည်ထုတ်လွှတ်ပေးရန်အတွက် vasopressin secretion နှင့် ကျောက်ကပ်များသည် စုပ်ယူနိုင်စွမ်းကို ပြန်လည်မလုပ်ဆောင်စေရန်အတွက် အဝေးမှစုဆောင်းပြီး ပြန်လည်ထုတ်လွှတ်ပေးရန်အတွက် အဝေးမှစုဆောင်းပြီး ပြန်လည်ထုတ်လွှတ်ပေးရန်အတွက် ပုံမှန်အားဖြင့်များ၏ distal အစိတ်အပိုင်းများထံမှ reabsorbed ခဲ့ကြလိမ့်မယ်လို့

သို့သော်ကျွန်ုပ်တို့သည် ရက်မှ ECF သည် hypotonic ဖြစ်လာသည် ပင်လယ်ရေထက် ပိုလျှော့သောရေကိုဆီးတွင် ဖြစ်ပေါ်စေရန်အတွက် ဘာမှမလုပ်ဘဲ ဖြစ်ပေါ်စေရန်အတွက် osmosis ဖြစ်ပေါ်စေရန်အတွက် သို့မဟုတ် ဆေးဝါး (NaHCO<sub>3</sub>) သည် အလွယ်တကူ စုပ်ယူနိုင်သောကြောင့်ဖြစ်သည်။ မန်ဖတ်ဆော်ဒါ (bak နှင့် အစာအိမ် hyperacidity ကိုကုသခြင်း ဆော်ဒါစားသုံးခြင်းသည် HCO<sub>3</sub> အလွန်အကျွံအဖြစ် metabolic alkalosis ကိုဖြစ်ပေါ်စေနိုင်သည် စုပ်ယူသည်။ စုပ်ယူမှုအားနည်းသော antacids နှင့်ကုသခြင်းသည်

| အရည်များမျိုးချစ်သည် | အခန်း            | အခန်း၏အရွယ်အစား<br>စားသုံးခြင်းမပြုမီ<br>(လီတာ) | အခန်း၏အရွယ်အစား<br>စားသုံးပြီးနောက်<br>(လီတာ) | စုဆောင်းမှုနှုန်း<br>အခန်း၏အရွယ်အစား<br>စားသုံးပြီးနောက် |
|----------------------|------------------|---|---|--|
| ပေါင်းစုံရေ          | TBW              | ၄၂  | ၄၃  | ၂ ရာခိုင်နှုန်း  |
|                      | ICF (၂/၃ TBW)    | ၂၈  | ၂၈.၆၆၇  | ၂ ရာခိုင်နှုန်း  |
|                      | ECF (၁/၃ TBW)    | ၁၄  | ၁၄.၃၃၃  | ၂ ရာခိုင်နှုန်း  |
|                      | ပလာစမာ (၂၀% ECF) | ၂.၈   | ၂.၈၆၆   | ၂ ရာခိုင်နှုန်း  |
|                      | ISF (၈၀% ECF)    | ၁၁.၂  | ၁၁.၄၆၆  | ၂ ရာခိုင်နှုန်း  |
| ဆားရည်               | TBW              | ၄၂  | ၄၃  | ၂ ရာခိုင်နှုန်း  |
|                      | ICF              | ၂၈  | ၂၈  | ၀%   |
|                      | ECF              | ၁၄  | ၁၅  | ၇ ရာခိုင်နှုန်း  |
|                      | ပလာစမာ           | ၂.၈   | ၃   | ၇ ရာခိုင်နှုန်း  |
|                      | ISF              | ၁၁.၂  | ၁၂  | ၇ ရာခိုင်နှုန်း  |

A-52 နောက်ဆက်တွဲ F

စာမျက်နှာ ၄

အဘယ်ကြောင့်ဆိုသော် ဤထုတ်ကုန်များသည် အစာခြေလမ်းကြောင်း၌ တည်ရှိနေပြီး ဖြစ်ပေါ်စေရန်အတွက် အရက်ဆစ် - အခြေခံမည်မျှကိုမထုတ်လုပ်နိုင်ပါ။  
၅။ ဂ။ ဟေမိုဂလိုဘင်ကြားခံစနစ်သည် ကာဗွန်ဒိုင်အောက်ဆိုဒ်ကို တားဆီးပေးသည်။ hydrogen ion ကို ထုတ်ပေးသည်။ အသက်ရှူလမ်းကြောင်းဆိုင်ရာ acidosis အခြေခံမည်မျှကို ထုတ်ပေးသည်။ Hb n HHb တို့ပြန်လည် ပြောင်းလဲနိုင်စွမ်းကို အားပေးပေးသည်။ Hb n HHb ဘက်သို့ ဦး တည်သွားပြီး အချို့ကို ဖယ်ရှားပေးသည် သွေးမှ H ပိုလွတ်သည်။

ဖွဲ့ပြုစားရန်အချက်များ (p အပေါ်မေးခွန်းလွှာ။ 639.)

၁။ အစာအိမ်ကို ဖယ်ရှားပြီးသော လူနာများသည် အစာစားရမည် စားသုံးမည့် အစားအစာအနည်းငယ်ကို ကြာခဏစားပါ။ ၎င်းတို့သည် စွမ်းရည်ကို ဆုံးရှုံးထားသောကြောင့် တစ်နေ့လျှင် ပုံမှန်သုံးဆယ် အစာကို အစာအိမ်တွင် သို့မဟုတ် ပြီးငင်းကို အသိမထင်ဘဲ ထည့်သွင်းပါ။ အကောင်းဆုံးနည်းတစ်ခုလူတစ်ဦး သည် အစာအိမ်မရှိဘဲ လောင်လျှင် ကြီးမားသည့် အူသိမ်ထဲသို့ တစ်ပြိုင်နက်တည်း ၀ င်လာသော အစာသည် luminal conc တို့များသည် အစာခြေမျက်နှာပြင်အလွန်မြင့်သော hypertonic ဖြစ်လာလိမ့်မည် ကြီးမားသော အာဟာရဓာတ်မော်လီကျူးများသည် သွေးငယ်။ အများအားဖြင့် osmotically ချိတ်ကြပ်။ စုပ်ယူနိုင်သော ယူနစ်များသည် ပို၍ နှေးကွေးသော လုပ်ဆောင်မှုကို ကျော်တက်သည် ဤယူနစ်များ၏ စုပ်ယူမှု ဒီအကျိုးဆက်အနေနှင့် လာတယ် luminal osmolality, ရေသည် အူသိမ် lumen ထဲသို့ ၀ င်သည် plasma မှ osmosis ကြောင့် သွေးလည်ပတ်မှုကို ထိခိုက်စေသည်။ bances အဖြစ်နှင့် အတင်းကျပ်။ ဤ အမှုကို ပစ်ခြင်းကို ကာကွယ်ရန် syndrome ရောဂါဖြစ်ပွားခြင်းမှ လူနာသည် သွေးငယ်သော အစာကို ကျွေးရမည် အူသည် တစ်ကြိမ်တွင် အစာအနည်းငယ် မှသာ စုပ်ယူနိုင်သည် အစာခြေမျက်နှာပြင်အလွန်မြင့်သော အူသိမ်ထဲသို့ ထည့်သွင်းခြင်းသည် ထုတ်လုပ်မှု လူတစ်ဦး သည် မိတာကို သတ်ရန် ကိုင်တွယ်ရမည် အစာအိမ်မှ အူသိမ်သို့ အစားအစာ ပို့ဆောင်ခြင်း ဒီတာဝန်ကို ထမ်းဆောင်ပေးရန် တော့ပါသွား။

လက်တွေ့ထည့်သွင်းစဉ်းစားခြင်း

(စာမျက်နှာ ၅၈၇ တွင်မေးခွန်းများ။)

ရလဒ်အနေနှင့် ကြာရှည်စွာ လျော့ခြင်းသည် ရေဓါတ်ခန်းခြောက်ခြင်းကို ဖြစ်စေသည်။ metabolic acidosis သည် ရလဒ်တစ်ခုချင်းစီ၌ အလွန်အကျွံဆုံးရှုံးခြင်းဖြစ်သည်။ အရည်သည် မစင်နှင့် NaHCO<sub>3</sub> ပုံမှန်ဖြစ်လိမ့်မည် သွေးထဲသို့ စုပ်ယူသည်။ ရေဓါတ်ခန်းခြောက်ခြင်းအတွက် လျော်ကြေးငွေအစီအမံများတွင်ပါဝင်သည်။ vasopressin သကြားဓာတ်ကို ကျွေးစေပြီး ရေဓါတ်ပြန်လည်ဖြည့်တင်းပေးသည်။ အဝေးမှစုပုံယူခြင်းနှင့် နောက်ဆက်တွဲ ပြန်လည်ထုတ်လွှတ်ခြင်း ဆီးထုတ်ကုန်များကို ဆင်းခြင်း တစ်ပြိုင်နက်တည်း မှာပင် အရည်များသောက်မိသည် ရေဓါတ်ခြင်းကို အားပေးတယ်။ metabolic acidosis ဖြစ်လာသည် HCO<sub>3</sub> မှ ECF မှ ပိုနေသော H ကို ဖယ်ရှားခြင်းအားဖြင့် ပေါင်းစပ်သည် H<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> : HCO<sub>3</sub> ကြားခံစနစ်၏ တက်လာသော လေအားဖြင့်၊ အက်ဆစ် ဖွဲ့စည်း CO<sub>2</sub> ၏ ပမာဏကို လျော့ချပုံ tion : ခန္ဓာကိုယ်အရည်အတွက် နှင့် ကျောက်ကပ်အပို H ကို excreting နှင့် HCO<sub>3</sub> ထိန်းသိမ်းစောင့်ရှောက်ခြင်းဖြင့်။

၂။ အူခိုင်ဆက်စပ်သော lymphoid တစ်သွားသည် ခခိအားကို ထုတ်ပေးသည်။

၃။ ရောဂါဖြစ်စေသော (ရောဂါဖြစ်စေသော) သွေးငယ်သော ပိုးမွှားများကို တိုက်ခိုက်သည်။ isms များသည် အလွယ်တကူ ရနိုင်သော အစာခြေလမ်းကြောင်းထဲသို့ ၀ င် ရောက်၍ ထွက်ပြေးသည် တံတွေး lysozyme (သို့) အစာအိမ် HCl ကြောင့် ပျက်စီးခြင်း ဒီလုပ်ဆောင်ချက် ဤအလားအလာရှိသော ရောဂါပိုးများအား ခန္ဓာကိုယ်ထဲသို့ ၀ င် ရောက်ခြင်းမှ ကာကွယ်ပေးသည် သင့်တော်သည်။ အူခိုင်ဆက်စပ်သော ခခိအားဆိုင်ရာ အရေအတွက်များ ပြားသည် lymphoid တစ်သွားသည် ခခိကာကွယ်မှုကို ပထမဆုံးကာကွယ်သည့် အနေနှင့် လက်ခံနိုင်သည်။ ဒီမျက်နှာပြင်ရေမျက်နှာပြင်အကျယ်အဝန်းကို စဉ်းစားတဲ့အခါ ကျွေးကျော်မှုကို ဖယ်ရှားပါ။ gestive tract meem သည် အကြားရှိ အကြီးဆုံး interface ကို ကိုယ်စားပြုသည် ခန္ဓာကိုယ်နှင့် သင့်တော်သော ပြင်ပပတ်ဝန်းကျင်။

အခန်း ၁၆ အစာခြေစနစ်

ရည်ရွယ်ချက်မေးခွန်းများ

(စာမျက်နှာ ၆၃၈ တွင်မေးခွန်းများ။)

- 1. F 2. T 3. T 4. F 5. F 6. F 7. long, short
- 8. chyme 9. သုံး 10. ဝိတာမင် B 12 ; သည်းခြေဆေး 11. သည်းခြေဆေးများ 12. b 13. 1.c, 2.c, 3.b, 4.a, 5.f, 6.d 14. 1.c, 2.c, 3.d 4.a, 5.c, 6.c, 7.a, 8.b, 9.c, 10.b, 11.d, 12.b

Quantitative လေ့ကျင့်ခန်း

(p အပေါ်မေးခွန်းလွှာ။ 639.)

- 1. a.  $r = 0.9$  စင်တီမီတာ၊ ဧရိယာ ၄ (၀.၂၅) စင်တီမီတာ၊ အသံအတိုးအပို (၀.၅)၊ ၀.၅၂၆ စင်တီမီတာ၊ ဧရိယာ/ပမာဏ ၆
- ခ တစ်ခုချင်းစီကို သစ်ကိုမျက်နှာပြင်စက်လေးတွေရဲ့ အသံအတိုးအကျယ် 5.236 ထို့ကြောင့် ပျမ်းမျှအချင်းဝက်သည် ၀.၁၀၇၇ စင်တီမီတာ ဖြစ်သည်။ နယ်ပယ်တစ်ခု၏ အပိုသည် ခန္ဓာကိုယ်၌ ကျန်ရှိနေသေး။ အသားဝါခြင်းကို ဖြစ်စေသည် ထိုအချင်းဝက်သည် ၄ (၀.၁၀၇၇ စင်တီမီတာ) ၃.၄၅၈ စင်တီမီတာ၊ ဧရိယာ/ပမာဏ ၂၇.၈
- ဂ ဧရိယာ emulsified/ ဧရိယာ droplet (100) (0.1458 စင်တီမီတာ : ) စင်တီမီတာ ၄.၆၄
- ထို့ကြောင့် emulsified droplets ၁၀၀ လုံး၏ စုစုပေါင်း ဧရိယာသည် ၄.၆၄ ဖြစ်သည်။ မူလပိုကြီးမားသော lipid droplet ၏ ဧရိယာကို မြှောက်ပါ။ ဒါလည်း emulsified/volume droplet (၁၀၀) (၅.၂၃၆

၃။ ဆီး သွားခြင်းသည် ရှိရှိနိမ့်ခြင်းအားလုံးကို ပြီးမြောက်စေလိမ့်မည်။ tion reflex လွန်တစ်လောက်ခါးအောက်ပိုင်းကနေ အောက်ကိုဆင်းနေလို့ အနိမ့်ကျောရိုးကြီးဒဏ်ရာ။ ပြင်ပ၏ ဆန္ဒအလျောက် ထိခိုက်ချုပ် anal sphincter သည် အနှောင့်အယှက်ကြောင့် မဖြစ်နိုင်ပါ။ မူလ motor cortex နှင့် အောက်ဆိုင်သွေးသောလမ်းကြောင်း ဒီ sphincter ကို ထောက်ပံ့ပေးတဲ့ motor neuron

၄။ Glucuronyl transferase ကို မလုံလောက်သော အခါ eryth- မွေးဖွားစဉ်အတွင်း ထုတ်လုပ်ခဲ့သော bilirubin အားလုံးကို ပေါင်းရန် မွေးကင်းစကလေးငယ် glycyuronic acid နှင့် rocyte ပျက်စီးခြင်းသည် အပိုမရှိဘဲ သွေးထဲသို့ ထုတ်ပေးသည်။ မန်ဖတ်ဆော်ဒါ (bak) ကို သွေးခြေရည်ထဲသို့ ထည့်သွင်းခြင်းသည် ထုတ်လုပ်မှုကို အပိုမရှိဘဲ သွေးထဲသို့ ထည့်သွင်းခြင်းသည် မွေးကင်းစဉ်။

၅။ အစာအိမ်ကို ဖယ်ရှားခြင်းသည် အန္တရာယ်ရှိသော သွေးအားနည်းရောဂါ ဖြစ်စေသည်။ ရလဒ်အတွက် လိုအပ်သော ပင်ကိုယ်အချက်မရှိခြင်းကြောင့် ဖြစ်သည်။ စိတ်မင် B က၏ စုပ်ယူ ၂ : terminal ileum lead များကို ဖယ်ရှားခြင်း ၎င်းသည် စိတ်မင်ရှိသော တစ်ခုတည်းသော နေရာဖြစ်သော ကြောင့် အန္တရာယ်ရှိသော သွေးအားနည်းရောဂါ သို့ B ၂ : စုပ်ယူနိုင်သည်။



သိင်္ဂါရုံ... TSH မြင့်တက်နေသော်လည်း သိင်္ဂါရုံကလေးရှိနေနိုင်ပါသေးသည်... အိုင်အိုင်... ကြောင့်လုံလောက်သောသိင်္ဂါရုံဟော်မုန်းကိုမထုတ်ပေးပါချီတဲ့ခြင်း။

၃။ CRH နှင့်/သို့မဟုတ် ACTH ကို တွဲ၍ မြင့်တင်ပါ... ပိုလျှံသော cortisol ထုတ်လွှတ်မှုသည် ချို့ယွင်းမှု၏နောက်ကျယ်မှုဖြစ်သည်... hypothalamic/anterior pituitary အဆင့် အကယ်၍ CRH နှင့် ACTH ပိုလျှံသော corti- ပမာဏနှင့်အတူပုံမှန်အားဖြင့်အောက်တွင်ရှိသည်။... sol secretion, အခြေအနေသည် adre- ခွံလျှံယွင်းချက်တစ်ခုကြောင့်ဖြစ်သည်။... nal cortex အဆင့်၊ ပိုလျှံသော cortisol သည် hypothala ကိုဟန်တားသည်။... mus နှင့် anterior pituitary သည်အနုတ်လက္ခဏာတို့ပြန်ချက်ဖက်ရှင်တွင်ရှိသည်။

4. testicular feminization syndrome ရှိသောအမျိုးသားများသည် မဖြစ်နိုင်ပါသည်။ များသောအားဖြင့် အရပ်ရပ်ရှိရန် မြင့်တင်ရန် testosterone ဟော်မုန်းမရှိခြင်းကြောင့် မရှိခြင်းပြောလျားသောအရိုးများ၏ epiphyseal ပြားများကိုပိတ်ပစ်သည်... testosterone ရ၏။

လက်တွေ့ထည့်သွင်းစဉ်းစားခြင်း

(စာမျက်နှာ ၆၈၉ တွင်မေးခွန်း။) pituitary gland ဖယ်ရှားပြီးနောက်ဟော်မုန်းအစားထိုးကုသမှု သိုင်းရိုက်ဟော်မုန်းပါဝင်သင့်သည် (သိုင်းရိုက်ဂလင်းကမထောက်ပံ့ပါ။ TSH မရှိသောအခါလုံလောက်သောသိုင်းရိုက်ဟော်မုန်းကိုလုံလောက်စွာရရှိစေသည်။... corticoid (ACTH မရှိခြင်း)။ အထူးသဖြင့်စိတ်ဖိစီးမှုများတွင်ဖြစ်သည်... အခြေအနေများ။... ညွှန်ပြပါကအမျိုးသား (သို့) အမျိုးသမီးလိုင်ဟော်မုန်းကိုပြန်လည်ထုတ်ပေးရန်အတွက်... ဤဟော်မုန်းများသည်ရှင်သန်ရန်မရှိမဖြစ်လိုအပ်သော်လည်း၊... ဥပမာအားဖြင့် testosterone သည်အမျိုးသားများအတွက်အရေးကြီးသောအခန်းကဏ္ဍပါဝင်သည်။... bidu ။ ကြီးထွားဟော်မုန်းနှင့် prolactin အစားထိုးရန်မလိုအပ်ပါ။... သူတို့၏မရှိခြင်းကြောင့်ဤအရာသည်ကြီးလေးသောအကျိုးဆက်များကိုဖြစ်ပေါ်စေမည်မဟုတ်ပေ။... တစ် ဦး ချင်း Vasopressin မလိုလောက်လျှင်အစားထိုးရန်လိုအပ်နိုင်သည်... ဒီဟော်မုန်းပမာဏကို hypo- thalamus သည် posterior pituitary မရှိခြင်း။

အခန်း ၁၉ အရပ်စွည့် Endocrine ဂလင်း

ရည်ရွယ်ချက်မေးခွန်းများ

- (စာမျက်နှာ ၇၃၈ တွင်မေးခွန်းများ။) 1. F 2. T 3. T 4. T 5. T 6. F 7. F 8. F 9. colloid, thyro globulin 10. glycogenesis, glycogenolysis

အခန်းဆုံးရည်ရွယ်ချက်မေးခွန်းများအတွက်အဖြေများ၊ Quantitative လေ့ကျင့်ခန်းများ၊ စဉ်းစားရန်အချက်များနှင့်လက်တွေ့ထည့်သွင်းစဉ်းစားမှုများ A-55

ကြုံရသော... အိုင်အိုင်... အားဖြည့်ဆေးမအိုင်အိုင်ကိုရယူသည်... ပင်လယ်အနှံနှင့်အခြားအရာများအာဟာရဓာတ်များ... ပင်လယ်ကမ်းရိုးတန်းဒေသများမှသာအိုင်အိုင်ကြွယ်ဝသောအစားအစာများကိုကိုင်ပို့သည်။

၂။ Anaphylactic shock သည်အလွန်ပြင်းထန်သောဓာတ်မတည့်မှုဖြစ်သည်... အားအား... အိုင်အိုင်... အားဖြည့်ဆေးမအိုင်အိုင်ကိုရယူသည်... ဆက်စပ်မှုတစ်ခုကဲ့သို့သီးခြားဓာတ်မတည့်မှုနှင့်ထိတွေ့မှုတို့ပါရှိမှု... လူတစ် ဦး သည်အလွန်အာရုံခံစားမှုရှိသောပျားတပ်ဖြင့်... အရွယ်အစား ဤဓာတ်အကျိုးဆောင်များကသွေးလည်ပတ်မှုကိုတုန်လှုပ်စေသည်... (ပြင်းထန်သောသွေးတိုးရောဂါ) ကိုနှစ်ချက်သက်ရောက်မှုအားဖြင့် (၁) လျော့ပေါ့ပေးခြင်း... arteriolar ချောမွေ့သောကြွက်သားသည်ကျယ်ပြန့်သော arteriolar ကိုဖြစ်ပေါ်စေသည်... vasodilation နှင့်စုစုပေါင်း peripheral ခုခံမှုနှင့်ရလဒ်တစ်ခုခုကင်းသည်... သွေးလွတ်ကြောသွေးဖိအား (၂) ယေဘုယျအားဖြင့်တိုးပွားမှုကိုဖြစ်ပေါ်စေခြင်းဖြင့်... သွေးကြောမျှင်များစိမ့်ဝင်မှုနှင့်ပုံမှန်အရည်များပြောင်းသွားသည်... plasma သည် interstitial fluid ထဲသို့ ကျအပြောင်းအလဲသည်ထိရောက်မှုကိုလျော့ကျစေသည်... လည်ပတ်နေသောပမာဏ၊ သွေးလွတ်ကြောသွေးဖိအားကိုပိုမိုလျော့ချပေးသည်။ ကြော်ငြာ... ရှင်းရှင်းပြောရရင်ဒီဓာတ်အကျိုးဆောင်တွေကသိသာထင်ရှားစေတာပါ... anaphylactic shock သည်သားကောင်ကိုမဖြစ်နိုင်ပါ... ကျားသောအသက်ရှူလမ်းကြောင်းမှတစ်ဆင့်လုံလောက်သောလေကိုရွှေ့ပါ။ ဒါတွေကြောင့်ပါ... တုံ့ပြန်မှုများသည်လျင်မြန်စွာဖြစ်ပွားပြီးသေစေနိုင်သည်။ ဓာတ်မတည့်သောသူများဖြစ်နိုင်သည်... ပျားချောင်းများကိုတိုးဆေး epinephrine ကို၎င်းတို့၏အတွင်း၌ထားရန်အကြံပေးသည်... အပို။ ၎င်း၏အားဖြင့် arteriolar vasoconstriction ကိုမြှင့်တင်ခြင်းအားဖြင့်... arteriolar ချောမွေ့ကြွက်သားနှင့် receptors ၊ အပေါ်လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်... bronchodilation ကို bronch ၊ receptors ၊ ဖြင့်လုပ်ဆောင်ခြင်းအားဖြင့်... chiolar ချောမွေ့ကြွက်သား (တွေ့မြင်။ စာပိုတွင် 7-3, p ။ 242), epinephrine... anaphylactic ဓာတ်တိုးခြင်း၏အသက်အန္တရာယ်ကိုဆန့်ကျင်သည်။... ပျားတုပ်ခံရခြင်း။

၃။ ရောဂါပိုးသည်စိတ်ဖိစီးမှုကိုတုန်ပြန်စေသည်... ၎င်းနှစ်ခုစလုံးသည် cortisol နှင့် epinephrine တို့ကိုပိုမိုထုတ်လွှတ်စေသည်... သွေးဂလင်းကိုစိတ်အဆင့်ကိုမြှင့်တင်စေသည်။ ဒါကပြဿနာတစ်ခုဖြစ်လာတယ်... ဆိုင်းရိုက်ဟော်မုန်းများသည်မြင့်တက်နေသောသွေးကိုနှိမ်ချရန်လိုအပ်သည်... အပိုအဆင့်ထိုးခြင်း (သို့) ဖြစ်နိုင်ခြေကိုလျော့ချပေးခြင်းဖြင့်ဂလင်းကို... ကာခံစိတ်အိတ်စားသုံးခြင်းနှင့်/သို့မဟုတ်အချို့ကိုသုံးရန်လေ့ကျင့်ခန်းလုပ်ခြင်း... အပိုသွေးဂလင်းကို။ သာမန်လူတစ် ဦး အနေနှင့်စစ်ဆေးခြင်းသည်... အင်ဆူလင်နှင့်အခြားဟော်မုန်းများအကြားဟန်ချက်ညီသောစနစ်... ဆန့်ကျင်သောအင်ဆူလင်၏လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်များသည်သွေးအတွင်းဂလင်းကိုထိန်းပေးသည်... စိတ်ဖိစီးမှုတုံ့ပြန်မှုအတွင်းအကျိုးသင့်အကြောင်းသင့်ကန့်သတ်ချက်များ။

၄။ Chvostek ၏လက္ခဏာရှိနေခြင်းသည်တိုးပွားလာသော neu- ရလဒ်များကြောင့်ဖြစ်သည်။ အလယ်အလတ် hyposecretion ကြောင့်ဖြစ်ပေါ်လာသော romuscular excitability parathyroid ဟော်မုန်း။

၅။ ကင်ဆာရောဂါသည် meta မဖြစ်ပေါ်လာလျှင် အရိုးများကျိုးကျွတ်ပါ။ ဖျက်ဆီးခဲ့သောတည်ငြိမ်သောအကျက်ဆဲလ်များ၊... Calcemia နှင့် hyperphosphatemia သည်ကယ်လ်စီယမ်မိမ့်မီသို့ဖြစ်လာလိမ့်မည်... ပျက်စီးသွားသောအရိုးမှဖော့စဖိတ်အားထုတ်လွှတ်သည်။ ဟိ... hyperphosphatemia မဟုတ်ဘဲ hyperphosphatemia သည်မကြာခင်ဖြစ်ပွားလေ့ရှိသည်ဟုသောအချက်ဖြစ်သည်။... ကုမူဏီများသည်ကင်ဆာရောဂါနှင့်ဆက်စပ်သော hypercalcemia ကို ဦး ဆောင်စိမ့်မိခဲ့သည်။... အရိုးများပျက်စီးခြင်းကို hypercalce ဧ၏အကြောင်းရင်းအဖြစ်မှဖယ်ရှားရန်... ဗီတာ ထိုအစား၎င်းတို့သည်အကျိတ်များထုတ်လုပ်သည်ဟုသိသောဝ င်ခဲ့ကြသည်

LH ထုတ်ခြင်း၊ မျိုးဥထွက်ခြင်းနှင့်သားအိမ်၏အခြားဖြစ်ရပ်များ သံသရာထွက်လာပါ။ ထို့ကြောင့်စဉ်ဆက်မပြတ် GnRH စီမံခန့်ခွဲမှုဖြစ်နိုင်သည်... သန္ဓေတားဆေးနည်းလမ်းအဖြစ်သုံးပါ။

၂. လူငယ်တစ်ဦးလူကလေးအတွက် testosterone hypersecretion prema- ဖြစ်ပေါ်စေသည်... သူသည်ကြီးထွားမှုပိုမိုရရှိရန် epiphyseal ပန်းကန်များကိုပိတ်ပစ်သည်... သူသည်မျိုးရိုးဗီဇအမြင်ကိုရောက်မီ ကေလး... ကိုယ်ပိုင်သား puberty, charac- လက္ခဏာများကိုပြုလုပ်မည်။... ဒုတိယအကြိမ်လင်ပိုင်းဆိုင်ရာဖွံ့ဖြိုးမှုအချိန်မတိုင်မီ ဖြိုးမှုကြောင့်... နက်ရှိုင်းသောအသံ၊ မုတ်ဆိတ်၊ လင်တိုကြီးခြင်းနှင့်လင်ဆက်ဆံခြင်းကဲ့သို့သောအချက်များ... ထုတ်

၃။ တားစီးနိုင်သောဆေးများ၏ဆေးထွက်ဆိုးကျိုးဖြစ်နိုင်သည်... sympathetic အာရုံကြောစနစ်လုပ်ဆောင်မှုသည်ကုသမှု၏တစ်စိတ်တစ်ပိုင်းဖြစ်သည်... သွေးတိုးရောဂါသည်အမျိုးသားများလိုင်ဆက်ဆံခြင်းကိုမလုပ်ဆောင်နိုင်ပါ။... အလိုအလျောက်အာရုံကြောစနစ်၏ကျိုးပြားမှုနှစ်ခုလုံးလိုအပ်သည်... အမျိုးသားလိုင်ပိုင်းဆိုင်ရာလုပ်ရပ်အတွက် Parasympathetic လှုပ်ရှားမှုသည်မရှိမဖြစ်လိုအပ်သည်... စိတ်ထူမှုဖြိုးမြောက်ရန်နှင့်ကိုယ်ချင်းစာစိတ်ထားရန်အရေးကြီးသည်... သူတို့ထုတ်

4. Posterior pituitary extract တွင်သိုလှောင်ထားသောအရာများစွာပါ ဝ င်သည်... oxytocin သည်သွေးလည်ပတ်မှုကိုလွယ်ကူစေရန်စိမ့်နိုင်သည်။... သားအိမ်ကျိုးနိုင်အားကိုမြှင့်တင်ပေးသည်။ Exogenous oxytocin သည်... အမျိုးသမီးသည်သက်တမ်းစေ့ပါကအလုပ်သမားကိုမွေးထုတ်ရာတွင်အအောင်မြင်ဆုံးဖြစ်သည်။... myome- အာရုံစူးစိုက်မှုများပြားလာခြင်းကြောင့်ဖြစ်နိုင်သည်။... ထိုအချိန်တွင် oxytocin receptors ကိုစမ်းသပ်သည်။

၅။ GnRH (သို့) FSH နှင့် LH တို့သည်ရောဂါကုသရာတွင်မထိရောက်ပါ။... သားဥအိမ်များသည်တုံ့ပြန်မှုမရှိတော့သောကြောင့်သွေးဆုံးခြင်း၏ toms... gonadotropins သို့ ထို့ကြောင့်ဤဟော်မုန်းများဖြင့်ကုသပါ... estrogen နှင့် pro gesterone secretion ကိုမဖြစ်စေပါ။ တကယ်တော့... GnRH, FSH နှင့် LH အဆင့်များသည် postmeno- တွင် postmeno- တွင်မြင့်မားနေပြီ။... သားဥအိမ်မှတုံ့ပြန်မှုမရှိခြင်းကြောင့်ခေတ္တရပ်နားသောအမျိုးသမီးများ

စာမျက်နှာ ၇

PTH ၏လုပ်ဆောင်မှုများကိုတူပသောအရာများအားအတုခိုးသောအရာများ၊ လက်ရှိ hypercalcemia နှင့် hypophosphatemia

လက်တွေ့ထည့်သွင်းစဉ်းစားခြင်း

(စာမျက်နှာ ၇၃၉ တွင်မေးခွန်း။) “ မုတ်ဆိတ်မွေးအမျိုးသမီးများ၏ဆိုးချိုရောဂါ” သည်ပိုလျှံသော cortisol နှစ်ခုလုံး... adrenal androgen ပိုလျှံစေခြင်း၊ cortisol အလွန်အကျွံထုတ်ခြင်း... hyperglycemia နှင့် glucosuria ကိုဖြစ်ပေါ်စေသည်။ Glucosuria ကိုအားပေးသည်... osmotic diuresis သည်ရေဓာတ်ခမ်းခြောက်ခြင်းနှင့်လျော်ကြေးပေးခြင်းကိုဖြစ်စေသည်။... tory သည်ရေဓာတ်သောက်စားမှုကိုတိုးစေသည်။ ဤလက္ခဏာအားလုံးသည် -... hyperglycemia, glucosuria, polyuria, and polydipsia - အတုခိုးသည်... ဆိုးချိုရောဂါ။ အမျိုးသမီးများတွင် adrenal androgen ပိုလျှံသည်... မုတ်ဆိတ်ကြီးထွားခြင်းကဲ့သို့ယောက်ျားပီသသောလက္ခဏာများကိုအားပေးသည်။... cortisol နှင့် adrenal an နှစ်ခုလုံးကိုတစ်ပြိုင်နက် hypersecretion... drogen သည်ပိုများသော CRH/ACTH se- ဒုတိယဆင့်တွင်ပိုဖြစ်နိုင်သည်။... ACTH သည် cortisol နှင့် androgen နှစ်ခုလုံးကိုလုံလောက်သောကြောင့် cretion ဖြစ်... adrenal cortex မထုတ်လုပ်သည်။

အခန်း ၂၀ မျိုးပွားခြင်း စနစ်

ရည်ရွယ်ချက်မေးခွန်းများ

- (စာမျက်နှာ ၇၉၇ တွင်မေးခွန်းများ။) 1. T 2. T 3. T 4. F 5. T 6. F 7. T 8. seminiferous tubules, FSH, testosterone 9. thecal, LH၊ granulosa, FSH 10. ကိုယ်ဝန်၏ corpus luteum 11. လူသား chorionic gonadotropin 12. c 13. e 14. 1.c, 2.a, 3.b, 4.c, 5.a, 6.a, 7.c, 8.b, 9.c 15. 1.a, 2.c, 3.b ရ

4.a, 5.a, 6.b

စဉ်းစားရန်အချက်များ

(စာမျက်နှာ ၇၉၈ တွင်မေးခွန်းများ။ )

I. anterior pituitary သည်ပုံမှန် pulsatile ကိုသာတုံ့ပြန်သည်။ GnRH ပုံစံနှင့် gonadotropins များကိုပြန်လည်ထုတ်လွှတ်ခြင်းမပြုပါ။ GnRH နှင့်ဆက်သက်ပြတ်ထိတွေ့မှုမှတစ်ဆင့် FSH မရှိခြင်း

ian ဟော်မုန်း။

လက်တွေ့ထည့်သွင်းစဉ်းစားခြင်း

(စာမျက်နှာ ၇၉၈ တွင်မေးခွန်း။ )

သားဥအိမ်ကိုဖိစိတ်ရန်၏ပထမဆုံးသတိပေးချက်မှာဆန့်ခြင်းကြောင့်ဖြစ်သောနာကျင်မှုကြီးထွားနေသောသန္ဓေသားလောင်း၏ oviduct ကိုထည့်သွင်းသည်။ tubal ကိုယ်ဝန်သားဥအိမ်ကထုတ်လွှဲမရတဲ့အတွက်ခွဲစိတ်မှုရပ်စဲရမယ်။ သားအိမ်သည်ကြီးထွားလာသောသန္ဓေသားအတွက်လိုက်လျောညီထွေဖြစ်အောင်လုပ်ပေးသည်။ မဖယ်ထုတ်လျှင်ကြီးထွားနေသောသန္ဓေသားလောင်းသည်သားဥအိမ်ပေါက်ပြုစေလိမ့်မည်။ သေစေနိုင်သောသွေးလွန်ခြင်းကိုဖြစ်စေသည်။

A-56 နောက်ဆက်တွဲ F

စာမျက်နှာ ၈

ခက်ဆစ်

တိုင်း တစ်ခုသည်အမှောင်အဖွဲ့များနှင့်တစ်လျှည့်စီပြုလုပ်သည်။ light (1) တိုင်းများသည် striated အသွင်သဏ္ဍန်ကုန်တီးသည် skeletal or cardiac muscle fibre လှုပ်တုံ့အခါအခါအမျှင်တွေပါတယ် အလင်းအားအကျကြည့်မှန်ဖြင့်ကြည့်သည်

ရုပ်ယူခြင်း ၊ ကြည့်ကင်သောအာဟာရများကိုလွှဲပြောင်းပေးခြင်းနှင့် အစာခြေလမ်းကြောင်းမှ lumen သို့အရည်များကိုမျှမျှစီသည့် သွေးသို့မဟုတ် lymph

ရုပ်ယူနိုင်သောအခြေအနေ The following metabolic state a အာဟာရဓာတ်များရုပ်ယူသောအခါနှင့်အစာစားသည် သို့လျှော့၎င်း ကျွေးမွေးခြင်းဖြစ်သည်

အစာခြေအင်္ဂါအစိတ်အပိုင်း Exocrine ကိုယ်တွင်းအင်္ဂါများ သူတို့၏အစာခြေလမ်းကြောင်း၏နံရံကိုငင်းတိုအနားပေးထားသည် ပြွန်းများမှတစ်ဆင့်အစာချလမ်းကြောင်းသို့ lumen

လိင်အင်္ဂါအစိတ်အပိုင်းများကို သူတို့၏အချည်းနီးဖြစ်စေသော ဆက်စပ်မှုများလမ်းကြောင်းထဲသို့ erections

နေရာထိုင်ခင်း ခွန်အားကိုချိန်ညှိပေးနိုင်သည် မျက်စိမှန်ဘီလူး၏အနိမ့်အင်အားနှင့်အစာခြေလမ်းကြောင်းအောင် အရင်းအမြစ်များသည်မြင်လွှာကိုအာရုံစိုက်နိုင်သည်

acetylcholine (ACh) (as '-uh-til-ko-'le'n) The autonomic pre- အာလုံးမှထုတ်လွှတ်သော neurotransmitter ganglionic အမျိုးမျိုး parasympathetic postganglionic အမျှင်များနှင့်ပတ်သက်အာရုံစိုက်မှုများ

acetylcholinesterase (AChE) (as '-uh-til-ko-'luh-NES-til-ri-'a) မော်တားတွင်ရှိနေသောအင်ဇိုင်းတစ်ခု end-plate membrane သည် skeletal muscle fibre တစ်ခုဖြစ်သည် acetylcholine inactivates

ACh acetylcholine ကိုကြည့်ပါ

AChE acetylcholinesterase ကိုကြည့်ပါ

အက်ဆစ်သည် အထွတ်ထွင်းစေသောဟိုက်ဒရိုဂျင်ဓာတ်ပါဝင်သည့် လွတ်လပ်သောဟိုက်ဒရိုဂျင်အိုင်ယွန်းနှင့် anion ကွဲခြင်း

acidosis (as-i-'DO-'su) သွေး၏ pH သည် ၇.၃၅ ထက်နည်းသည် acini (asi-'ni) saclike များ၏အတွင်းသို့အစိတ်အပိုင်း အစာခြေအင်ဇိုင်းကိုသို့ exocrine ဂလင်းများ ပန်ကရိယပ်ဂလင်းများ (သို့) နို့ရည်ထုတ်လုပ်သည့် mammary ဂလင်း

ခွံအားတုံ့ပြန်မှုများရှိသောအရာ များမှာ အတွင်းသို့ဖြင့်ငင်ခြားသားစိတ်ဆွေများကိုစိတ်ထားရွေးချယ်သည်။ ခန္ဓာကိုယ်သည်ယခင်ကထိတွေ့ခဲ့ဖူးသောရီရယ်၊ antibody-mediated ခွံအား နှင့် cell- ကိုလည်းကြည့်ပါ။ ကြားဖြတ်ခွံအားစနစ်

ACTH adrenocorticotrophic ဟော်မုန်း ကိုကြည့်ပါ actin သည် contractile protein ကိုနောက်ပြန်စွဲသည့်သည်။ ကြွက်သားအမျိုးမျိုးတွင်ပါလျှော့သောအမျှင်များ၏အရိုး

လှုပ်ဆောင်ချက်အလားအလာ တို့ကို လျင်မြန်၊ ကြီးမားသောအပြောင်းအလဲများ ခန့်ပေးအဖြစ်တာဝန်ယူသောအပြောင်းအလားအလားအလာ စိတ်လှုပ်ရှားမှုမှဆိုင်လွှတ်လွှတ်အချက်ပြ

တက်ကြွသောသက်တမ်းကုန်ဆုံး ခြင်းသည်အဆုတ်ကိုပိုမိုရှင်းလင်းစေသည်။ ရှည်စားဟောင်းကိုစာချုပ်ချုပ်ဆိုခြင်းဖြင့်အနားယူခွင့်ထက်လုံးဝ piratory ကြွက်သား အတင်းအကျပ်သက်တမ်းကုန်ဆုံး ခြင်းဟုလည်းခေါ်သည်

ကျောက်ကပ်ပြွန်းများတစ်လျှောက်ပြန်လည်စုပ်ယူရန်လိုအပ်သည်။ ery အသုံးစရိတ်

တက်ကြွသောသယ်ယူပို့ဆောင်ရေး Active carrier-mediated transport ပစ္စည်းတစ်ခု၏သယ်ယူပို့ဆောင်ရေးတွင်ပါဝင်သောငှင်း၏ဆန့်ကျင်ဖက်ပလာစမာအမြှေးပါးကို ဖြတ်၍ အလယ်ဖက်မှ gradient

ခြား သိမြင် နိုင်စွမ်း၊ ပိုင်းခြားသိမြင်နိုင်စွမ်း လွှဲဆောင်မှုမတူညီတဲ့အချက်နှစ်ခုကြား

လိုက်လျောညီထွေ မရှိခြင်းလက်ခံနိုင်သောအလားအလာကျဆင်းခြင်း ပြင်းအားတစ်ခုတည်းကိုဆက်လက်ထုတ်နှုန်းအားပေးနေဆဲလည်း adenosine diphosphate (ADP) (uh-'DEN-uh-'se-'n)

အုပ်စုနှစ်စုမှဗျာစိတ်ထုတ်ကုန်များ ဆဲလ်၏အသုံးပြုမှုအတွက်စွမ်းအင်ထုတ်ပေးရန် ATP ကိုအသုံးပြုသည်။ adenosine triphosphate (ATP) Th e ခန္ဓာကိုယ်ရှိ com- မှန်စွမ်းအင် "ငွေကြေး"။

high-energy, terminal phosphate bond ၎င်း high-energy, terminal phosphate bond ၎င်း ဆယ်လူလာလှုပ်ရှားမှုများအားစွမ်းအင်ထောက်ပံ့ပေးသည်

adenyl cyclase (ah-'DEN-il-'si-'kla's) The အမြှေးပါး- ချည်ဆောင်ထားသောအင်ဇိုင်းကို G ပရိုတင်းဖြင့်အသက်သွယ်အုပ်စုနှစ်စု၏ချည်ဆောင်ခြင်းကိုတုံ့ပြန်သောကြားခံ မျက်နှာပြင်အမြှေးပါးလက်ခံသွန် လular messenger တစ်ခုသည်အားဖြင့် intracellular cyclic AMP ကိုဖွင့်ပေးသည် ဒုတိယ messenger

လုံလောက်သောလုံ့ဆော်မှု a a to stimulus အမျိုးအစား photore ကဲ့သို့တို့ကဲ့တွဲ receptor အမျိုးအစားသည်တုံ့ပြန်သည်။ ceptor သည်အလင်းကိုတုံ့ပြန်သည်

ADH vasopressin ကိုကြည့်ပါ adipocytes adipose တစ်သွားတွင်အဆီဆဲလ်များ triglyc- စတိုး အဆီဓာတ်ကိုဖယ်ရှားပြီး adipokines တုခေါ်သော ဟော်မုန်းများကိုထုတ်လွှတ်သည်

adipokines ဟော်မုန်းများသည် adipose တစ်သွားများမှထုတ်လွှတ်သည် ၎င်းသည်စွမ်းအင်မြေ့ခြင်းအရေကြီးသောအနီးကဏ္ဍတွင်ပါဝင်သည့် metabolism

adipose တစ်သွား သည်လုံလောက်ရန်အထူးပြုလုပ်ထားသောတစ်သွား triglyceride အဆီဓာတ်; အပြောင်းအကွဲအကျိုးရှိသည့် hypodermis

ADP adenosine diphosphate ကိုကြည့်ပါ adrenal cortex (uh-'DRE-'nül) ၎င်း၏အပြင်ဘက် adrenal ဂလင်း; steroid သုံးမျိုးကိုလွှဲထုတ်လုပ်သည် ဟော်မုန်းများ: glucocorticoids, mineralocorticoids နှင့် လိင်ဟော်မုန်း

adrenal medulla (muh-'DUL-uh) အတွင်းပိုင်း adrenal ဂလင်း၏လှုပ်ဆောင်ချက်; ဟော်မုန်းများကိုထုတ်လွှတ်သည် epinephrine နှင့် norepinephrine တို့ကိုသွေးထဲသို့ထည့်သည် ကိုယ်ချင်းစာစိတ်လုံ့ဆော်မှုကိုတုံ့ပြန်ခြင်း

adrenocorticotropic အမျှင်များ (ad-'ruh-'NUR-'jik) အာရုံကြောအမျှင်များ norepinephrine ကဲ့သို့တို့၏ neurotransmitter အဖြစ်ထုတ်လွှတ်သည်

adrenocorticotrophic ဟော်မုန်း (ACTH) (ad-'re-'no-'kro-'tuh-'ko-'TRO-'P-'ik) ရှေ့ pituitary hor- adrenal gland ၎င်း၏ cortisol secretion ကိုလုံ့ဆော်ပေးသော mone ဝမ်း နှင့် adrenal cortex ကြီးထွားမှုကိုအားပေးသည်

ကြွက်သား၏ဂျီနိုသောစွမ်းအင်လိုအပ်ချက်များကိုပံ့ပိုးပါ။ လည်း ခံနိုင်ရည်အမျိုးအစားလေ့ကျင့်ခန်း ဟုခေါ်သည်

afferent arteriole (AF-'er-ent ar-'TIR-'e-'o-'l) အဆိုပါ ves- ဖွဲ့စည်းတစ်ခု၏သယ်ယူပို့ဆောင်ရေးအားလုံး၏ဆန့်ကျင်ဖက် glomerulus ထဲသို့သွေးများသယ်ဆောင်သည် ကျောက်ကပ်၏ nephron

afferent division အရုံပစ္စည်း၏အပိုင်း အာရုံကြောစနစ်သည်သတင်းအချက်အလက်များသယ်ဆောင်သည် ဗဟိုအာရုံကြောစနစ်အစွန်အဖျား

afferent neuron အာရုံစိုက်ပိုင်ဆိုင်သော Neuron ၎င်း၏အဆုံးစွန်၌ receptor နှင့်အချက်အလက်များသယ်ဆောင် ဗဟိုအာရုံကြောစနစ်သို့ဆက်သွယ်သည်

hyperpolarization ပြီးနောက် (hi-'pur-'po-'luh-'ruh-'ZA-'ရှောင်ရန်) အနည်းငယ် ယာယီ hyperpolarization ပြုလုပ်သည် တခါတရံမှာဖြစ်နိုင်ချေရှိတဲ့လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်ရဲ့အဆုံးမှာဖြစ်တတ်ပါတယ်

agonist သည် neurotransmit နှင့်ဆက်သွယ်သောဓာတ်တစ်မျိုးဖြစ်သည်။ ter ၎င်း၏ receptors များနှင့် neurotransmitter's များကိုအတုခိုးသည် တုံ့ပြန်မှု

agranulocytes (a-'GRAN-'yuh-'lo-'si-'ts) Leukocytes ဖြစ်သည် granulo အပါအဝင် granulules ဝင်ပါ။ cytes နှင့် monocytes

albumin (al-'BEW-'min) အသေးဆုံးနှင့်အများဆုံး ၎င်း၏ဝေပမာဏအများဆုံး ချည်ဆောင်ခြင်းနှင့်သယ်ယူပို့ဆောင်ရေး သွေးခြေစေ့ပျော်ဝင်နိုင်သောအရာများ၊ ကွန် plasma-colloid osmotic အတွက်အလေးအနက်ဂုဏ်ပြုသည် ဖိအား

aldosterone (al-'do-'steeer-'OWN) သို့မဟုတ် (al-'DOS-'tuh-'ro-'n) လုံ့ဆော်ပေးသော adrenocortical ဟော်မုန်း distal နှင့်ဆောင်ခြင်းဖြင့်ပြန်လည်စုပ်ယူသည်

alkalosis သာ ကွီးမွတ်၏ (al-'kuh-'Lo-'sus) သွေးသော pH ဖြစ်သည်

ဓာတ်မတည့် မှုရယူခြင်းသည်မသင့်လျော်သောသီးခြားဖြစ်သည် ပြွန်းတို့ကိုမမှန်သောပတ်ဝန်းကျင်သို့ကိုယ်ခံအားတုံ့ပြန်မှု ဟော်မုန်းအိုင်ရာပစ္စည်း

all-or-none ဥပဒေသည် စိတ်လှုပ်ရှားဖွယ်အမြှေးပါးကိုပြန်လည်ဖြစ်စေသည်။ အမြင့်ဆုံးလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်ပါဝင်သောလုံ့ဆော်မှုတစ်ခုသို့ sponds အချက်အလက်သည်နေရာအနိမ့်ပုံပုံနည်းသည့် အမြှေးပါး (သို့) လုံ့ဆောင်ချက်တစ်ခုနှင့်မတူပြန်ပါ အလားအလာလုံးဝ

alpha ( ) ဆဲလ်များ endocrine ပန်ကရိယပ်ဆဲလ်များဖြစ်သည်။ glucagon ဟော်မုန်းကိုထုတ်ပေးသည်

alpha motor neuron အိုသည့်မှာအတွင်းပိုင်းရှိ motor neuron တစ်ခုဖြစ်သည်။ vates သည်သာမန်အရိုးကြွက်သားမျှင်များဖြစ်သည်

alveolar surface tension (al-'VE-'o-'lur) မျက်နှာပြင် အဆုတ်တွင် alveoli ကိုဖုံးအုပ်ထားသောအရည်၏အား၊ မျက်နှာပြင်တင်းအား ကိုကြည့်ပါ

alveolar ventilation လေထု ပမာဏလွယ်သည် လေထုနှင့်တစ်ဖန်အတွင်း alveoli ကြား၊ ညီမျှသည် (ဒီရေအတိုးအနက်သေရောပမာဏအနုတိ) အသက်ရှူနှုန်း





















saturation အခြေအနေအားလုံးသည်ဆောင်းထားသောဆိုင်ကိရားတို့၏အားကိုးပြုသော အထူးပြုသော carrier မော်လီကျူးတစ်ခုပေါ်တွင်နေရာယူသည်။ Schwann ဆဲလ် (shwahn) myelin ဖွဲ့စည်းသောဆဲလ်များ အရ်အရ်ကြောစနစ်၏

အဆင့်မြင့်မှကြောစနစ်ဖြစ်သော သောတုန်းခါးများကိုခေါ်သောခြင်း လေမော်လီကျူးများသည်လေဖိအားနည်းရပ်ဝန်း၏အသေများနှင့်ပတ်သက် ပေါ်လီကျူးများ၏အားကိုးပြုသော

Translating...

စာမျက်နှာ ၂၁

spatial summation Post- ပေါင်းများစွာ၏အနှစ်ချုပ် တစ်ပြိုင်နက်တည်းဖြစ်ပေါ်လာသော synaptic အလားအလာများ လွှဲဆောင်မှုများ (သို့) ဆန့်ကျင်ဘက်များ (synapses များ)
အထူးအာရုံများ ရုပ်ပုံ၊ ကြားနားခြင်း၊ အရသာနှင့်အနံ့
တိကျ တုံ့ပြန်မှုအောင်ရေမှလေယာဉ်တင်သောမော်လီကျူး၏အားကိုးပြုသော
ပလာစမာတစ်ခုထက်တွင်တိကျသောအရာများသာ အမြေပေါ်

spermatogenesis (spur -mat-uh-JEN-uh-sus) သုတ်ပိုးထုတ်လုပ်မှု
sphincter (sflnk-tur) ဆန့်အလျှောက်ထိန်းချုပ်ထားသောလက်စွပ်
အကြောင်းအရာများအားထိန်းချုပ်သောအရိုးကြွက်သားများ အခေါင်းပေါက်မှအင်္ဂါတစ်ခုသို့အထွက်မှတဆင့် သို့မဟုတ်ပြန်
spinal reflex ဆိုသည်မှာ spina- ကိုပေါင်းစည်းထားသော reflex တစ်ခုဖြစ်သည်။
nal ကြိုး

သရက်ရွက် စိတ်သက်တမ်းပိုင်းရှိ lymphoid တစ်ခုမျိုး
lymphocytes နှင့် platelets များကိုသိလျှင်သောဝမ်းဗိုက်
သွေးနီညှပ်ဟောင်းများကိုဖျက်ဆီးသည်
equilibrium ချိတ်နယ် အဘယ်သူမှမထားတဲ့အတွက်တစ်ဦးစနစ်ဖြစ်သည်
အသားတင်ပြောင်းလဲမှုဖြစ်ပေါ်နေသည်

အ သားတင်မရှိသောစနစ်၏ တည်ငြိမ်သောအခြေအနေ
လုပ်ငန်းဆောင်ရွက်မှု passive forces နှင့် active ဖြစ်သောကြောင့်ဖြစ်သည်
အင်အားများအချင်းချင်းအပြန်အလှန်ဟန်ချက်ညီညီထိန်းညှိခြင်း၊
erby ကိုတည်ငြိမ်စေရန်အားပေးရန်သုံးသည်

ယမ်ဆဲလ်များသည် အတော်အတန်ခွဲခြားနိုင်သောဆဲလ်များဖြစ်သည်
အလွန်ကြီးပြားခြားနားသောအထူးဆဲလ်များကိုဖြစ်ပေါ်စေသည်
တစ်ချိန်တည်းမှာပင်ဆဲလ်အသစ်များပြုလုပ်သည်
sterocilia နှင့် vestibular ဆဲလ်ဆဲလ်များ
ငင်းသည့်စက်လှုပ်ရှားမှုများကိုလျှပ်စစ်အဖြစ်သို့ပြောင်းလဲပေးသည်။
cal အချက်ပြ

steroids (STEER-oidz) မှဆင်းသက်သောဟော်မုန်းများ
ကိုလက်စထရော
လုံဆော်မှု ဆိုသည်မှာတွေ့ရှိနိုင်သောရုပ်ပိုင်းဆိုင်ရာသို့မဟုတ်ဓာတုဗေဒဆိုင်ရာ
အရ်ခဲလက်ခံသွတ်စေသောရုပ်ဝန်းကွင်းမှာ

စိတ်ဓိစီးမှု ယေဘုယျအားဖြင့်အတိအကျမဟုတ်သောတုံ့ပြန်မှု
ခန္ဓာကိုယ်အားလုံးမှရရှိသည့်မဟုတ်ခြင်းခြောက်ရန်သည်အချက်သို့မဟုတ်
overwhelm, ခန္ဓာကိုယ်လျှော့ကျခြင်းကြောင့်ဖြစ်ပေါ်စေရန်ကိုပေးလိုက်တယ်
homeostasis ကိုထိန်းသိမ်းပါ

stretch reflex ဆိုသည်မှာသည် monosynaptic reflex ဖြစ်သည်
ဆွဲဆွဲ-ထောက်လှမ်းခြင်းမှဆင်းသက်လာသော afferent neuron
အချို့ကြက်သားတစ်ခုမှ receptor သည်တိုက်ရိုက်အဆုံးသတ်သည်
efferent neuron သည်တည်ဆောက်ကြက်သားကိုထောက်ပံ့ပေးသည်
ငင်းကိုကျစေပြီးဆန့်ကျင်ဖျက်ဆီးကျင့်သည်

stroke volume (SV) သွေးစုပ်သည့်ပမာဏ
တစ်ခုစီကိုကျခြင်း (သို့) ရိုက်ခြင်းဖြင့် ventricle တစ်ခုစီမှ
နှလုံး၏

subcortical ဒေသများ un- တည်ရှိသော ဦး နောက်ဒေသများ
basal nuclei အပါအဝင် cerebral cortex၊
thalamus နှင့် hypothalamus
submucosa di- ၏တစ်ခုမျိုးအလှူ
အမြေပေါ်နှင့်အောက်ဘက်၌တည်ရှိသောလက်ဟန်ပြုလမ်းကြောင်း
ပိုကြီးသောသွေးနှင့် lymph သွေးကြောများနှင့် a
အာရုံကြောစနစ်ယက်

ဥပမာပစ္စည်း P သည် neurotransmitter မှထုတ်လွှတ်သည်
နာကျိုးမှုအမျှင်
synaptic membrane (sub-sihp-NAP-ik) The
တည်ရှိသော postsynaptic ဆဲလ်အမြှေး၏တစ်စိတ်တစ်ပိုင်းဖြစ်သည်
synapse တစ်ခု၏အောက်တွင်ချက်ချင်းဖြစ်ပါ ဝင်သည်
synpt's neurotransmitter အတွက် ceptor ဆိုက်များ

suprachiasmatic nucleus (somp -ra-ki -as-MAT-ik)
hypothalamus ရှိအာရုံကြောဆဲလ်များဖြစ်သည့်
master ဇီဝနာရီ သရုပ်ဆောင်အဖြစ်တာဝန်ယူသည်
pacemaker ကဲ့သို့ကိရ်ခန္ဓာကိုများစွာတည်ပေါ်သည်
circadian ညီမျှချက်

မျက်နှာပြင်တင်း အား အရည်မျက်နှာပြင်အင်အား
ပိုပြီးနားသောရလဒ်မှထွက်ပေါ်လာသော air-water interface
ပတ် ဝ နားကျင့်သို့ရေမော်လီကျူး၏ဆွဲအား
ter တစ်မော်လီကျူးများသည်မျက်နှာပြင်အထက်လေထုထက် a

အရည်၏ရေယိုက်ကျဆင်းစေသောအင်အား
မျက်နှာနှင့်မျက်နှာပြင်ဆွဲဆွဲခြင်းကိုခံနိုင်ရည်ရှိသည်

ဓာနာစိတ်အာရုံကြောစနစ် ခွဲ၏
autonomic အာရုံကြောစနစ်ကိုဖွဲ့စည်းပေးသည်
အရေပေါ်အခြေအနေ (" တိုက်ခြင်း၊ ပြုသန့်ခြင်း ") သို့မဟုတ်စိတ်ဓိစီး
အားကိုးပြုသောဝါသနာကိုယ်အတွက်ခန္ဓာကိုယ်ကိုပြင်ဆင်ပါ
လုပ်ငန်းများ

symport ပုံစံသည် secondary active transport အတွက်ဖြစ်သည်
driving ion နှင့် solute move တို့ကွဲလွဲလျားသည်
ပလာစမာအမြှေးကို ဖြတ်၍ တွင်သော ဦး တည်ချက်;
cotransport ဟုလည်းခေါ်သည်

synapse (SIN-aps ) အထူးပြုလမ်းဆုံမှာ
ငင်းတွင်လုပ်ဆောင်မှုအလားအလာရှိသော neurons နှစ်ခုကို tween
presynaptic neuron သည်အမြှေးပေါက်လွှမ်းမိုးသည်။
မြွန်အားဖြင့် re- အားဖြင့် postsynaptic neuron ၏ tential
(အနိမ့်အနိမ့်) နှင့်ဆောင်ရွက်စေတော့ကိုလမ်းပေါ်
အာရုံခံများကြားတွင်သောင်းသောကွဲအက်ခြင်း

synergism (SIN-er-jiz-'um) ပေါင်းများစွာ၏ရလဒ်ဖြစ်သည်
ပေါင်းစပ် ef- ပေါင်းစပ်ပါဝင်သောပြည့်စုံကွဲလွဲဆောင်ရွက်မှုများ
fect သည်သုံးခြားသက်ရောက်ပေါင်းလဒ်ထက်ပိုကြီးသည်
နှင့်ခန္ဓာကိုယ်စနစ်များ
syntex (SIS-to-'le ) နှလုံးဆန့်ကျင်သောကာလ
စွန့်ပစ်ခြင်း

T + tri-iodothyronine ကိုကြည့်ပါ
T + thyroxine ကိုကြည့်ပါ
T - သယ်ယူပို့ဆောင်ရေးအမြင်ဆုံး နှင့် tubular အများဆုံး ကိုကြည့်ပါ
ထိတွေ့မှု (TACK-ih) ထိခြင်းကိုရည်ညွှန်းသည်
target-cell receptors အတွက် သည်ပစ်စေပေါ်ထွက်သည်ရှိသည်
ဓာတုပစ္စည်းတစ်ခုအတွက်သုံးခြားဆဲလ်များ
ဖျင့်မြေ
target cells ဆဲလ် အစိတ်အပိုင်း extracellular တစ်ခုဖြစ်သည်
ဟော်မုန်းသို့မဟုတ် neu ကဲ့သို့ဓာတုဗေဒဆိုင်ရာ
transmitter လွှမ်းမိုးမှုများ

temporal lobes ဦး နောက်၏အောက် lobes
cortex အစပိုင်းတွင် auditory input ကိုလုပ်ဆောင်သည်
temporal summation The summing of several
အလွန်နီးကပ်သော postsynaptic အလားအလာများ
အပြစ်တစ်ခုအားအောက်ဖျတ်ပစ်စေခြင်းကြောင့်အချိန်ခံရောက်သော
elic presynaptic neuron ဖြစ်သည်

တင်းဖာမှု ကြက်သားစုစည်းနေစဉ်ထွက်လာသောအင်အား
sarcomeres ကိုစီစဉ်ခြင်းဖြင့်ဆွဲဆွဲအားကိုဖြစ်ပေါ်စေသည်
ကြက်သား၏ elastic ကိုဆွဲဆွဲခြင်းနှင့်တင်းကျပ်ခြင်းတို့တွင်
တယ်ဆက်တစ်သျှူးများနှင့်အရွတ်များကိုပိုလွှတ်သည်
ကြက်သားနှင့်တွဲထားသည့်အရိုးအားတင်စေသည်

terminal ဓလတ် A motor neuron's enlarged knob-
အရိုးကြက်သားတစ်ခုအနီးတွင်အဆိုသတ်သွားသောအဆုံးသတ်ကဲ့သို့
အမျှင်တစ်ခုသည်ပြန်အထွက် acetylcholine ကိုထုတ်ပေးသည်
neuron တွင်လုပ်ဆောင်နိုင်သောအလားအလာ
testosterone (tes-TOS-tuh-'o 'n) အမျိုးသားလိင်ဟော်မုန်း
ဝေးဝေး၏ Leydig ဆဲလ်များဖြင့် 'n) ပြုထားသော mone

ဖေးခိုင်ရာဂါ (TET -n-us) သည်ဓာရဗေဒ အမြင်ဆုံးကြက်သားတစ်ခု
အမျှင်တစ်ခုဆွဲဆွဲအားဖြစ်ပေါ်စေသောကျခြင်း
အလွန်လျင်မြန်သောကြောင့်အနားယူရန်အခွင့်အလမ်းမရှိပေ
လုံဆော်မှုအားလုံးကြား
tetraiodothyronine နှင့် thyroxine ကိုကြည့်ပါ

thalamus (THAL-uh-'mus) ဦး နောက်ဒေသတွင်ပြုလုပ်သည်
prelimi- အတွက် pre-synaptic ပေါင်းစည်းရေးစင်တာဖြစ်ဆောင်ရွက်သည်
nary သည်အရ်ခဲသွင်းယူမှုအားလုံးသို့လုပ်ဆောင်လာရန်ဖြစ်သည်
ဦး နောက် cortex

theal cells (THAY-ke) ၏အထူးအလှူသည်
ized သားအိမ်တွယ်ဆက်တစ်သျှူးဆဲလ်များရေကျက်လာသည်
မှန်းညင်းပေါက်
thermoreceptor (thur -mo -'re -SEP-tur) အာရုံခံ
အပူနှင့်အအေးကိုလက်ခံနိုင်သော receptor

ထူးအမျှင်များ အထူးပြု cytoskeletal ဖွဲ့စည်းပုံများ
myosin နှင့်ဖွဲ့စည်းထားသောအရိုးကြွက်သားများအတွင်း

မော်လီကျူးများနှင့်ပါလွှာသောအမျှင်များနှင့်အပြန်အလှန်အကျိုးပြုသည်
ကြက်သားကျခြင်းနှင့်ပိုင်ဘာကိုပေါ်

thin filaments အထူးပြု cytoskeletal ဖွဲ့စည်းပုံများ
actin နှင့်ဖွဲ့စည်းထားသောအရိုးကြွက်သားများအတွင်း
troponin မော်လီကျူးများနှင့်အပြန်အလှန်အကျိုးပြုသည်
အမှတ်အမှတ်များနှင့်အတူအမျှင်တစ်ခုကိုအတိုကောက်ဖြစ်စေသည်
ကြက်သားကျခြင်း

thoracic cavity (tho -'RAS-ik) ရင်ဘတ်
အလားအလာအလားအလာ ၊ အရေးကြီးသောအလားအလာ
လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်အလားအလာမခံနိုင်လက်လှမ်းမီရသည်။
စိတ်လှုပ်ရှားဖွယ်ဆဲလ်တစ်ခုတွင်စားခံသည်

thrombus အတွင်းပိုင်းတွင်ပုံမှန်မဟုတ်သောသွေးခဲများတွဲနေသည်
သွေးကြောတစ်ခုရဲ့အတွင်းပိုင်း
thymus (TH -'mus) lymphoid ဂလင်းတည်ရှိသည်
T lym- ကိုဖြစ်ပေါ်စေသောရင်ဘတ်တွင်အလေးအလတ်တန်း
phocytes နှင့် thymosin ဟော်မုန်းကိုထုတ်လုပ်သည်။
T-cell မျိုးရိုးကိုထိန်းသိမ်းပေးသည်

thyroglobulin (thi -'ro -'GLOB-yuh-lun) ကြီးမားသော
သိုင်းရိုက်၏ခြေလှမ်းအားလုံးတွင်ရှုပ်ထွေးသောမော်လီကျူး
ဟော်မုန်းပေါင်းစပ်မှုနှင့်သို့လျှော့မှုဓာရယူသည်

thyroid gland A သည် bilobed endocrine ဂလင်းဖြစ်သည်
လေပြန်ကိုဖြတ်ပြီး thyrox ဟော်မုန်းထုတ်ထုတ်ပေးသည်။
ine နှင့် tri-iodothyronine တို့ကိုအလုံးစုံထုတ်ပေးသည်
basal ဇီဝဖြစ်စဉ်နှင့် calcitonin တို့ပါဝင်ပြီး။
ကယ်လ်စီလမ်းမှုကိုထိန်းညှိပေးသည်

သိုင်းရိုက်ဟော်မုန်း စုပေါင်းဟော်မုန်းများ
သိုင်းရိုက် follicular ဆဲလ်များဟုခေါ်သည်။ သင်၏
roxine နှင့် tri-iodothyronine

သိုင်းရိုက်လုံဆော်ဟော်မုန်း (TSH) သည် ရှေ့ ပိုင်းဖြစ်သည်
pituitary ဟော်မုန်းကောင်းဆိုးစိတ်ကိုလုံဆော်ပေးတယ်။
roid ဟော်မုန်းနှင့်သိုင်းရိုက်ကြီးထွားမှုကိုအားပေးသည်
ဂလင်း; thyrotropin

thyrotropes သည် Anterior pituitary cells များမှထွက်သောအရာဖြစ်သည်
သိုင်းရိုက်လုံဆော်ဟော်မုန်း
thyroxine (thi -'ROCKS-in) အပေါ်များဆုံး
သိုင်းရိုက်ဂလင်းမှထုတ်လွှတ်သောဟော်မုန်း; အရေးကြီးသည်
ယေဘုယျအားဖြင့်ဖြစ်စဉ်နှုန်းကိုထိန်းညှိခြင်း၊ လည်း
tetraiodothyronine သို့မဟုတ် T - ဟုလည်းခေါ်သည်။

tidal volume အ ဝ င်အထွက်သို့မဟုတ်လေ င်လေထွက်ပမာဏ
အသက်ရှူထုတ်နေစဉ်အချက်

ထင်ကျပ်သောလမ်းဆုံ တစ်ခုအကြားမှခွင့်သောလမ်းဆုံတစ်ခု
ထိခိုက်ပုံစံဖြစ်ပေါ်စေသောကပ်လျက် epithelial ဆဲလ်နှစ်ခု
သို့ရုံ luminal အနီးရှိဆဲလ်တွေ့ရသောနှစ်ဖက်အားတွေ့မှု
နယ်စပ်များ; အရာ ဝ ဌာနများအကြားဖြတ်စန့်ခြင်းကိုကာကွယ်ပေးသည်
ဆဲလ်များ

အချိတ်အဆက်များသည်အချိတ်အဆက်များကိုဆက်သွယ် ပေးသော Cell adhesion
မော်လီကျူးများဖြစ်သည်
stereocilia ၏ဆဲလ်ကပ်လျက်တန်းများ
cochlea နှင့် vestibular ကိုယ်တွင်းအင်္ဂါများ

တစ်သျှူးများ (၁) ဆဲလ်များ၏လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်စုစည်းမှု
အာရုံကြောဆဲလ်များကိုသို့တစ်မျိုးတည်းသောအထူးပြုအမျိုးအစားဖြစ်သည်
အာရုံကြောတစ်သျှူး; (၂) ဆယ်လူလာမျိုး
အစိတ်အပိုင်းတစ်ခုနှင့်ဖွဲ့စည်းထားသော extracellular အစိတ်အပိုင်းများ
အချက်တစ်သျှူးကဲ့သို့ ticular organ

တစ်သျှူးသတ်သတ်မှတ်ပုံစပ်ပမာဏများ တစ်စိတ်တစ်ပိုင်းကြီးသည်
ဖြစ်စဉ်ပြားခြားနားသောဆဲလ်များကိုထုတ်လုပ်နိုင်သောဆဲလ်များ
အထူးဆဲလ်အမျိုးအစားများသည်တစ်သျှူးများကိုရေးသွယ်သည်

T Lymphocytes (T cells) များကိုဖြစ်ပေါ်စေသောသွေးဖြူပစ္စည်း
ဆဲလ်ကြားဖြတ်ခံအားတုံ့ပြန်မှုကိုချီကျူးပါ
သူတို့အရင်ကနိတ်ပုံစပ်မှထွက်
စုပေါင်းပြီး လည်းတွေ့မြင် cytotoxic T ကဆဲလ်တွေ့ အထောက်အ T ကဆဲလ်တွေ့ နဲ့
လည်းစည်းကမ်း T ဆဲလ်များ

အသ် သည်ပေးထားသောတစ်ခုတွင်လုပ်ဆောင်နေသောအခြေခံကျသောလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်ဖြစ်သည်
ကြက်သားလေးအတိုင်း၊ စနစ် (သို့) ဖွဲ့စည်းတည်ဆောက်ပုံ
လေးသည် သို့မဟုတ်သွေးကြောအသ်

tonicity အ ဖြေတစ်ခုအပေါ်သက်ရောက်မှုကိုတိုင်းတာသည်
ဖြေရှင်းချက်သည်ဆဲလ်ကိုစန့်ရံသောအဆဲလ်ထုစည်း

tonic smooth ကြက်သားနှင့်ညီသော Smooth ကြက်သား
ac မဖြစ်ကြောင့်အချိန်တိုင်းစာချုပ်ချိတ်ဆဲလ်သည်။
အလားအလာများ

စာမျက်နှာ ၂၂

total peripheral resistance ကမ်းလှမ်းသောခုခံမှု
arterial နှင့်အတွင်းရေကြောအားလုံး
ခုခံအားကိုအကျယ်ပြန်ဆုံးပုံပေးသည်
trachea (TRA -'ke -'uh) လေပြွန်၊ ကုန်စန့်
during airway သည် pharynx နှင့်ကျယ်ပြန့်သည်
အချက်တစ်စီသို့ bronchi နှစ်ခုခွဲသည်

လမ်းကြောင်း အာရုံကြောမျှင်များ (ရှည်လျားသောဆက်သွယ်မှု axons)
အာရုံကြောများ သည်ကျောရိုးအတွင်း၌တည်သောလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်အစည်းအဝေး
ကြီး

transduction လုံဆော်မှုများကိုလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်သို့ပြောင်းလဲခြင်း
အာရုံခံ receptors အလားအလာ
transepithelial သယ်ယူပို့ဆောင်ရေး (tranze-pi-i-THÉ -'le -'al)
ကူးပြောင်းမှုတွင်ပါဝင်သောခြေလှမ်းများအားလုံး

အကြောဆွဲခြင်း - ပြန်လည်အားနည်း ခြင်း တွင်ဖြစ်ပေါ်သောတိုင်တောင်
anionize (AN-ee-ku) (နုလ်) အောက်ပိုင်းအခန်း
ကြက်သားမျှင်တစ်ခုတွင်လုပ်ဆောင်မှုအလားအလာတစ်ခုတည်းကိုတုံ့ပြန်မှုများကိုသွေးလွှတ်ကြောထိပ်သို့ရောက်သောနုလ်

twich summation နှစ်ခုသို့မဟုတ်ထိုထက်ပိုသော ပေါင်းခြင်း
ကြက်သားများအကြောဆွဲခြင်းသည်လျင်မြန်စွာထပ်တလဲလဲဖြစ်ပေါ်စေသည်
လုံဆော်မှုကြောင့် fiber ခွဲထားအားရှိဖြစ်ပေါ်စေသည်
တစ်ခုတည်းသောလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်အလားအလာမှထုတ်လုပ်သည်ထက်ကျက်ကပ်ထွင်ထား; ကလေးစွမ်းရည်အတွက်အရေးကြီးပါတယ်။
အပြောင်းအလဲများသောအရ်ခဲစွမ်းရည်အားကိုပစ်ပစ်ရန် meys
ခန္ဓာကိုယ်ရဲ့လုံဆော်မှုကိုစောင့်နေတယ်

cardiac အမြေပေါ် (Tim-Pan-ik) က eardrum,
သို့မဟုတ်အသံထိခံသောအင်္ဂါတစ်ခုသည်
dile နားနှင့်အသံထိခံသောအင်္ဂါတစ်ခုသည်
လှိုင်းများသည်ပြင်ပနားကူးမြောင်းကိုကူးဆင်းစေသည်
Type I alveolar cells (al-VE -'o -'lor) တစ်ခုတည်းသောအလှူဖြစ်သည်
နံရံ၏ပြားချပ်ချပ် epithelial ဆဲလ်များ
alveoli သည်အချက်အတွင်း၌ရှိသည်

vertical osmotic gradient A တိုးတက်သောတိုးသည့်
interstitial fluid ၏အင်္ဂါစက်ကန့်
renal medulla သည် cortical နယ်စပ်တို့မှအောက်သို့အဆင့်သည်
ဆဲလ်များကိုကပ်ထွင်ထား; ကလေးစွမ်းရည်အတွက်အရေးကြီးပါတယ်။
အပြောင်းအလဲများသောအရ်ခဲစွမ်းရည်အားကိုပစ်ပစ်ရန် meys
ခန္ဓာကိုယ်ရဲ့လုံဆော်မှုကိုစောင့်နေတယ်
vesicle (VES-i-ku) သေးငယ်သော အတွင်းလှုပ်ဆဲလ်အရည်
ဖြည့်ထားသော အမြေပေါ်ဖြင့်ဖုံးထားသောအိတ်
vesicular transport မော်လီကျူးကြီးများ၏ရေလျှားမှု
ဆဲလ် (သို့) အပြင်ဘက်သို့သက်ရောက်မှုပေးသော
သားအိမ်အတွင်း endocytosis သို့မဟုတ် exocytosis ကဲ့သို့



ဗေဒ-အကြား epithelium ကိုဖြတ်ပြီးပစ္စည်းအစိတ်အပိုင်း ကျော့ကပ် tubular lumen သို့မဟုတ် အစိတ်အပိုင်းကြောင်း ယောက်ျားများနှင့်သွေး

**transrual pressure gradient** ဖိအားကျပြားသည်။ အဆုတ်နှစ်ရက် ဖြတ်၍ ထိုသည့် (intra-alveolar ဖိအားသည် ဆွဲဆန်သော intrapleural ဖိအားထက်ပိုကြီးသည်။ အဆုတ်သည် ပိုကြီးသော thoracic cavity ကိုဖြည့်သည် မဆန်သောအဆုတ်ထက်

**သယ်ယူပို့ဆောင်ရေးစနစ်ပေါ်ယူခြင်း** ဖြစ်စဉ်၏ အပိုဆုတ်သယ်ယူပို့ဆောင်ရေး (သယ်ဆောင်သူ) များကိုအစေခံရန် ticular ဓာတ်သည် plasma အမြှေးပါးသို့ ထို့ကြောင့်အမြှေးပါးအတွင်းသို့မိမိပိုင်ဆိုင်စွမ်းကိုတိုးစေသည် သင့်လျော်သောလွှဲဆောင်မှုကိုပြုနိုင်သည့် အရာ

**transport maximum (T<sub>m</sub>)** အမြင့်ဆုံးနှုန်း a အရာဝတ္ထု၏သယ်ယူပို့ဆောင်ရေးမြင့်မြတ်သည့်သယ်ယူပို့ဆောင်ရေး သယ်ဆောင်အားပြည့်သောအခါအမြှေးပါး အမြင့်ဆုံးသို့များသည် ကျောက်ကပ် tubules များတွင် tubular အများသည်

**vesicle သယ်ဆောင်ရန်** Membranous sac enclosing အသစ်ထုတ်လုပ်လိုက်သောပေါင်းစပ်ထားသောရရှိတိုန်းများ ER ကိုချောမွေ့စေပြီးပရိုတင်းများကို Golgi သို့ရွှေ့သည် နောက်ထပ်အပြောင်းအလဲစနစ်ထုတ်ပို့မှုအတွက်ရူပဗေဒပညာစာပေ သူတို့ရဲ့နောက်ဆုံးပန်းတိုင်

**transverse tubule (T tubule)** A perpendicular in- ဖြစ်ပြီး။ ကြွက်သားမြှင်၏မျက်နှာပြင်အမြှေးပါးကိုခေါက်; မျက်နှာပြင်မှလွတ်စေလှုပ်ရှားမှုများကိုလျင်မြန်စွာပျံ့နှံ့စေသည် ကြွက်သားမြှင်၏အပိုအပိုင်း

**triglycerides** (tri- "GLIS-uh-n' dz) Neutral fats com- ဖက်တီးအက်ဆစ်သုံးမျိုးပါဝင်သော glycerol ဖော်လီကျူးတစ်ခုနှင့်ဂေဟိုက်ဒရိုဂျင်တစ်ခုပါရှိသော အော်လီဂျူးများပူးတွဲ

**tri-iodothyronine (T<sub>3</sub>)** (tri- "i- o- "do- "THI- "ro- "nc 'n) သိုင်းရှိုက်မှုထုတ်သောအစွမ်းထက်ဆုံးဟော်မုန်း follicular ဆဲလ်များ; အလွန်အကျွံထိန်းညှိခြင်းတွင်အရေးကြီးသည် အားလုံးစီလမြစ်စဉ်နှုန်း

**trophoblast (TRO- F-uh-blast')** ၏အပြင်ဘက်အလွှာ blastocyst တွင်ဆဲလ်များပေါင်းစပ်ရန်တစ်ခုရှိသည်။ plishing implantation နှင့်သန္ဓေသားလောင်းဖွံ့ဖြိုးရန် အချင်း၏တည်နေရာ

**အပိုင်းဟော်မုန်း (TRO- "nik)** သည်ပုံမှန်ပြန်ဖြစ်စေသောဟော်မုန်းအမျိုးအစားဖြစ်ပြီး၊ သို့သော်လည်းကောင်း၊ အခြားဟော်မုန်းတစ်မျိုးမှထုတ်လွှတ်မှုနောက်ကျသည်

**tropomyosin** (tro- p' -uh-MI -uh-sun) ၏တစ်ခုဖြစ်သည် ကြွက်သား၏ပါလွှာသောအမျှင်တန်းများတွင်စည်းမျဉ်းစည်းကမ်းပရိုတေယျာ အမျှင်များ

**troponin** (tro-PO- "nun) သည်စည်းမျဉ်းစည်းကမ်းဆိုင်ရာထောက်ခံမှုဖြစ်ပြီး၊ သို့သော်လည်းကောင်း၊ အခြားဟော်မုန်းတစ်မျိုးမှထုတ်လွှတ်မှုနောက်ကျသည်

**TSH သည်** သိုင်းရှိုက်လှုံ့ဆော်ဟော်မုန်း ကိုကြည့်ပါ

**T tubule transverse tubule** ကိုကြည့်ပါ

**tubular maximum (T<sub>m</sub>)** ၏အများဆုံးပမာဏ ကျောက်ကပ် tubular ဆဲလ်များသည်ကပ်ကြောလုပ်ဆောင်နိုင်သော အရာဝတ္ထုအချိန်ကာလအတွင်းသယ်ယူပို့ဆောင်ရေး ကျောက်ကပ်ကြည့်ဘက် atrium

**tubular reabsorption** ရွှေ့ချယ်လွှဲပြောင်းခြင်း tubular fluid မှ peritubular cap သို့အရာများ ဆီးဖွဲ့စည်းစဉ်အတွင်းရောဂါများ

**tubular secretion** ခွဲ ခွဲများကိုရွှေ့ချယ်လွှဲပြောင်းခြင်း peritubular capillaries များမှ tubular သို့ရပ်တည်သည် ဆီးဖွဲ့စည်းနေစဉ် lumen

**II ထို alveolar ဆဲလ်တွေ့ရှိရသည်ပါ။** alveolar အတွင်းအပိုပါဆဲလ် stimular ပစ္စည်း (အရ: STB-uh-uh) The အပိုပါ ဆဲလ်၏အချိန်ကာလအတွင်းအပိုပါဆဲလ်များ၏အစိတ်အပိုင်း

**tyrosine kinase A** သည် receptor-enzyme အမျိုးအစားဖြစ်သည် ပေါင်းသင်းဆက်ဆံရေးတွင်အဓိကနေရာပေးသောဆယ်လူလာတို့ပြန်မှုကိုဖြစ်ပေါ်စေသည်။ များအားမျက်လုံးနှင့်အပြုသဘောသို့နှိမ်ပါ။ extracellular chemical messenger နှင့်တွေ့ဆုံခြင်း။ ခွဲခြားသည့်အပိုင်းအစိတ်အပိုင်း tyrosine ကို phosphorylating intracellular ဝရိုတိုန်း nated Translating...

**ultrafiltration သည်** အသားဓာတ်မပါသောအသားတင်လှုပ်ရှားမှုဖြစ်သည်။ သွေးကြောမျှင်လေးများမှပတ်ဝန်းကျင်သို့သွေးကြောများမှ မြေပြင်အရည်

**umami** အသား (သို့) အချိုအရသာ

**ureter** (yu "RE- "tur) ဆီးပို့လွှတ်သောပြန်တစ်ခု ကျောက်ကပ်မှဆီးအိမ်သို့

**urethra** (yu "RE- "thruh) ဆီးသယ်သောပြန်တစ်ခု ခန္ဓာကိုယ်မှဆီးအိမ်မှ

**ဆီးဖွဲ့ထုတ်မှုပစ္စည်းများ** ဖယ်ရှားခြင်း ဆီးဖွဲ့ခန္ဓာကိုယ်မှ; မည်သည့်အရာကိုစိတ်ထုတ်သည်ဖြစ်စေ၊ ခွဲခြားသည့်အစေ့များနှင့်ပုံပုံယူခြင်းမခံရပါ

**vagus အာရုံကြော (VA- "e-us)** ဒဿမမြောက် cranial အာရုံကြော။ အဓိက parasympathetic အာရုံကြောအဖြစ်ဆောင်ရွက်သည်။

**Varicosities** autonomic postganglionic တွင်ရောင်ရမ်းခြင်း တစ်ပြိုင်နက်တည်း neurotransmitter ထုတ်လွှတ်သောအမျှင်များ အတွင်းအင်္ဂါအစိတ်အပိုင်းကြီးတစ်ခုပေါ်တွင်

**သွေးကြောပိတ်ဆို့အား** အခြေအနေတစ်စိတ်တစ်ပိုင်းချုပ်ချယ်မှုအခြေအနေ arteriolar ချောမွေ့ ကြွက်သားသည်အခြေခံတစ်ခုကိုတည်ဆောက်သည်။

**vasoconstriction** (va "zo- "kun-STRIK-shun) The ရလဒ်အနေဖြင့်သွေးကြော lumen များကျဉ်းမြောင်းလာသည် သွေးလွှတ်ကြောမှမြို့ပြတံရထားချောမွေ့ကြွက်သား၏ကျိုး

**vasodilation သွေးကြောများ** ကျယ်လာခြင်း။ အမျိုးသားများသည်သွေးလွှတ်ကြော၏မြို့ပြတံရထားကိုပြေလျော့စေသည်။ ကြွက်သားချောမွေ့

**vasopressin** (va "zo- "PRES-sin) မှထုတ်လွှတ်သောဟော်မုန်းတစ်မျိုးဖြစ်သည်။ သွေးကြောများအားဖြင့်သို့လျှောင့်ပြန်လွှတ်သည် posterior pituitary မှ; permea ကိုတိုးစေသည်။ ကလေး၏အဝေးထိန်းနိုင်စွမ်းနှင့်ဆောင်ရွက်မှုများ ရေသောက်ရန်နှင့် arteriolar vasoconstrictive အားပေးသည်။

**ဝတ်ဆီး antidiuretic ဟော်မုန်း (ADH)** ဟုလည်းခေါ်သည်။

**Vaults** များသည် non-membranous organelles ဝေ- ပုံသဏ္ဍာန်ရှိသည်။ အပိုပါဆဲလ်များ၏အပိုပါဆဲလ်များ၏အပိုပါဆဲလ်များအဖြစ်ယူကြည့်ကြသည်။ messenger RNA နှင့်သို့မဟုတ် ribosomal subunits များ များကလယ်မှပရိုတင်းပေါင်းစပ်မှုနေရာများသို့

**သွေးပြန်ကြော (vein) သွေးကြော** သည်နှလုံးသို့သွေးများသယ်ဆောင်သောသွေးကြောဖြစ်သည်။

**vena cava (venae cavae, အများကိန်း)** (VE- "nah CA- V -ah; အများကိန်း) ဖြစ်ပြီး၊ ဖားသောသွေးပြန်ကြောထဲသို့သွေးများစီးဆင်းသောသွေးကြော atrium

**Venous return** (VE- "nus) သွေးပမာဏပြန် သွေးပြန်ကြောများမှတစ်ဖန်နှလုံးသို့ atrium တစ်ခုစီသို့လှည့်သည်

**လေဝင်လေထွက်** အတွင်းသို့ရွှေ့လျားစေသောစက်၏လုပ်ဆောင်ချက် နှင့်အဆုတ်မှထွက်; အသက်ရှူ

**ventricle** (VEN-tri-kul) **ဦးနှောက်၏** လေးလက်မအနက်တစ်ခု ဦးနှောက်အတွင်းမှ terconnected အခန်းများမှတဆင့် cerebrospinal အရည်စီးဆင်းသည်

**stimular ပစ္စည်း (အရ: STB-uh-uh) The** အပိုပါဆဲလ်၏အချိန်ကာလအတွင်းအပိုပါဆဲလ်များ၏အစိတ်အပိုင်း

မျှင်မြှင့်အာရုံစိတ်စားမှုအတွက်မရှိမဖြစ်လိုအပ်သည်။ ဖြစ်ပေါ်စေသည်။ များအားမျက်လုံးနှင့်အပြုသဘောသို့နှိမ်ပါ။ ကျေးလက်လှုပ်ရှားမှုများ; semicircular canals, utricle, and saccule

**villus** (villi, plural) (VIL-us) Microscopic ဖြစ်သည်။ ဖန်၏အတွင်းမျက်နှာပြင်မှလက်ချောင်းကဲ့သို့ခွံနှုန်းချက်များ အပိုပါ

**virulence** (VIR-you-lentz) ရောဂါထုတ်လုပ်သည် ရောဂါပိုးတစ်မျိုး၏စွမ်းအား

**visceral afferent** အလယ်ပတ်သို့သွားသောလမ်းကြောင်း မသိစိတ်ကတည်းအချက်အလက်တွေကိုသယ်ဆောင်ပေးတဲ့ vous system အတွင်းကလီမာဆင်းသက်သည်

**visceral ချောမွေ့ကြွက်သား** (VIS-uh-nul) ကို တစ်ချက် ကြည့်ပါ။ ချောမွေ့ကြွက်သားယူခွဲ

**viscosity** (vis-KOS-i-te) ပူတိုက်အားသည် အရည်တစ်ခု၏ဖော်လီကျူးများကိုငှင်းတိုတစ်ခုစီအပေါ်သို့လျှော့ချသည် ဖြစ်ပြီး၊ စီးဆင်းနေစဉ်အခြား ဖြိုပြင်နိုင်လေလေ

**မြင့်နိုင်သောအလင်း** သည်လျှပ်စစ်သံလိုက်၏တစ်စိတ်တစ်ပိုင်းဖြစ်သည်။ မျက်လုံး၏ photoreceptors များသည်ရောင်ခြည် တုံ့ပြန်မှု (လှိုင်းအလျား ၄၀၀ နှင့် ၇၀၀ အကြား ၇၀၀ နာနိုမီတာ)

**အရေပါသောစွမ်းရည်** The maximum volume of air that အောက်ဖော်ပြပါအသက်ရှူလမ်းကြောင်းတစ်ခုတည်းတွင်ရွှေ့နိုင်သည့် maximal inspiration တစ်ခု

**ဟာသသင်္ဘော** များတွင်ပါဝင်သောကျောက်ကျောက်သို့အရာများ မှန်ဘီလူးနှင့်မြင်လွှာကြားရှိမျက်လုံး၏ terior cavity

ပလာစမာ၌ **ရိုးအားကန်သတ်ထားသောချိန်နှယ်** များ တုံ့ပြန်သောအဖွင့်သို့မဟုတ်အပိတ်အမြှေးပါး အမြှေးပါးအလားအလာအပြောင်းအလဲများ

**စေတနာ** မြင်ပြုလုပ်ထားသော ကြွက်သားကြွက်သား အာရုံကြောစနစ်နှင့်ဆန္ဒအလျောက်ပေါင်းစပ်လည်း အရိုးကြွက်သား

**ရေထိန်းညှိ** ရေစားသုံးမှုအကြားချိန်ခွင့်လျှာ ရေထွက်နှုန်း ECF ကိုထိန်းချုပ်ရာမှာအရေးကြီးပါပယ် osmolality ဖြစ်သည်

**white matter** ဗဟိုအာရုံကြောတစ်စိတ်တစ်ပိုင်း; myelinated အာရုံကြောအမျှင်များဖြင့်ဖွဲ့စည်းထားသောစနစ်

**Z line** A သည်ပြားချပ်သော cytoskeletal protein ကိုမကြိုက်ပါ။ ၎င်းသည်ကပ်လျက်နှစ်ခု၏သေးသောအမျှင်တန်းများကိုဆက်သွယ်ပေးသည်။

**zonae fasciculata** (zo- "nah fa-SIK-u- "lah-ta) The adrenal cortex ၏အလယ်နှင့်အကြီးဆုံးအလွှာ; မေ- cortisol ၏အရင်းအမြစ်ဖြစ်သည်

**zona glomerulosa** (gle- "MER-yu- "lu- "sah) ထွက်သည်။ adrenal cortex ၏အပေါ်ဆုံးအလွှာ; တစ်ခုတည်းသောအရင်းအမြစ် aldosterone ဖြစ်သည်

**zona reticularis** (ri-TIK-yuh-lair-us) အတွင်းစိတ် adrenal cortex ၏အလွှာအများစု; cortisol ကိုထုတ်လုပ်သည်။ zona fasciculata နှင့်အတူ

စာမျက်နှာ ၂၃

ဤစာမျက်နှာကိုရည်ရွယ်ချက်ရှိရှိကွက်လပ်ထားခဲ့သည်

Translating...

စာမျက်နှာ ၂၄

# အညွှန်း

တီးပိုင်း ၂၅၈၊ ၂၆၂  
 A-delta အမျှင်များ ၁၉၁  
 ဝမ်းဗိုက်နံရံ ၇၇၂  
 ABO သွေးအုပ်စုစနစ် ၃၉၉  
 ကိုယ်ဝန်ဆောင်ဆေး RU 486 ကိုကြည့်ပါ  
 အကြွင်းမဲ့ရန်နှင့်သောကာလ ၉၈-၉၉  
 စုပ်ယူမှု  
 Ca<sup>2+</sup> 632  
 ကစီဇာတ် ၆၂၆၊ ၆၂၈  
 အဆီ ၆၂၈  
 Fe 630  
 ပရိုတိုနီး ၆၂၈  
 အသိမ် ၆၂၃-၆၂၆  
 အထောက်အကူပြုကြွက်သားများ ၄၇၀  
 Acclimatization 498, 563  
 တည်ဆဲ ၂၀၀-၂၀၁  
 Acute myocardial infarction (၃၂၀-၃၂၁)  
 ACE (angiotensin-converting enzyme) ၅၂၇၊ ၅၂၉  
 Acetyl-CoA (acetyl coenzyme A)  
 လက္ခဏာ ၃၃-၃၄  
 citric အက်ဆစ်စံသံသရာ 33  
 လောင်စာစီမံခြင်းနှင့် ၃၃  
 Acetylcholine (အေစီ)  
 လုပ်ဆောင်နိုင်သည့်အလားအလာ၊ ၂၄၉-၂၅၀  
 အနက်ရောင်မှဆိုးမပင်ကုအဆိပ်နှင့် ၂၅၁-၂၅၂  
 botulinum toxin နှင့် ၂၅၂  
 လက္ခဏာ ၁၂၇-၁၂၈  
 curare နှင့် ၂၅၂-၂၅၃  
 အစာခြေအခန်းကဏ္ဍ၊ ၅၉၅  
 အဆိုး-ပန်းကန်အလားအလာလုပ်ရားမှု၊ ၂၄၇၊ ၂၅၀  
 အစာအိမ်လုပ်ငန်းဆောင်တာ၊ ၆၀၉  
 ကြွက်သားကျခြင်း၊ ၂၆၄  
 neurotransmitter လမ်းဆုံ၊ ၂၄၇-၂၅၀  
 organophosphates နှင့် ၂၅၃  
 receptor channel inactivation, ၂၅၃  
 လူတိုင်း ၂၃၂  
 ဖြန့်ဝေသည့်နေရာများ၊ ၂၄၀  
 Acetylcholinesterase (AChE)  
 တားဆီးခြင်း၊ ၂၅၃  
 ကြွက်သားကျခြင်း၊ ၂၆၄  
 အရိုးကြောကြွက်သားဆုံမှတ်လုပ်ရားမှု ၂၅၀-၂၅၁  
 Acetylsalicylic အက်ဆစ်  
 အများ ၆၅၆  
 အစာအိမ်စုပ်ယူမှု၊ ၆၁၁၊ ၆၁၃  
 အက်ဆစ် - အခြေခံမျှခြေ  
 အမိုးနီးယားအခန်းကဏ္ဍ 5၊ ၅၈၀ မှ ၅၈၁  
 ဆွဲကုန် ၅၇၀  
 ကြားစနစ်များ၊ ၅၇၃-၅၇၅  
 ဓာတုဗေဒ၊ ၅၇၀  
 လျော်ကြေးမန်များ၊ ၅၈၅  
 အယူအဆ၊ ၅၇၇ မှ ၅၇၈  
 ရှိနေ ဟုသတ်မှတ်သည်  
 ၈၊ ၅၉၂  
 H အတက်အကျ၊ ၅၆၉-၅၈၄  
 homeostasis ၅၅၆၊ ၅၈၅-၅၈၆  
 ပေါင်းစပ်ထားသောဆဲလ်များ၊ ၅၇၇-၅၇၈  
 K လုပ်ရားမှု၊ ၅၇၀ မှ ၅၇၁  
 pH၊ ၅၆၉ မှ ၅၇၀

အက်စစ်ဓာတ်၊ ၄၅၆  
 အက်စစ် (Acidosis)  
 ၅၇၉ မှ ၅၈၀ အတွင်းကာဗွန်နစ်အက်စစ်အဆင့်  
 လက္ခဏာ၊ ၅၇၀  
 ၅၇၈ မှ ၅၇၉ အတွင်း H စည်းမျဉ်း  
 ဇီဝဖြစ်စဉ်၊ ၅၇၉၊ ၅၈၁၊ ၅၈၃-၅၈၄  
 အသက်ရှူလမ်းကြောင်း၊ ၅၈၁ မှ ၅၈၃  
 အက်စစ်များ  
 arteriolar အပန်းဖြေခြင်း၊ ၃၅၄  
 ကာဗွန်နိုက်ထရိုဓာတ်ခြင်း၊ ၅၇၁  
 လက္ခဏာ၊ ၅၆၉၊ A-၁၀ နှင့် A-၁၁  
 လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၅၆၉ မှ ၅၇၀  
 အစာအိမ်ကိစ္စထုတ်ခြင်း၊ ၆၀၃  
 ခြိမ်း၊ ၅၇၂  
 အော်ဂဲနစ်၊ ၅၇၂  
 အင်အား၊ ၅၇၀  
 အားနည်း၊ ၅၇၀  
 Acinar ဆဲလ်များ၊ ၆၁၄  
 Acini ၆၁၃  
 ကိုယ်ခံအားစနစ်ကို ၄၁၉  
 တုံ့ပြန်မှုများရယူခြင်း၊ ၁၇၆  
 Acromegaly ၆၈၃  
 Acrosome ၇၃၃  
 Acrosome တုံ့ပြန်မှု၊ ၇၈၀  
 ACTH (adrenocorticotropic ဟော်မုန်း)  
 adrenal cortex နှင့် ၇၀၂  
 adrenocortical မလုံလောက်ခြင်းနှင့် ၇၀၅  
 adrenogenital syndrome ရောဂါနှင့် ၇၀၄  
 CRH လင်၊ ၆၇၇  
 လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၆၇၇  
 ကလေးမွေးဖွားခြင်း၊ ၇၉၀  
 စိတ်ဝီရိယတုံ့ပြန်မှုနှင့် ၇၀၇-၇၀၈  
 ပစ်မှတ်အင်္ဂါများ၊ ၆၇၂၊ ၆၇၄  
 အက်တင်  
 အခြေခံစည်းစိမ်များ၊ ၄၈  
 လက္ခဏာ၊ ၄၇၂၊ ၆၀  
 platelets တွင် ၄၀၅  
 ပါးလွှာသောအမျှင်များနှင့် ၂၆၀-၂၆၁  
 လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်အလားအလာ  
 axon hillock နှင့် ၁၀၉-၁၁၀  
 နှလုံးဆဲလ် ၃၁၄  
 ၉၁ မှ ၉၃ အတွင်းအပြောင်းအလဲများ  
 လက္ခဏာ၊ ၉၁  
 conduction, ၉၆  
 contiguous conduction, ၉၆  
 EPP နှင့် ၂၄၉-၂၅၀  
 မိုင်ဘာအမျှင်နှင့် ၁၀၂-၁၀၄  
 ၉၁ ဖြင့်ပစ်ခတ်သည်  
 ကြိမ်နုန်းကန်သတ်ချက်များ၊ ၉၆-၉၉  
 အဆင့် ၉၈ နှင့် အဆင့်သတ်မှတ်ချက်  
 စတင်ခြင်းဆိုက်၊ ၁၀၉-၁၀၀၊ ၁၀၅  
 myelination နှင့် ၁၀၀-၁၀၂  
 neurotransmitter လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၁၀၅-၁၀၇  
 olfactory receptors, ၂၃၀  
 တစ်လမ်းမောင်းဝါဒဖြန့်ခြင်း၊ ၉၆-၉၉  
 နှလုံးခုန်စက်၊ ၂၉၅၊ ၃၀၉-၃၁၀  
 ပြန့်ပွားမှု၊ ၉၄-၉၆  
 အရိုးကြွက်သားများ၊ ၂၆၂-၂၆၈

တံခါးနံ၊ ၉၉  
 အမြင်အာရုံလမ်းကြောင်း၊ ၂၀၆  
 လုပ်ရားနယ်မြေ ၈၉  
 အင်အား ၆၀၊  
 တက်ကြွသော hyperemia ၃၅၄  
 တက်ကြွသောကိုယ်ခံစွမ်းအား၊ ၄၃၆  
 တက်ကြွသောစုပ်စက်၊ ၈၁-၈၂  
 တက်ကြွသောပြန်လည်စုပ်ယူခြင်း၊ ၅၅၅-၅၅၆  
 တက်ကြွသောသယ်ယူပို့ဆောင်ရေး  
 dephosphorylation ၇၀  
 ဖော်ပြချက်၊ ၆၉  
 ion အာရုံစူးစိုက်မှု gradient, ၆၉  
 ဖော်ဒယ်၊ ၇၁  
 မူလတန်း၊ ၆၉-၇၁  
 အလယ်တန်း၊ ၆၉၊ ၇၁-၇၃  
 Acuity ၁၈၉-၁၉၀၊ ၂၀၈  
 အင်စိုက်ကုထုံး၊ ၁၉၄  
 ပြင်းထန်သောတောင်တက်ရောဂါ၊ ၄၉၈-၄၉၉  
 စူးရှသောအဆင့်ပရိုတိုနီး ၄၂၄  
 ရုတ်တရက်ကျောက်ကပ်ပျက်စီးခြင်း၊ ၅၄၈  
 ADAM (အသက်ကြီးအမျိုးသားများတွင်အန်ဒရိုဂျင်ချို့တဲ့ခြင်း)၊ ၇၅၁  
 အလိုက်သင့်ကိုယ်ခံစွမ်းအား၊ Antibody-mediated immu- ကိုကြည့်ပါ။  
 nity; ဆဲလ်-ကြားဖြတ်ခံအား  
 ADC (antibody ကိုမှီခိုသောဆယ်လူလူ  
 cytotoxicity)၊ ၄၃၃  
 ဇွဲလမ်းမှု ၁၁၂၊ ၂၅၂  
 Addison's ရောဂါ၊ ၇၀၄-၇၀၅  
 Adenine, A-19  
 Adenohypophysis ၆၇၀  
 Adenoids, 418, 457  
 Adenosine  
 arousal စင်တာ inhibition ကို, 171  
 နှလုံးထုတ်လွှတ်မှု၊ ၃၅၄  
 GFR ၅၂၁  
 Adenylyl cyclase ၁၂၁  
 Adipocytes, 644, 648  
 Adiponectin, ၇၂၀  
 Adipose တစ်သျှူးများ  
 anticodons နှင့် A-25  
 လက္ခဏာ၊ ၄၃၅၊ အေ -၂၄  
 အဆီညိုလောင်မှု၊ ၄၂  
 လောင်စာဇီဝ ဖြစ်စဉ်အခန်းကဏ္ဍ၊ ၇၁၄  
 လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၂၄  
 ribosomes, 40, A-24  
 မြို့ကောင်ပေါက်အရွယ်၊ ၇၅၁  
 ADP (adenosine diphosphate)  
 ATP ထုတ်လုပ်မှု ၁၃၂  
 တံတားဖြတ်စက်တံစီးခြင်း၊ ၁၆၅  
 စွမ်းအင်ထုတ်လုပ်မှုကဏ္ဍ role ၃၉  
 ကြွက်သားပင်ပန်းခြင်း၊ ၂၇၈-၂၇၉  
 platelet activation ၄၀၇  
 Adrenal cortex ဖြစ်သည်  
 ၇၀၀ တွင် aldosterone secretion  
 ၇၀၁-၇၀၂ မှ cortisol ထုတ်လွှတ်မှု  
 အလုပ်များ၊ ၇၀၃-၇၀၅  
 function ၆၉၈-၇၀၀  
 လိင်ဟော်မုန်းထုတ်လုပ်မှု၊ ၇၀၂-၇၀၃  
 Adrenal ဂလင်းများ

ဖော့စီဆီအိတ်အိတ်အိတ် ၅၀၀  
ကျောက်ကပ်ပိတ်ထား၊ ၅၂၉ မှ ၅၈၀  
အသက်ရှူလမ်းကြောင်းဆိုင်ရာအချက်များ၊ ၅၈၁ မှ ၅၈၄  
အက်စစ်ဓာတ် ၅၇၀

ကြွက်သားချောမွေ့ခြင်း၊ ၂၉၆  
နို့တိုက်ခြင်း၊ ၅၂၉  
လူ့ဆော့အား ၉၉-၁၀၀  
T tubules များနှင့် ၂၉၄

ခန္ဓာဗေဒ၊ ၆၉၈  
catecholamine-secreting medullai ၆၉၈-၇၀၁  
၇၀၆-၇၀၇  
လက်ကား ၆၉၀

Translating...

၄-၁

စာမျက်နှာ ၂၅

Adrenal ဂလင်းများ (ဆက်ရန်)  
steroid-secreting cortex, ၆၉၈-၇၀၅  
အမျိုးအစားများ၊ ၆၉၈  
Adrenal medulla ဖြစ်ပေါ်သည်  
catecholamine secretion၊ ၇၀၅-၇၀၆  
function ၆၉၈-၇၀၀  
ပြုပြင်ခြင်း၊ ၂၉၅၊ ၂၉၆၊ ၇၀၅-၇၀၆  
Adrenaline ။ Epinephrine ကိုကြည့်ပါ  
Adrenergic ဆေးဝါးများ၊ ၄၅၃  
Adrenergic အမျိုးအစား၊ ၂၃၈  
Adrenergic receptors များ၊ ၂၄၃-၂၄၄  
Adrenocortical ဟော်မုန်း၊ ၆၉၉-၇၀၀  
Adrenocortical မလုံလောက်ခြင်း၊ ၇၀၄-၇၀၅  
Adrenogenital syndrome ရောဂါ၊ ၇၀၄  
အရိုးဓာတ်ခွင်အိတ်၊ ၃၇၃-၃၇၄  
အရိုးဓာတ်လျော့ကျခြင်း၊ ၂၅၈  
Afferent arterioles, 513, 521, 523  
အကျိုးစီးပွား၊ ၅၂၉-၅၃၀  
အကျိုးပြုအမျိုးအစားများ  
လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၃၅၅  
နာကျင်မှု၊ ၃၅၁-၃၅၂  
ကျောရိုး၊ ၃၅၅-၃၅၆  
Afferent အာရုံခံ  
လက္ခဏာ၊ ၃၅၅  
မှတ်တမ်း၊ ၃၅၅  
ကြွက်သားလှုပ်ရှားမှုအခန်း၊ ၂၈၄-၂၈၅  
အခန်း၊ ၂၅၀  
နာကျင်မှု၊ ၃၅၁  
PNS ထည့်သွင်းမှု၊ ၃၅၅  
တုံ့ပြန်မှုများ၊ ၃၅၇  
အမျိုးအစားများ၊ ၂၅၈  
အတွင်းပိုင်း၊ ၃၅၇-၃၅၈  
အာရုံခံစားနိုင်သောအဆင့်များ၊ ၂၅၅  
hyperpolarization ပြီးနောက် ဥာ  
တင်ပြီးနောက် ၃၅၀-၃၅၁  
စုစည်းမှု၊ ၃၅၁  
Agonists များ  
ANS၊ ၂၄၄-၂၄၅  
လက္ခဏာ၊ ၂၄၄  
အင်ဆူလင် ၂၅၅  
Agranulocytosis ၄၀၄-၄၀၅  
လေဆီးအိတ်၊ ၄၅၃၊ ၄၅၃-၄၅၅  
အယားဗေး  
ခန္ဓာဗေဒ၊ ၄၆၃  
လက္ခဏာ၊ ၄၆၃  
ပြုပြင်ခြင်း၊ ၄၅၅  
လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၄၆၂  
စက်ပြင်၊ ၄၆၅-၄၅၅  
ခွဲ၊ ၄၅၃-၄၅၄၊ ၄၅၅  
ကြွက်သား၊ ၄၅၃-၄၅၅  
Albumin ၃၅၂  
Albuminuria ၅၅၃  
အရက်၊ ၁၆၁-၁၆၂၊ ၆၁၃  
Aldosterone  
သွေးဖိအား homeostasis၊ ၇၀၀  
hypersecretion၊ ၇၀၃  
ကျပ် ၅၃၄ ဖြစ်ထိန်းချုပ်သည်  
ပြန်လည်စုပ်ယူခြင်း၊ ၅၅၆-၅၅၉  
receptor blockers, ၅၅၉  
renin-angiotensin-aldosterone စနစ်၊ ၅၅၇  
၅၅၈  
Alendronate ၇၀၀  
အယ်လ်ကာလ်  
ပန်ကရိယစ်ထုတ်မှု၊ ၆၁၄  
ဖြေရှင်းချက်၊ ၅၅၀  
Alkalosis ဖြစ်ပေါ်သည်  
သွေးလွတ်ကြောဓာတ်ငွေ့၊ ၄၉၈  
သွေး၏ pH အဆင့်နှင့် ၅၅၀  
၅၅၉ မှ ၅၈၀ အတွင်းကာဗွန်နစ်အက်စစ်အဆင့်  
၅၅၈ မှ ၅၅၉ အတွင်း H စည်းမျဉ်း  
စီမံခြင်းပုံစံ၊ ၅၅၀၊ ၅၅၄  
အသက်ရှူလမ်းကြောင်း၊ ၅၅၀၊ ၅၅၃  
ဓာတ်မတည့်မှု၊ ၄၅၀  
ဓာတ်မတည့်ခြင်း  
မိခင်တို့ကိုကျွေးခြင်းနှင့် ၄၅၀-၄၅၂  
၄၅၀ ဟုသတ်မှတ်သည်  
hypersensitivity နှင့် ၄၅၀-၄၅၂

အယ်လ်ဂလိုဘင် ၇၁၄  
Alpha globulins ၃၅၂-၃၅၂  
Alpha ဓာတ်အာရုံခံ၊ ၂၅၅၊ ၂၅၇-၂၅၈  
Alpha လက်ခံသွေး၊ ၂၄၃-၂၄၄  
Alpha-glycosidase inhibitors, ၇၂၁  
Alpha-melanocyte-stimulating hormone, ၆၄၄  
Alpha - antitrypsin, ၄၄၄  
ALS (amyotrophic ဘေးတိုက်နစ်ကြော)၊ ၄၅၂၊ ၄၅၆  
အစားထိုးပြည့်စွက်လမ်းကြောင်း၊ ၄၅၇  
Alveolar ဆဲလ်၊ ၄၆၄  
Alveolar macrophages၊ ၄၅၇  
Alveolar မျက်နှာပြင်တင်းမာမှု၊ ၄၅၆  
Alveoli (အဆုတ်)  
လက္ခဏာ၊ ၄၆၅  
၄၅၆-၄၅၇ ပြုပြင်  
ဓာတ်ငွေ့လဲလှယ်မှု၊ ၄၅၆ မှ ၄၅၈  
အပြန်အလှန်အိတ်၊ ၄၅၇-၄၅၈  
တည်နေရာ၊ ၄၆၄  
O - Hb မျဉ်းကွေး၊ ၄၅၉  
လေ ဝ င်လေထွက်၊ ၄၅၂-၄၅၃၊ ၅၀၄-၅၀၅  
Alveoli (mammary glands)၊ ၇၉၃  
အယ်လ်ဇိုင်းမားရောဂါ (အေဒီ)  
အကြောင်းရင်း၊ ၁၆၅  
ဖြစ်ပွားမှု၊ ၁၆၅  
ရောဂါရပ်ခြင်း၊ ၄၅၅  
လက္ခဏာများ၊ ၁၆၅  
ကုသမှု၊ ၁၆၅  
နောက်ခံရောဂါပေး၊ ၁၆၄-၁၆၅  
Alzheimer, Alois, ၁၆၄  
Amacrine ဆဲလ်များ၊ ၂၁၀  
AMI (အားကစားရာသီစက်ဝန်းပုံမမှန်ခြင်း)၊ ၇၇၇  
Amines, ၁၁၈  
အမိုင်နိုအက်ဆစ်  
လက္ခဏာ၊ ၅၅၀  
A-14 ဟုသတ်မှတ်ထားသည်  
ပျံ့နှံ့နေသော်လည်း ၇၁၂  
အင်ဆူလင်အကျိုးသက်ရောက်မှု၊ ၃၅၅  
ပရိုတင်းပေါင်းစပ်မှု၊ ၃၅၈  
ပြန်လည်စုပ်ယူခြင်း၊ ၅၃၀  
triplet ကုဒ်၊ A-24 - A-25  
Aminopeptidases ၆၂၃  
အမိုင်နိုယား (NH )၊ ၅၅၀-၅၅၁  
သတ်မှတ်ခြင်း၊ ၃၅၉  
Ammonia ၇၅၆  
ရေမြှောပေါက်၊ ၇၅၆  
Amniotic အရည်၊ ၇၅၆  
ရေမြှောအိတ်၊ ၇၅၃၊ ၇၅၆  
အစားထိုးအပြုအမူ၊ ၄၅၃  
Amoeboid လှုပ်ရှားမှု၊ ၄၈  
AMPA လက်ခံသွေး၊ ၁၆၁၊ ၁၆၂  
အသံချစ်စက်၊ ၂၃၃-၂၃၄  
Ampullae ၂၅၄၊ ၇၅၀  
Amygdala ၃၅၆  
Amylase ၅၅၇၊ ၆၁၄  
ဟိုအိတ်အိတ်စိတ်၊ ၂၅၂  
Anabolism, 710, 712  
Anaerobic စွမ်းအင်၊ ၃၅၃-၃၅၄  
Anaerobic လေထုတ်ခြင်း၊ ၃၅၄  
analgesic စနစ်၊ ၃၅၂-၃၅၄  
Anaphase, A-29 - A-30  
ဓာတ်မတည့်ခြင်း၊ ၄၅၁  
ခန္ဓာဗေဒသေဆုံးအာကာသ၊ ၄၅၂  
ခန္ဓာဗေဒ  
adrenal ဂလင်း ၆၉၈  
လေကြောင်း၊ ၄၆၃  
ဒီး နောက်၊ ၁၆၅  
ဒီး နောက်ပိုင်း၊ ၁၆၅  
သွေးကြောမျှင်များ၊ ၃၆၁  
ဆဲလ်အစွက်ကွဲ၊ ၅၅၂  
clitoris, ၇၆၀  
Cochlea ၃၅၉  
dendrites၊ ၅၅၂  
အစားပြုလမ်းကြောင်း၊ ၅၅၂  
နား၊ ၂၅၅  
endocrine စနစ်၊ ၆၆၂  
မျက်စိ, 195-196  
အမျိုးသမီးမျိုးပွားစနစ် ၇၄၄

နည်း၊ ၃၀၃-၃၀၉  
အသွေး၊ ၆၁၇  
အမုကြီး ၆၃၅  
အလယ်နား၊ ၂၁၉  
နို့တိုက်မှု၊ ၅၁၄  
အာရုံခံ၊ ၅၅၅  
လိင်တံ ၇၆၀  
ဇီဝကမ္မဗေဒနှင့် ၁-၂  
pituitary ဂလင်း, 670  
အသက်ရှူလမ်းကြောင်းကြွက်သား၊ ၄၆၉  
အရေပြား၊ ၄၅၅  
အစားအိတ်၊ ၆၀၁  
ဝေဖန် ၇၅၀  
သွေးကြွက်လမ်းကြောင်း၊ ၅၁၄-၅၁၅  
tubular အစိတ်အပိုင်း၊ ၅၁၄-၅၁၅  
အဆီရှင် ၃၀၇  
အနံ့ရှိရုံတွင်ပြန်မှုဖြစ်စဉ်၊ ၇၀၀  
အနံ့ရှိရုံ - binding ပရိုတိန်း၊ ၅၅၄-၅၅၅  
အနံ့ရှိရုံ တီကျုံးဟော်မုန်းထွက်လှည့်ကြည့်ပါ  
adrenal cortex secretion၊ ၇၀၂-၇၀၃  
ချိုတ်မှု၊ ၇၅၁  
ပြင်းခံသွေး ၇၆၃  
လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၆၇၈  
တိုးတက်မှုနှင့် ၆၈၃  
ယောက်ျားပီသသောအခန်းကဏ္ဍ၊ ၇၄၇  
သွေးဆုံးရှုံးမှု၊ ၇၅၆  
Android အဝလွန်ခြင်း၊ ၆၄၉  
သွေးအားနည်းရောဂါ  
အမျိုးအစားများ၊ ၃၉၃-၃၉၈  
အကြောင်းရင်း၊ ၅၄၉  
လက္ခဏာ၊ ၃၉၃  
ရောဂါနှင့်ဆက်စပ်သော ၃၉၈  
အနာရယ်ရှိသော၊ ၆၀၈  
Anemic hypoxia၊ ၄၉၇  
အနံ့ရှယ်လ် (nongenomic estrogen ကဲ့သို့တက်ကြွလှုပ်ရှားသူများ  
အချက်ပြ) ၇၁၁  
Angina pectoris ၃၅၅  
Angiogenesis ၃၅၆  
Angiotensin ။ ကိုလ်သွေးကြည့်ပါ RAAS (renin-angiotensin-  
aldosterone သည့်စနစ်)  
စတင်ခြင်း၊ ၃၉၃  
ဓာတ်ပုံစနစ်၊ ၃၅၂  
ဆားလက်ကျန်နှင့် ၃၉၃  
၅၅၇ မှ ၅၅၈ အတွင်းထုတ်လွှတ်မှု  
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၄-၂ အညွှန်း

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 အကြောင်းအရာများ၊ ၁၄၄  
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 အင်္ဂါရပ်များ၊ ၂၄၇  
 နှလုံးအား၊ ၃၂၆  
 homeostasis, ၂၅၄  
 လှုပ်ရှားမှု၊ ၂၃၈  
 ထိခိုက်သောကိုယ်တွင်းအင်္ဂါများ၊ ၂၄၄  
 လက်ခံသူ၊ ၂၄၃-၂၄၅  
 တံတွေးဖွဲ့စည်းခြင်း၊ ၅၉၈  
 လျှို့ဝှက်ထုတ်လွှတ်မှု၊ ၂၃၈  
 ဌာနများ၊ ၂၃၈  
 two-neuron chain လမ်းကြောင်း၊ ၂၃၇-၂၃၈  
 ကိုယ်ပိုင်အုပ်ချုပ်ခွင့်ရကြွက်သား၊ ၅၉၃-၅၉၄  
 Autophagy ၃၁  
 Autoregulation ၃၅၇၊ ၅၂၀-၅၂၁  
 အော်တိုစည်းတစ်သျှူးများ၊ ၃၁၁  
 Autorhythmicity၊ ၃၀၉၊ ၃၁၁  
 Autosomal ခရိုမိုဆုန်း ၇၄၅  
 AV node, 313, 325  
 Avogadro စံနိုက် A-9  
 Axons ။ သေးငယ်သောအဖျင်များကိုလည်းကြည့်ပါ။  
 အလိုအလျောက်အာရုံကြောစနစ်၊ ၂၃၉  
 ဗဟို၊ ၁၃၅  
 လက္ခဏာ၊ ၉၅  
 တောင်ကုန်းမြင့်ပေါ်၌၊ 94-96, 109-110  
 အရည်၊ ၉၅-၉၆  
 Parasympathetic၊ ၂၃၈-၂၄၀  
 အနုပစ္စည်း၊ ၁၃၅  
 ပြန်လည်တည်ဆောက်ခြင်း၊ ၁၀၃  
 ပြောင်းပြန်သယ်ယူပို့ဆောင်ရေး၊ ၄၃  
 အင်္ဂါကြွက်သား၊ ၂၅၈-၂၆၀  
 terminal များ၊ ၉၄-၉၆

B ဆဲလ်များ  
 အလိုက်သင့်အားစနစ်နှင့် ၄၂၀  
 အင်တီဘော်ဒီ ၄၃၀-၄၃၁  
 antigens ၄၂၉-၄၃၀  
 clones ၄၄၄  
 နှောင်နှေး hypersensitivity, ၄၅၃  
 နိုင်ငံခြားသားကိုယ်စားလှယ်အသိအမှတ်ပြုခြင်း၊ ၄၂၈

စာမျက်နှာ ၂၇

B ဆဲလ်များ (ဆက်ရန်)  
 function, 404, 418  
 မှတ်တမ်း၊ ၄၃၃-၄၃၆  
 မူလအစ ၄၂၈-၄၂၉  
 429-436, 440 မှ plasma cells များ  
 ပြန့်ပွားမှု၊ ၄၂၄  
 repertoire, ၄၃၇  
 ဆူ, 720  
 T ကဆဲလ် vs., 450  
 T-dependent antigen တုံပြန်မှု၊ ၄၄၅  
 အသုံးပြုပါ၊ ၄၃၀  
 B-cell ကြီးထွားမှုအချက် ၄၄၀  
 နောက်ပြန်ကျခြင်း၊ ၃၂၁  
 ဘက်တီးရီးယား၊ တိကျတဲ့ဘက်တီးရီးယားတွေကိုလည်းကြည့်ပါ။  
 အကျိုးရှိသော၊ ၆၃၆  
 လက္ခဏာ၊ ၄၁၇-၄၁၈  
 အဖျက်၊ ၆၄၈-၆၄၉  
 dendritic ဆဲလ်တုံပြန်မှု၊ 442  
 ပြင်ပကာကွယ်ရေး၊ ၃၅၄  
 leukocytes ပျက်စီးခြင်း၊ ၄၂၃  
 opsonins မျက်ဆိုင်ခြင်း၊ ၄၂၃  
 ရောဂါဖြစ်ပွားစေသော၊ ၄၁၇-၄၁၈  
 အရေပြားကြွခြင်း၊ ၄၂၁  
 အသိ၊ ၆၂၂-၆၂၃  
 လက်ကုန်သောတရား၊ ၅၅၇  
 လက်ကုန်၊ ဆင်းရဲ၊ ၁၆၆-၁၆၇  
 မှတ်တမ်းပြုခြင်းများ၊ A-7 - A-8  
 Barometric ဖိအား။ လေထုဖိအား ကိုကြည့်ပါ။  
 Baroreceptor တုံပြန်မှု၊ ၃၇၈-၃၇၉၊ ၅၂၁-၅၂၂  
 Baroreceptors များ  
 လိုက်လျောညီထွေမှု၊ ၃၈၂  
 လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၃၈၇  
 တည်နေရာ၊ ၃၇၈  
 အတားအဆီးသန့်စင်စနစ်များ၊ ၇၈၄  
 Basal ဓာတ်ကိုယ်၊ ၄၆  
 Basal တုံပြန်သည်  
 လက္ခဏာ၊ ၁၅၃  
 လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၁၅၃-၁၅၄  
 ကြားနာခြင်း၊ ၂၂၂-၂၂၃  
 ဓာတ်လှုပ်ရှားမှုနှင့်၊ ၁၆၇  
 Basal ယန္တရား၊ ၃၅  
 မြေအောက်ခန်းအမြေပေါ်၊ ၅၁၇  
 အခြေခံများ၊ ၅၆၅၊ A-၁၀ နှင့် A-၁၁  
 အခြေခံဆဲလ် ၂၃

လှုံ့ဆော်မှု၊ ၆၂၀  
 သိုလှောင်ခန်း၊ ၆၂၀  
 ရှုပ်ထွေးမှုများ၊ ၅၆၅၊ ၆၂၀  
 သည်းခြေစား  
 လက္ခဏာ၊ ၆၁၅  
 ဓာတ်ယန္တရား၊ ၆၂၀  
 ကိုလက်စထရော၊ ၆၁၇  
 စောင့်ရှောက် ၆၁၇  
 သန့်စင်ဆေးရည်၊ ၆၁၈  
 အဆီစုပ်ယူမှု၊ ၆၂၈  
 အဆီချိုမှု၊ ၆၁၈-၆၁၉  
 လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၆၁၉-၆၂၀  
 micellar ဖွဲ့စည်းခြင်း၊ ၆၁၈-၆၁၉  
 အော်ဂဲနစ်၊ ၆၁၇  
 ဖွဲ့စည်းမှု၊ ၆၁၉  
 ဘီလီဂျာင် ၆၁၉-၆၂၀  
 ဇီဝဓာတ်  
 ဇီဝဓာတ်ကျိုးများ၊ A-10, A-17  
 ဇီဝဓာတ်၊ ၁၀၃  
 ဇီဝဓာတ်ကျိုးများ၊ ဇီဝဓာတ်ကျိုးကို ကြည့်ပါ။  
 စိတ်ကြွဆဲလ်များ၊ 201, 205  
 ပဋိသန္ဓေတားဆေး။ Oral contraceptives ကိုကြည့်ပါ။  
 မွေးဖွားခြင်း၊ ၇၆၃၊ ၇၈၉-၇၉၂  
 2,3-bisphosphoglycerate (BPG), ၄၄၄  
 ခါးသောအရသာ၊ ၂၃၀  
 အနက်ရောင်မှဆင်းပင်ကအဆိပ်၊ ၂၅၁-၂၅၂  
 ဆီးအိမ်၊ ဆီးအိမ်၊ ကြည့်ပါ။  
 Blastocyst ၇၈၀-၇၈၂  
 Blepharospasm၊ ၂၅၃  
 မျက်မမြင်နေရာ၊ ၂၀၁၊ ၂၀၃  
 မျက်စိကွယ်ခြင်း၊ ၂၀၉  
 polyspermy, 780 ကိုပုံစံ၊  
 အင်တီဘော်ဒီမှညစ်ထိခြင်း၊ ၄၄၄  
 သွေး၊ ကိုလည်းကြည့်ပါ။ ဟေမာဂလိုဘင်၊ uctanစာ၊ Platelets များ  
 ခန္ဓာကိုယ်အလေးချိန်နှင့် ၃၃၀  
 C-reactive protein အဆင့်၊ ၃၃၃  
 ဆဲလ်ထုတ်လုပ်မှု၊ ၄၀၄  
 ကိုလက်စထရောဆိုင် ၃၃၆-၃၃၇  
 CO : သယ်ယူပို့ဆောင်ရေး၊ ၄၉၅-၄၉၆  
 coagulation၊ ၄၀၇-၄၁၀  
 အစိတ်အပိုင်းများ၊ 390  
 အဆက်မပြတ်ရွေးလျားမှု၊ ၃၉၁  
 doping၊ ၃၉၆  
 erythrocytes၊ ၃၉၃-၄၀၀

နှုန်း၊ ၃၄၄၊ ၃၆၂  
 ကျောက်ကပ်ရောဂါနှင့် ၅၂၄  
 ခံနိုင်ရည်၊ ၃၄၄-၃၄၅၊ ၃၄၇၊ ၃၅၁  
 ဖြစ်ခြင်း၊ ၃၄၄  
 တစ်သျှူး၊ ၃၅၇  
 သယ်ယူပို့ဆောင်ရေးကြားခံ၊ ၃၉၁-၃၉၂  
 ရှင်းရှင်းပြောရလျှင်၊ ၃၂၄  
 သွေးပေါင်ချိန်၊ Hypertension ကိုလည်းကြည့်ပါ။  
 မှုမမှမှုများ၊ ၃၈၁-၃၈၃  
 atrial volume receptors များနှင့် ၃၇၉  
 baroreceptors ၃၇၈-၃၇၉  
 သွေးကြောမျှင်များ၊ ၃၆၆၊ ၅၁၈-၅၁၉  
 နှလုံးအလုပ်နှင့် ၃၃၀  
 chemoreceptors receptors များနှင့် ၃၇၉-၃၈၀  
 လိုက်နာမှု၊ ၃၄၉  
 သတ်မှတ်၊ ၃၄၉  
 အဆုံးအဖြတ်၊ ၃၇၆-၃၇၇  
 diastolic ၃၅၀  
 တင်ကျပ်မှု၊ ၃၄၉  
 ECF အသံအတိုးအကျယ်၊ ၅၆၀-၅၆၁  
 ဖော့၊ ၃၇၀  
 ၃၈၀ စိတ်ပိုင်းဆိုင်ရာထိန်းချုပ်မှု  
 လေ့ကျင့်ခန်းအခြေခံထိန်းချုပ်မှု ၃၈၀  
 နှလုံးအလုပ်နှင့် ၃၃၀-၃၃၁  
 hypothalamic ထိန်းချုပ်မှု၊ ၃၈၀  
 ရေရှည်ထိန်းချုပ်မှု၊ ၃၇၈  
 ပျားအသွေးလွှတ်ကြော၊ ၄၄၂၊ ၄၅၈၊ ၃၇၆-၃၇၈  
 တိုင်းတာမှု၊ ၃၄၅၊ ၃၅၁  
 RAAS နှင့် ၂၅၉  
 စည်းမျဉ်း၊ ၃၇၆-၃၇၈၊ ၅၃၀  
 ကျောက်ကပ် GFR နှင့် ၅၂၂-၅၂၃  
 ရေထိန်းချုပ်မှု၊ ၃၇၈-၃၇၉  
 SNS စည်းမျဉ်း၊ ၃၅၈  
 စိတ်ဖိစီးမှုတုံပြန်မှုနှင့် ၇၈၀-၇၈၉  
 နှလုံး၊ ၃၅၀  
 သွေးလောင်ကန်၊ ၃၇၁  
 သွေးကြောများ။ Arteries ကိုလည်းကြည့်ပါ။ ။ သွေးလွှတ်ကြော၊ Capil-  
 laries; သွေးပြန်ကြောများ  
 အင်္ဂါရပ်တွေ၊ 348  
 လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၃၀၃  
 အတွင်းပိုင်း၊ ၂၄၁  
 ပြုပြင်ခြင်း၊ ၄၁၀  
 နံရံ ၅၅၉  
 သွေးမာဏ



အားကိုးပြုလုပ်မှုကြောင့် ငွေ့ ၄၉၉-၅၀၀  
Braxton-Hicks ကျုံ့ခြင်း၊ ၇၈၉  
ရင်သားကင်ဆာ ၇၆၃

ပြုလုပ်မှု ပေးအားပေးခြင်း ၇၃၆  
PTH နှင့် ၇၂၈-၇၃၄  
ဗီတာမင်ဒီနှင့် ၇၃၄-၇၃၆

ဟောမီဂလိုဘင်ကြောင့် ငွေ့ ၄၉၅  
homeostasis နှင့် ၁၁  
labile ဂျီ

Translating...

အညွှန်း

၄-၅

### စာမျက်နှာ ၂၉

ကာဗွန်ဒိုင်အောက်ဆိုက် (CO<sub>2</sub>) (ဆက်ရန်)  
တစ်စိတ်တစ်ပိုင်းအား ၄၈၈  
passive ပျံ့နှံ့ခြင်း၊ ၆၂-၆၃  
placental, ၇၈၆  
ထုတ်လုပ်မှု၊ ၄၈၇  
အဆုတ်ထွက်ပေါက်၊ ၄၈၆ မှ ၄၈၈  
အသက်ရှူခြင်းနှင့် ၁၄၆  
ကြွက်ဆွေးခြင်း၊ ၄၈၇  
ကာဗွန်ဒိုင်အောက်ဆိုက် ခွဲစိတ်  
ကာဗွန်ဒိုင်အောက်ဆိုက် (H<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>)  
ကြားခံနေစနစ်၊ ၅၇၄  
လက္ခဏာ၊ ၄၉၆  
metabolic acidosis နှင့် ၅၈၃-၅၈၄  
metabolic alkalosis နှင့် ၅၈၄  
ကျောက်ကပ်သီးနှံခြင်း၊ ၅၇၈-၅၈၀  
အသက်ရှူလမ်းကြောင်းအကဲခတ်စနစ်၊ ၅၈၀-၅၈၃  
Carbonic anhydrase၊ ၄၉၄၊ ၆၀၇  
Carboxypeptidase၊ ၆၀၄  
ကင်ဆာဖြစ်စေသောအချက်များ၊ ၄၄၇  
နည်းဆဲလ်များ  
အလုံအလျောက်စည်းချက်၊ ၃၀၉-၃၁၀  
ကျုံ့ခြင်း၊ ၁၄၄-၁၄၅  
နည်းဆဲလ်များ  
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၃-၆ အညွှန်း

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တွင်းမြောင်း၊ ၇၄၇  
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### စာမျက်နှာ ၃၀

ဓာတုဓာတ်မန်များ  
endocrine၊ ၁၂၉  
လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၁၁၃  
အာရုံကြောစနစ်များ၊ ၁၂၉  
အမျိုးအစားများ၊ ၁၁၄-၁၁၅  
ဓာတုပြုပြန်မှု  
မျှတသောညီမျှခြင်းများ၊ A-7 - A-8  
ဓာတ်ပစ္စည်းများ၊ A-8  
A-7 ယူသတ်မှတ်သည်  
ပြောင်း၊ ၆၃၄-၆၃၅  
ပြောင်းပြန်၊ A-8  
ဓာတုအာရုံများ၊ အနံ့ ကိုကြည့်ပါ ; အရသာ  
ဓာတုပိုင်းသတ်ခြင်း၊ ၇၈၅  
ဓာတုဖိစီးမှု၊ ၇၀၇  
ဓာတု synapses များ၊ ၁၀၄-၁၀၅

SCN၊ ၆၈၅  
ထပ်တူပြုခြင်း၊ ၆၈၅  
မြို့ပတ်ကြွက်သား၊ ၁၉၅  
ပျံ့နှံ့သော eosinophils၊ ၄၀၄  
လည်ပတ်နေသော neutrophils၊ ၄၅၂-၄၅၃  
သွေးလည်ပတ်မှု hypoxia၊ ၄၉၇  
သွေးလည်ပတ်မှုအဖွဲ့  
သွေးလွှတ်ကြောများ၊ ၃၅၀-၃၅၂  
လက္ခဏာ၊ ၃၄၄-၃၄၅  
အစိုးအဖြစ်၊ ၃၄၅  
Poiseuille ဓါတ်ပေး၊ ၃၄၇  
သွေးလည်ပတ်မှုလိုင်း  
အမျိုးအစား၊ ၃၈၄  
အကြောင်းအရင်း၊ ၃၈၄  
လေ့ပြုကြောင့် ၃၈၅

ထိတွေ့ပြန်မှု၊ ၆၅၅-၆၅၆  
ဆက်စပ်ရောဂါများ၊ ၆၅၈  
Colipase၊ ၆၁၈  
ကိုလာဂျင် ၅၈  
အပေါင်းပစ္စည်းလည်ပတ်မှု၊ ၃၃၅  
အပေါင်းပစ္စည်း၊ ganglia၊ ၂၃၈  
အပေါင်းပစ္စည်းလေဝင်လေထွက်၊ ၄၆၄  
ပြန်စုဆောင်းခြင်း၊ ၅၁၅  
tubules စုဆောင်းခြင်း၊ ၅၇၇  
Colloids များ  
လက္ခဏာ၊ ၆၉၁  
function, A-10  
thyroglobulin-laden၊ ၆၂၅-၆၃၄  
အဖွဲ့ကြီး  
အကျိုးပြုဘက်တီးရီးယား၊ ၆၃၆



Corpus luteum

ထိန်းချုပ်မှု ၇၃၃-၇၃၄
ယိုယွင်းမှု ၇၆၈၊ ၇၇၀
ဖွဲ့စည်းခြင်း ၇၆၈၊ ၇၆၉-၇၇၀
သက်တမ်း ၇၃၃-၇၃၄
ကိုယ်ဝန် ၇၇၀
Cortical granules၊ ၇၈၀
Cortical လေပြင်တိုက်ခတ်သောစေ့ယာ၊ ၂၂၉
Cortical nephron၊ ၅၁၅
Corticospinal မော်တာစနစ်၊ ၂၈၃
Corticosteroid-binding globulin၊ ၇၀၀
Corticotropin၊ ၆၂၂
Corticotropin ထုတ်လွှတ်သောဟော်မုန်း၊ ၆၄၆
Cortisol
ရောင်ရမ်းမှုကိုဆန့်ကျင်သောအကျိုးသက်ရောက်မှုများ၊ ၇၀၁
လက္ခဏာ၊ ၇၀၀
တိုက်ရိုက်စိစစ်ခြင်းဆိုင်ရာသက်ရောက်မှုများ၊ ၇၂၅-၇၂၆
diurnal ရစ်သမ်အကျိုးသက်ရောက်မှုများ၊ ၇၀၂
hyperscretion၊ ၇၀၃-၇၀၄
ခွဲခွဲအားကျဆင်းစေသောအကျိုးသက်ရောက်မှုများ၊ ၇၀၁
စိစစ်ခြင်းသက်ရောက်မှု ၇၀၀
ခွဲပြုခြင်း ၇၀၀
၇၀၀-၇၂၂
စိတ်ဓါတ်မှတ်တမ်းနှင့် ၇၀၀-၇၀၁၊ ၇၀၁-၇၀၈
သယ်ယူပို့ဆောင်ရေး၊ Symptom ကိုကြည့်ပါ
ကုတင်အလှူရောင်၊ ၆၄၈
Coumadin၊ ၄၁၁
အကြိမ်အရေအတွက်၊ ၅၄၁
ကောင်တာသယ်ယူပို့ဆောင်ရေး၊ Antiprot ကိုကြည့်ပါ
Covalent ငွေချေးစာချုပ်များ၊ A-5 - A-6
CPR (နှလုံးသွေးကြောကျဉ်းပြန်လည်ကယ်ဆယ်မှု)၊ ၃၀၄

Cytokines

Cytokines
သတ်မှတ်၊ ၄၂၄
helper T cells ၄၄၀
ရောင်ရမ်းတုံ့ပြန်မှု၊ ၄၂၁
Cytokinesis၊ 48၊ A-30
Cytoplasm
လက္ခဏာ၊ ၂၀
အစိတ်အပိုင်းများ၊ ၂၄၊ ၄၄
သတ်မှတ်၊ ၂၄
Cytosine၊ A-19
Cytoskeleton
လက္ခဏာ၊ ၄၂
သတ်မှတ်၊ ၂၄
ခြံစင်၊ ၄၂
လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၄၉
Cytosol
သတ်မှတ်၊ ၂၄
လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၄၂
glycolysis၊ ၃၃
ribosomes ၄၀၊
Cytotoxic T ဆဲလ်များ
စည်းမျဉ်းသတ်မှတ်ချက်များ၊ ၄၄၄
လက္ခဏာ၊ ၄၃၇
ကာကွယ်ရေးယန္တရား၊ ၄၄၀
လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၄၃၈-၄၄၀
ကိုယ်ခံအားစောင့်ကြည့်ခြင်း၊ ၄၄၈
ယန္တရား၊ ၄၃၉
MHC မော်လီကျူးများနှင့် ၄၄၄
အာရုံကြောစနစ်နှင့် ၄၄၀

Translating...

DHEA

DHEA (dehydroepiandrosterone)
adrenogenital syndrome ရောဂါနှင့် ၇၀၄
အသက်အရွယ်နှင့်ဆက်စပ်သောကျဆင်းမှု ၇၀၃
လက္ခဏာ၊ ၇၀၂
လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၇၀၂-၇၀၃
ကလေးမွေးဖွားခြင်း၊ ၇၉၀
DHT (dihydrotestosterone) ၄၇၄
ဆီးချိုရောဂါ insipidus၊ ၅၆၄
ဆီးချိုသွေးချိုရောဂါ၊ ၆၈
ပြင်းထန်သောအကျိုးသက်ရောက်မှုများ၊ ၇၂၁-၇၂၂
ကာဘိုဟိုက်ဒရိတ်စိစစ်ခြင်းနှင့် ၇၁၈-၇၁၉
လက္ခဏာ၊ ၇၁၈
အဆီဓာတ် (metabolism) နှင့် ၇၁၉
hyperglycemia ၇၂၄-၇၂၅
ရေရှည်ပြဿနာများ၊ ၇၁၉၊ ၇၂၂-၇၂၃
စီမံခန့်ခွဲမှု၊ ၇၂၁
ပလာစမာလက်စီစပ်ယူမှု၊ ၅၃၁
ပရိုတိန်းဓာတ်နှင့် ၇၁၉
ကုသမှု၊ ၇၂၀-၇၂၁
မူကွဲ၊ ၇၁၈၊ ၇၂၀
သတ်မှတ်ထားသောဆီးချိုရောဂါ၊ ၇၁၈
Diacylglycerol (DAG)၊ ၁၂၂
Diagnosis၊ ၅၅၁
Diapedesis၊ ၄၂၃
diaphragm
လက္ခဏာ၊ ၄၆၄
အဆုတ်ချိုထွင်ခြင်း၊ ၄၇၀
အပန်းဖြေ ၄၇၂
diaphragm၊ သန္ဓေတားဆေး၊ ၇၈၄
Diaphysis၊ ၆၇၉
ဝမ်းလျှော့ခြင်း၊ ၆၃၃-၆၃၄

ငါ-၈ အညွှန်း

စာမျက်နှာ ၃၂

Diastole ဆေး
၃၂၂ အတွင်းသွေးကြောလည်ပတ်မှု
အဖြစ်အပျက်များ၊ ၃၂၁-၃၂၃
ရှမ်းမှု၊ ၃၂၂
ညည်းညူသံ၊ ၃၂၄
diastolic သွေးပေါင်ချိန် ၃၅၀
Dicrotic ထစ်၊ ၃၂၃
Dienecephalon၊ ၁၄၃၊ ၁၅၄
အစားအစာမှဖြစ်ပေါ်သော thermogenesis၊ ၆၄၂
အဆီဓာတ်၊ အ ဆီစုပ်ယူမှုကို လည်ကြည့်ပါ
သည်းခြေကိုအစာခြေခြင်း၊ ဇာ-ဇာ
အစားအသောက်၊ ၅၉၀
အစာခြေ၊ ၆၂၄၊ ၆၃၀
emulsions၊ ၆၁၈
အစာအိမ်ကိုစိန်ထုတ်ခြင်း၊ ၆၀၃
glucagon လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်များ၊ ၇၂၃
အင်ဆူလင်အကျိုးသက်ရောက်မှု၊ ၇၁၇
ဇီဝဖြစ်စဉ်၊ ၇၁၉
ဖြစ်စဉ်၊ ၆၃၀ မှ ၆၃၁
ပရိုတင်းဓာတ်
စုပ်ယူမှု၊ ၆၂၈-၆၂၉
လက္ခဏာ၊ ၅၉၀
အစာခြေခြင်း၊ ၆၀၀-၆၀၁၊ ၆၀၇-၆၀၈
ကိုပြားခြင်း၊ ဆဲလ်ကိုပြားမှု ကိုကြည့်ပါ
ပျက်ခြင်း
CO - ၆၂-၆၃
အာရုံစူးစိုက်မှု gradient၊ ၆၀-၆၁
အဆင်ပြေစေသောပုံစံ၊ ၆၈-၆၉
လမ်းမှီးသောအချက်များ၊ ၆၂-၆၃
Fick ဧကွပ်ပေး၊ ၆၂-၆၃၊ ၄၈၈-၄၈၉
အသားတင်၊ ၆၂၊ ၄၉၀
passive၊ 60-63
အမျိုးအစားများ၊ ၆၁
အစာမကြေခြင်း
ကစီဓာတ်၊ ၆၁၁
၅၉၀ ဟုသတ်မှတ်သည်
အဆီ ၆၃၀
ပရိုတိန်း၊ ၆၀၀-၆၀၁၊ ၆၂၈-၆၂၉
တံတွေးကဏ္ဍ role၊ ၅၉၇ မှ ၅၉၈
အသံ၊ ၆၂၄
အစာခြေအင်ဇိုင်း၊ ၅၉၀
အစာခြေရည်၊ ၆၀၅
အစာခြေစနစ်
စုပ်ယူမှု၊ ၅၉၀ မှ ၅၉၁
ကိုယ်ခံအားချုပ်ချုပ်ချုပ်ချုပ်ကြော့ကြော့သားလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၅၉၃-၅၉၄
အခြေခံလုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၅၈၉
အခြေခံလုပ်ဆောင်မှု၊ ၅၉၁
သည်းခြေကဏ္ဍ secretion၊ ၆၁၃-၆၂၁
စိတ်ဓာတ်လက်ကျန်၊ ၆၃၃
အစိတ်အပိုင်းများ၊ ၆
ကာကွယ်ရေး၊ ၄၅၆ မှ ၄၅၇
အင်ဇိုင်းများ၊ A-12
အစာပြန်၊ ၅၉၈-၆၀၀
လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၅၈၈
အသွယ်လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၆၁၅-၆၁၇
homeostasis၊ ၁၁၊ ၅၈၈၊ ၆၃၈
ဟော်မုန်းလမ်းကြောင်းများ၊ ၅၉၅ မှ ၅၉၆
ဟော်မုန်း၊ ၆၃၇
ပင်ကိုယ်အာရုံကြော plexuses၊ ၅၉၄-၅၉၅
အမျိုးအစား၊ ၆၃၃-၆၃၄
လုပ်ငန်း၊ ၅၉၅ မှ ၅၉၆
ပါးစပ်၊ ၅၉၅ မှ ၅၉၈
အာရုံကြောတုံ့ပြန်မှုများ၊ ၅၉၅-၅၉၆
ပန်ကရိတ်၊ ၆၁၃-၆၁၅
pharynx၊ ၅၉၈-၆၀၀
စည်းမျဉ်း၊ ၅၉၃ မှ ၅၉၅
၅၉၀
အသံ၊ ၆၂၁-၆၃၃
အစာအိမ်၊ ၆၀၀-၆၀၁
အစာခြေလမ်းကြောင်း
ခန္ဓာဓေး၊ ၅၉၂
သွေးစီးဆင်းမှု၊ ၃၄၃
အစိတ်အပိုင်းများ၊ ၅၉၁
လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၅၉၂ မှ ၅၉၃

Dihydropyridine receptors၊ 264-265
Dilator ကြွက်သား၊ Radial muscle ကိုကြည့်ပါ
Diploid နံပါတ်၊ ၇၄၃၊ A-၂၀
ဒီပလိုမာ၊ ၂၁၁
တိုက်ရိုက် calorimetry၊ ၆၄၃
Disaccharidase၊ ၆၂၃
Disaccharide maltose၊ ၅၉၁
Disaccharides၊ 590၊ A-12
ခွဲခြားဆက်ဆံမှုစွမ်းရည်၊ Acuity ကိုကြည့်ပါ
ကွဲလွဲသွားသောအမှုများ၊ A-10
အဝေးပြန်၊ ၅၁၅၊ ၅၇၇
အကွာအဝေး၊ ၆၀၄
DIT (di-iodotyrosine)၊ ၆၉၂-၆၉၄
Diuresis၊ ၅၄၆-၅၄၇
Diuretics ဆီးဆေး၊ ၅၂၉
နေ့စဉ်စည်းချက်၊ ၆၆၅၊ ၇၀၂
ကိုပြားမှု၊ ၁၂၂
DNA (deoxyribonucleic acid)
B ဆဲလ်ပြန်လည်ပြုပြင်ခြင်း၊ ၄၃၇
လက္ခဏာ၊ A-15၊ A-17
လုပ်ဆောင်ချက်များ၊ ၂၅၂၊ A-၁၉
ဖိုရိုစီစစ်နှင့် A-19
ဟော်မုန်းလက်ခံသွေး၊ ၁၆
မျှော်လင့်ထားသောပြောင်းမှု၊ ၉
စည်းရုံးရေးအဆင်များ၊ A-22
ပုံစံ၊ ၂၅၂၊ A-19 နှင့် A-20
ပုံစံ၊ ၂၅၂၊ A-20 - A21
ဖွဲ့စည်းပုံ၊ A-19
ပုံစံ၊ A-22
သိုင်းရှိုက်တုံ့ပြန်မှုခြံစင်၊ ၆၉၄
ဓာတ်၊ A-21 နှင့် A23
ဘာသာပြန်၊ A-24၊ A-27
DNA ဖွဲ့စည်းခြင်း
anaphase၊ A-29 - A-30
interphase၊ A-28
meiosis၊ A-30
metaphase၊ A-29
mitosis၊ 46-47၊ A-28 - A-30
prophase၊ A-28 နှင့် A-29
telophase၊ A-30
ဆိုက်ကပ်မတ်များ၊ ၂၇-၂၈
Docking-marker လက်ခံသွေး၊ ၂၈၊ ၅၇၈
Dopamine
အပြုအမူနှင့် ၁၅၇
Dorsal အသက်ရှူလမ်းကြောင်းဆိုင်ရာဆေး (DRG)၊ ၅၀၀
အနောက်ဘက်အမြစ်၊ ၁၇၅
Dorsal root ganglion၊ ၁၇၅
နှစ်ဆငွေချေးစာချုပ်များ၊ A-11
နှစ်ထပ်အမြစ်၊ Diplopia ကိုကြည့်ပါ
DPP-4 (dipeptidyl peptidase-4) inhibitors၊ 721
မျှယစ်ဆေးဝါးများ
adrenegic ၄၃၃
ရောင်ရမ်းမှုကိုဆန့်ကျင်သည် (NSAIDs ကိုကြည့်ပါ)
ဓာတ်ကုထုံး၊ ၄၁
epidermis စုပ်ယူမှု၊ ၄၅၅
ခွဲခွဲအားကျဆင်းမှု၊ ၈
အကျိုးသက်ရောက်စေသော inhibitory synapses များ၊ ၁၂၂
statin၊ ၇၁၁
သည်အစိတ်၊ ၁၁၂
အရက်မှူးနေသောသင်္ဘောသားလမ်းလျှောက်ခြင်း၊ ၁၆၇
Dual innervation၊ ၂၄၀၊ ၂၄၃
Duchenne ကြွက်သား dystrophy၊ ၂၈၄-၂၈၅
Ductus deferens၊ ၇၅၆
Dura mater၊ ၁၃၉
Dural sinuses၊ ၁၃၉
လူပုဝါး၊ ၆၈၂ မှ ၆၈၃
Dynamic မျှခြေ၊ ၆၁၊ ၈၂
Dynein၊ ၄၃၊ ၆၆

အသက်ရှူကျပ်ခြင်း၊ ၄၉၆၊ ၅၀၆
Dystonias၊ ၂၅၃
Dystrophin၊ ၂၈၄
နားကိုး ကိုလည်းကြည့်ပါ အကြားအာရုံ၊ နားအတွင်းပိုင်း
ခန္ဓာဓေး၊ ၂၁၅
အရိုး၊ ၂၁၇
တွားမြောင်း၊ ၂၁၆
အစိတ်အပိုင်းများ၊ ၂၁၃၊ ၂၂၈
ပြင်ပ၊ ၂၁၆
အလယ်၊ ၂၁၇-၂၁၈
နားကျောက်၊ ၂၁၆
Otoliths ကိုကြည့်ပါ
နားဖယောင်း၊ ၂၁၆
Eccentric isotonic ကျုံ့ခြင်း၊ ၂၇၄
Eccrine ခြေကလေး၊ ၆၅၃
ECF (extracellular အရည်) Interstitial fluid ကိုလည်းကြည့်ပါ။
ပလာစမာ
adrenocortical မလုံလောက်ခြင်းနှင့် ၇၀၅
ဗိုင်းရပ်စ်ကာကွယ်မှု ၄၄၀
ဟန်ချက်တည့်ခြင်း၊ ၅၅၈
Ca + နှင့် 315-316, 727
ကာမုန်းနှစ်အက်စ်ကြားခံ၊ ၅၇၄
ဆဲလ်များပေါင်းစည်းခြင်း၊ ၂၃
အစိတ်အပိုင်းများ၊ ၇၊ ၅၅၉
ဖြန့်ဖြူးမှု၊ သွေးကြောမျှင်များအနားကဏ္ဍ၊ ၃၆၆-၃၆၈
hypertonicity၊ ၅၆၄ မှ ၅၆၅
၅၅၉ မှ ၅၆၀ ကြား ICF အတားအဆီး
အတွင်းရေကန်၊ ၅၅၇ မှ ၅၅၈
K အဆင့်၊ ၅၃၅-၅၃၆
osmolality၊ ၅၃၆-၅၃၉
ပလာစမာအမြေပေါင်းထဲတွင်၊ ၅၄
RAAS နှင့် ၅၂၇-၅၂၉
စည်းမျဉ်း၊ ၅၆၀
ထုတ်ပြန်ခြင်း၊ ၂၈
H + O, 511 ခွဲပိုင်း
လေ ဝ င်လေထွက်နှင့် ၅၀၂-၅၀၃
အသံအတိုးအကျယ်ထိန်းချုပ်မှု၊ ၅၆၀ မှ ၅၆၃
ECG (ဓာတ်မှန်ရိုက်ခြင်း)
နှလုံးအဖြစ်အပျက်များနှင့် ၃၁၇-၃၁၉
ဆက်သွယ်မှု၊ 316-317
ဖော်ပြချက်၊ ၃၁၆
ရောဂါရှာဖွေရေး applications များ၊ 319-321
ကိုယ်စားပြုမှု၊ ၃၁၆-၃၁၇
ECM (extracellular matrix)၊ ၅၈
Efferent ဝမ်းရိုက်ကိုယ်ဝန်၊ ၇၇၈
သားအိမ်အာရုံစူးစိုက်မှု၊ ၃၂၂
Ectopic tubal ကိုယ်ဝန်၊ ၇၈၁
ရေချည်၊ ၃၇၀-၃၇၁၊ ၄၂၁-၄၂၂
EDV (diastolic ပမာဏအဆုံး)
လက္ခဏာ၊ ၃၁၄
Frank-Starling ဥပဒေ၊ ၃၂၈
အသံအတိုးအကျယ် ၃၂၈-၃၂၉
EEG (electroencephalogram)၊ ၁၅၂-၁၅၃
Effector ကိုယ်တွင်းအင်္ဂါများ၊ ၁၄၄
ပရိုတိန်းဓာတ်၊ ၁၁၇
အကျိုးသက်ရောက်မှုများ၊ Efferent လမ်းကြောင်းကို ကြည့်ပါ
မတူညီသောသွေးလွှတ်ကြောများ၊ ၅၃၃
အကျိုးစီးပွားနှင့်ခြင်း၊ ၁၄၄
ကိုပြားသောအမျိုးအစားများ၊ ၁၇၅-၁၇၆
ကိုပြားသောအာရုံစိုက်မှု၊ ၃၅၂၊ ၂၅၈
မတူညီသောလမ်း၊ ၁၇၇
ကြွက်-သက်ပိုင်းပေါင်းစပ်မှု၊ ၇၇၉-၇၈၀
Eicosanoids၊ 758
သက်လွှတ်ခြင်း
လက္ခဏာ၊ ၇၆၀-၇၆၁
ထုတ်လွှတ်မှု၊ ၇၆၁
ထုတ်ပယ်ခြင်း၊ ၇၆၁
အော်ဂဲနစ် ၇၆၁
ဆုံးဖြတ်ချက်၊ ၇၆၁
သုတ်ပယ်ပုံစံ၊ ၇၆၁
သုတ်ပယ်ခြင်း၊ ၇၆၁
သုတ်ပယ်ခြင်း၊ ၇၆၁
ထုတ်ပယ်ခြင်းအပိုင်း၊ ၃၂၉-၃၃၀



အလှူ၊ ရှေးဦးစွာ  
mucosa  
Digitalis ကဲ့သို့အရာများ၊ ၃၈၅

Dysrhythmia ဘူဗျာ  
Dysmenorrhea ၇၇၅

Epinephrine ကိုလက်ကိုင်သုံး၊ ၄၄၄-၄၄၆  
Elastin ၅၈  
လျှပ်စစ်နည်းအတိုင်း၊ 313

Translating...

အညွှန်း

၄-၉

စာမျက်နှာ ၃၃

လျှပ်စစ် gradient နှင့်  
လျှပ်စစ်အချက်ပြများ၊ ၈၇-၈၈  
လျှပ်စစ် synapses, 104  
လျှပ်စစ်ဓာတ်ရောင်ခြည် နှင့်  
လျှပ်စစ်ဓာတ်။ သီးခြား electrolyte ကိုလည်းကြည့်ပါ။  
ကာလဝမ်းရောဂါ၊ ၆၃၄  
A-9 ဟုသတ်မှတ်သည့်  
တူညီသော A-9  
homeostasis, 11, 511  
ဆုံးရှုံးမှု၊ ၆၂  
လျှပ်စစ်သံလိုက်ရောင်ခြည်၊ ၁၉၇  
လျှပ်စစ်သံလိုက်လှိုင်း၊ ၆၅၁  
လျှပ်စစ်အား၊ ၂၂၀  
အီလက်ထရွန်မိုက်ခရိုစကုပ်၊ ၂၂  
အီလက်ထရွန်များ  
လက္ခဏာ၊ A-3  
ဓာတ်နှောင့်ကြိုးများ၊ A-4 - A-6  
အဖွဲ့၊ A-4  
သယ်ယူပို့ဆောင်ရေးစနစ်၊ ၃၅-၃၆  
Elements, A-3  
ဆင်ခြင်ထောက်ပံ့ရောဂါ၊ ၃၇၁  
အီတိုလီ၊ ၄၁၁  
အီတိုလာ၊ ၃၃၅  
သန္ဓေသား  
လက္ခဏာ၊ ၄၄၂  
ဖွံ့ဖြိုးရေး၊ ၇၈၁၊ ၇၈၆  
ESC ရိတ်သိမ်းခြင်း၊ ၉  
ပြင်းပယ်ခံရခြင်းမှကာကွယ်ခြင်း၊ ၇၅  
အစိတ်အပိုင်းသင်များ၊ ၇၈၆  
Emesis ။ အော့အန်ခြင်း ကိုကြည့်ပါ။  
Emetics နှင့်  
Emmetropia ၂၀၂  
စိတ်ခံစားမှု  
သွေးပေါင်ချိန်၊ ၃၈၀  
အစာအိမ်လှုပ်ရှားမှု၊ ၆၀၄  
limbic စနစ်နှင့်၊ ၁၅၆  
ထိန်းချုပ်နိုင်သည့်အာရုံကြောပိုလွတ်သော၊ ၁၅၇  
အဝလွန်ခြင်း၊ ၆၄၈  
serotonin ၁၅၇  
Empyema  
လက္ခဏာ၊ ၄၄၄  
elastic တွင်လိမ်ခြင်း၊ ၄၇၆  
အဆုတ်မျက်နှာပြင်ရေယာနှင့် ၄၈၉  
ကြော၊ ၅၉၆  
နောက်ဆုံးအဆင့်ကျောက်ကပ်ပျက်စီးခြင်း၊ ၅၄၈  
Endocrine ဝင်ရိုး၊ ၆၇၅  
Endocrine disruptors, ၇၆၂  
Endocrine ပန်ကရိယ၊ ၆၁၃-၆၁၅  
Endocrine စနစ်၊ Glands ကိုလည်းကြည့်ပါ။ ။ ဖတ်ဖုန်းများ  
ခန္ဓာဗေဒ၊ ၆၆၂  
ကယ်လစီယမ်ဖိစိတ်၊ 726-738  
လက္ခဏာ၊ ၁၇၁-၁၈၂၊ ၆၆၀  
circadian စည်းချက်များ၊ ၆၆၅၊ ၆၈၅-၆၈၇  
command hierarchy, ၆၇၅  
ရွပ်ထွေးမှု၊ ၆၆၁  
အစိတ်အပိုင်းများ၊ ၇၊ ၆၆၁  
အလှူ၊ ၆၈၇  
ပုံမှန်များ၊ ၆၄၈၊ ၆၆၅-၆၆၆  
diurnal စည်းချက်၊ 665  
လောင်စာဖိစိတ်၊ ၇၁၀-၇၂၆  
လှုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၁၇၁-၁၈၂၊ ၆၆၀  
ကြီးထွားထိန်းချုပ်မှုလှုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၆၇၇ မှ ၆၈၅  
အပူတုံ့ပြန်မှု၊ ၆၇၂  
homeostasis၊ ၁၄၊ ၈၆၊ ၁၉၅  
ဟော်မုန်း၊ ၇၃၈  
သွေးတိုးရောဂါ၊ ၃၈၂  
ခွဲအားစနစ်ချိတ်ဆက်မှု၊ ၄၄၈-၄၄၉  
အနုတ်လက္ခဏာတုံ့ပြန်ချက်၊ ၆၇၅  
အာရုံကြောစနစ် နှင့်၊ ၁၆-၁၉  
neuroendocrine တုံ့ပြန်မှု၊ 665  
ယောဘုယုလှုပ်ဆောင်ချက်များ၊ ၆၆၂-၆၆၁  
စိတ်ဖိစီးမှုတုံ့ပြန်မှု၊ ၇၀၇-၇၁၀  
၆၆၁ ကိုလေ့လာပါ။  
ပစ်မှတ်ဆဲလ်တုံ့ပြန်မှု၊ ၆၆၅-၆၇၀  
Endocrinology  
သတ်မှတ်၊ ၁၁၇  
လှုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၁၁၈  
ယောဘုယုအခြေခံများ၊ ၆၆၁

Endocytosis ဖြစ်တယ်  
လက္ခဏာ၊ ၇၆  
ပုံစံ၊ ၃၀၊  
လှုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၉  
receptor- ကြားဖြတ်၊ ၃၁  
vesicular သယ်ယူပို့ဆောင်ရေး၊ ၇၅  
Endogenous digitalis ကဲ့သို့အရာဝတ္ထုများ၊ ၃၈၅  
Endogenous pyrogen, ၄၄၄, ၆၅၆  
Endolymph ၂၁၇  
Endometrium၊ ၇၇၄-၇၇၅၊ ၇၈၁  
Endoplasmic reticulum (ER) ဖြစ်သည်။ ကိုလည်းကြည့်ပါ။ Rough  
endoplasmic reticulum; ချောမွေ့ endoplasmic  
မျက်ကြည့်လွှာ  
လှုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၂၄-၂၅  
lumen၊ ၂၅  
ပရိုတင်းပေါင်းစပ်မှု၊ ၃၉  
Endorphin နှင့်  
Endorphins ၁၉၂  
Endothelial ဆဲလ်များ  
လက္ခဏာ၊ ၃၅၄  
လှုပ်ဆောင်ချက်၊ ၃၅၆  
slit ကဲ့သို့ကွာဟချက်များ၊ ၂၆၃  
Endothelin၊ ၃၅၆၊ ၃၈၂  
Endothelium၊ ၃၀၈  
ခံနိုင်ရည်အမျိုးအစားလေ့ကျင့်ခန်း။ အေး ရိုးစစ်လေ့ကျင့်ခန်း ကိုကြည့်ပါ။  
စွမ်းအင်  
ဆဲလ် ငွေ့ဝ လိုအပ်သည့်  
အောက်စီဂျင် နှင့် နှင်းဥပမာသည့်  
အသုံးစရိတ်နှုန်း၊ ၆၄၃  
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၆၄၂-၆၄၃  
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anorexia nervosa ၆၈၀  
arcuate nucleus နှင့် ၆၄၄၊ ၆၄၆-၆၄၇  
CCK နှင့် ၆၄၇  
အစားအစာစားသုံးမှုနှင့် ၆၄၄-၆၄၇  
ghrelin နှင့် ၆၄၆  
homeostasis နှင့်၊ ၆၅၇  
hypothalamus အခန်းကဏ္ဍ၊ ၆၄၄-၆၄၇  
ထည့်သွင်းမှု၊ ၆၄၁-၆၄၂  
အင်ဆူလင်နှင့် ၆၄၄-၆၄၆  
leptin နှင့် ၆၄၄-၆၄၆  
ရေချုပ်ထိန်းသိမ်းမှု၊ ၆၄၄-၆၄၆  
ဖိစိတ်စနစ်နှင့် ၆၄၇-၆၄၈  
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orexins နှင့် ၆၄၆-၆၄၇  
အထွက်၊ ၆၄၁-၆၄၂  
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ပတ်ဝန်းကျင်  
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## Page 54

**BODY SYSTEMS**

Made up of cells organized according to specialization to maintain homeostasis  
*See* Chapter 1.

**NERVOUS SYSTEM**

Acts through electrical signals to control rapid responses of the body; also responsible for higher functions\_\_e.g., consciousness, memory, and creativity  
*See* Chapters 4, 5, 6, and 7.

Information from the external environment relayed through the nervous system

Regulate



O<sub>2</sub>  
CO<sub>2</sub>

**RESPIRATORY SYSTEM**  
Obtains O<sub>2</sub> from and eliminates CO<sub>2</sub> to the external environment; helps regulate pH by adjusting the rate of removal of acid-forming CO<sub>2</sub>  
*See Chapters 13 and 15.*

Translating...

Urine containing wastes and excess water and electrolytes

**URINARY SYSTEM**  
Important in regulating the volume, electrolyte composition, and pH of the internal environment; removes wastes and excess water, salt, acid, and other electrolytes from the plasma and eliminates them in the urine  
*See Chapters 14 and 15.*

Nutrients, water, electrolytes  
Feces containing undigested food residue

**DIGESTIVE SYSTEM**  
Obtains nutrients, water, and electrolytes from the external environment and transfers them into the plasma; eliminates undigested food residues to the external environment  
*See Chapter 16.*

Sperm leave male  
Sperm enter female

**REPRODUCTIVE SYSTEM**  
Not essential for homeostasis, but essential for perpetuation of the species  
*See Chapter 20.*

Exchanges with all other systems

**EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT**

**CIRCULATORY SYSTEM**  
Transports nutrients, O<sub>2</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub>, wastes, electrolytes, and hormones throughout the body  
*See Chapters 9, 10, and 11.*

Each chapter begins with a system-specific version of the pictorial homeostatic model above that depicts how the body system discussed in the chapter functions within the body as a whole. The accompanying icon marks a special section at each chapter's end that focuses on how the system contributes to homeostasis. Together these features will give you a better perspective on homeostasis and the interdependency of body systems.

**ENDOCRINE SYSTEM**  
Acts by means of hormones secreted into the blood to regulate processes that require duration rather than speed—e.g., metabolic activities and water and electrolyte balance  
*See Chapters 4, 18, and 19.*

Body systems maintain homeostasis

**INTEGUMENTARY SYSTEM**  
Serves as a protective barrier between the external environment and the remainder of the body; the sweat glands and adjustments in skin blood flow are important in temperature regulation  
*See Chapters 12 and 17.*

Keeps internal fluids in  
Keeps foreign material out

**HOMEOSTASIS**  
A dynamic steady state of the constituents in the internal fluid environment that surrounds and exchanges materials with the cells  
*See Chapter 1.*  
Factors homeostatically maintained:  
Concentration of nutrient molecules  
*See Chapters 16, 17, 18, and 19.*  
Concentration of O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>  
*See Chapter 13.*  
Concentration of waste products  
*See Chapter 14.*  
pH  
*See Chapter 15.*  
Concentration of water, salts, and other electrolytes  
*See Chapters 14, 15, 18, and 19.*  
Temperature  
*See Chapter 17.*  
Volume and pressure  
*See Chapters 10, 14, and 15.*

**IMMUNE SYSTEM**  
Defends against foreign invaders and cancer cells; paves way for tissue repair  
*See Chapter 12.*

Protects against foreign invaders

Homeostasis is essential for survival of cells

Support and protect body parts and allow body movement; heat-generating muscle contractions are important in temperature regulation; calcium is stored in the bone  
 See Chapters 8, 17, and 19.

Exchanges with all other systems

Enables the body to interact with the external environment

Translating...

**CELLS**  
 Need homeostasis for their own survival and for performing specialized functions essential for survival of the whole body  
 See Chapters 1, 2, and 3.  
 Need a continual supply of nutrients and O<sub>2</sub> and ongoing elimination of acid-forming CO<sub>2</sub> to generate the energy needed to power life-sustaining cellular activities as follows:  
 Food + O<sub>2</sub> → CO<sub>2</sub> + H<sub>2</sub>O + energy  
 See Chapter 17.

Cells make up body systems

## ANATOMICAL TERMS USED TO INDICATE DIRECTION AND ORIENTATION

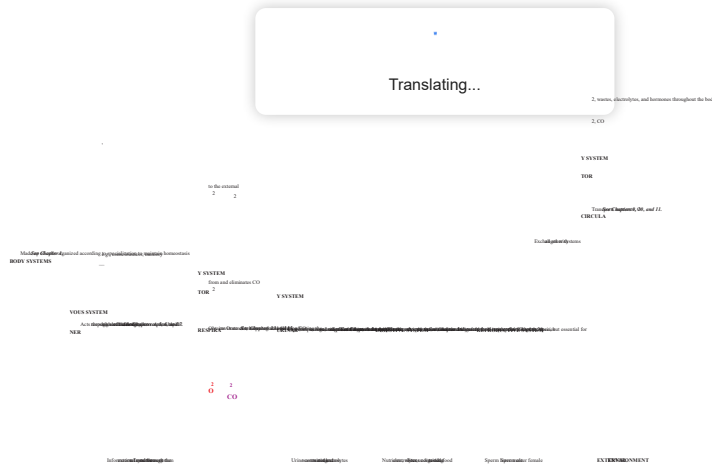
|                                   |   |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| <i>anterior</i>                   | situated in front of or in the front part of  |
| <i>posterior</i>                  | situated behind or toward the rear  |
| <i>ventral</i>                    | toward the belly or front surface of the body; synonymous with anterior                         |
| <i>dorsal</i>                     | toward the back surface of the body; synonymous with posterior                                  |
| <i>medial</i>                     | denoting a position nearer the midline of the body or a body structure                          |
| <i>lateral</i>                    | denoting a position toward the side or farther from the midline of the body or a body structure |
| <i>superior</i>                   | toward the head   |
| <i>inferior</i>                   | away from the head  |
| <i>proximal</i>                   | closer to a reference point   |
| <i>distal</i>                     | farther from a reference point  |
| <i>sagittal section</i>           | a vertical plane that divides the body or a body structure into right and left sides            |
| <i>longitudinal section</i>       | a plane that lies parallel to the length of the body or a body structure                        |
| <i>cross section</i>              | a plane that runs perpendicular to the length of the body or a body structure                   |
| <i>frontal or coronal section</i> | a plane parallel to and facing the front part of the body                                       |

## WORD DERIVATIVES COMMONLY USED IN PHYSIOLOGY

|                            |                    |                     |                  |                 |                   |
|----------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|------------------|-----------------|-------------------|
| <i>a; an-</i>              | absence or lack    | <i>epi-</i>         | above; over      | <i>osteo-</i>   | bone              |
| <i>ad-; af-</i>            | toward             | <i>erythro-</i>     | red              | <i>oto-</i>     | ear               |
| <i>adeno-</i>              | glandular          | <i>gastr-</i>       | stomach          | <i>para-</i>    | near              |
| <i>angi-</i>               | vessel             | <i>-gen; -genic</i> | produce          | <i>pariet-</i>  | wall              |
| <i>anti-</i>               | against            | <i>gluc-; glyc-</i> | sweet            | <i>peri-</i>    | around            |
| <i>archi-</i>              | old                | <i>hemi-</i>        | half             | <i>phago-</i>   | eat               |
| <i>-ase</i>                | splitter           | <i>hemo-</i>        | blood            | <i>-pod</i>     | footlike          |
| <i>auto-</i>               | self               | <i>hepat-</i>       | liver            | <i>-poiesis</i> | formation         |
| <i>bi-</i>                 | two; double        | <i>homeo-</i>       | sameness         | <i>poly-</i>    | many              |
| <i>-blast</i>              | former             | <i>hyper-</i>       | above; excess    | <i>post-</i>    | behind; after     |
| <i>brady-</i>              | slow               | <i>hypo-</i>        | below; deficient | <i>pre-</i>     | ahead of; before  |
| <i>cardi-</i>              | heart              | <i>inter-</i>       | between          | <i>pro-</i>     | before            |
| <i>cephal-</i>             | head               | <i>intra-</i>       | within           | <i>pseudo-</i>  | false             |
| <i>cerebr-</i>             | brain              | <i>kal-</i>         | potassium        | <i>pulmon-</i>  | lung              |
| <i>chondr-</i>             | cartilage          | <i>leuko-</i>       | white            | <i>rect-</i>    | straight          |
| <i>-cide</i>               | kill; destroy      | <i>lip-</i>         | fat              | <i>ren-</i>     | kidney            |
| <i>contra-</i>             | against            | <i>macro-</i>       | large            | <i>reticul-</i> | network           |
| <i>cost-</i>               | rib                | <i>mamm-</i>        | breast           | <i>retro-</i>   | backward          |
| <i>crani-</i>              | skull              | <i>mening-</i>      | membrane         | <i>sacchar-</i> | sugar             |
| <i>-crine</i>              | secretion          | <i>micro-</i>       | small            | <i>sarc-</i>    | muscle            |
| <i>crypt-</i>              | hidden             | <i>mono-</i>        | single           | <i>semi-</i>    | half              |
| <i>cutan-</i>              | skin               | <i>multi-</i>       | many             | <i>-some</i>    | body              |
| <i>-cyte</i>               | cell               | <i>myo-</i>         | muscle           | <i>sub-</i>     | under             |
| <i>de-</i>                 | lack of            | <i>natr-</i>        | sodium           | <i>supra-</i>   | upon; above       |
| <i>di-</i>                 | two; double        | <i>neo-</i>         | new              | <i>tachy-</i>   | rapid             |
| <i>dys-</i>                | difficult; faulty  | <i>neph-</i>        | kidney           | <i>therm-</i>   | temperature       |
| <i>ecto-; exo-; extra-</i> | outside; away from | <i>neuro-</i>       | nerve            | <i>-tion</i>    | act or process of |
| <i>ef-</i>                 | away from          | <i>oculo-</i>       | eye              | <i>trans-</i>   | across            |
| <i>-elle</i>               | tiny; miniature    | <i>-oid</i>         | resembling       | <i>tri-</i>     | three             |
| <i>-emia</i>               | blood              | <i>ophthalmo-</i>   | eye              | <i>vaso-</i>    | vessel            |
| <i>encephalo-</i>          | brain              | <i>oral-</i>        | mouth            | <i>-uria</i>    | urine             |
| <i>endo-</i>               | within; inside     |                     |                  |                 |                   |







## Cell Theory (p. 21) 2 Study Card

■ The complex organization and interaction of the chemicals within a cell confer the unique characteristics of life. The cell is the smallest unit capable of carrying out life processes.

■ Cells are the living building blocks of the body. The structure and function of a multicellular organism ultimately depend on the structural and functional capabilities of its cells. (Review Table 2-1.)

### Observations of Cells (p. 21–22)

- Cells are too small for the unaided eye to see.
- Using early microscopes, investigators learned that all plant and animal tissues consist of individual cells.
- Scientists now know that a cell is a complex, highly organized, compartmentalized structure.

### An Overview of Cell Structure (pp. 22–24)

- Cells have three major subdivisions: the plasma membrane, the nucleus, and the cytoplasm. (Review Figure 2-1.)
- The plasma membrane encloses the cell and separates the intracellular and extracellular fluid.
- The nucleus contains deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), the cell's genetic material.
- Three types of RNA play a role in the protein synthesis coded by DNA: messenger RNA (mRNA), ribosomal RNA (rRNA), and transfer RNA (tRNA).
- The cytoplasm consists of cytosol, a complex gel-like mass, which is laced with a cytoskeleton and organelles. Organelles are highly organized structures that serve a specific function.
- There are two categories of organelles. Membranous organelles are bound by a membrane that separates the organelle's contents from the surrounding cytosol. They include the endoplasmic reticulum, Golgi complex, lysosomes, peroxisomes, and mitochondria. The nonmembranous organelles are not surrounded by membrane and include ribosomes, vaults, and centrioles. (Review Figure 2-1 and Table 2-2, p. 44.)

### Endoplasmic Reticulum and Segregated Synthesis (pp. 24–27)

- The endoplasmic reticulum (ER) is a single, complex membranous network that encloses a fluid-filled lumen.
- The primary function of the ER is to synthesize proteins and lipids that are either (1) secreted to the exterior of the cell, such as enzymes and hormones, or (2) used to produce new cell components, particularly cellular membranes.

■ The two types of ER are rough ER (flattened interconnected sacs studded with ribosomes) and smooth ER (interconnected tubules with no ribosomes). (Review Figure 2-2.)

■ The rough-ER ribosomes synthesize proteins, which are released into the ER lumen so that they are separated from the cytosol. Also entering the lumen are lipids produced within the membranous walls of the ER.

■ Synthesized products move from the rough ER to the smooth ER, where they are packaged and discharged as transport vesicles. Transport vesicles are formed as a portion of the smooth ER “buds off.” (Review Figure 2-3.)

### Golgi Complex and Exocytosis (pp. 27–28)

- Transport vesicles move to and fuse with the Golgi complex, which consists of a stack of separate, flattened, membrane-enclosed sacs. (Review Figures 2-3 and 2-4.)
- The Golgi complex serves a twofold function: (1) to modify into finished products the newly synthesized molecules delivered to it in crude form from the ER; and (2) to sort, package, and direct molecular traffic to appropriate intracellular and extracellular destinations.
- The Golgi complex of secretory cells packages proteins to be exported from the cell in secretory vesicles that are released by exocytosis on appropriate stimulation. (Review Figures 2-3, 2-5a, and 2-6.)

### Lysosomes and Endocytosis (pp. 28–31)

- Lysosomes are membrane-enclosed sacs that contain powerful hydrolytic (digestive) enzymes. (Review Figure 2-7.)
- Serving as the intracellular digestive system, lysosomes destroy foreign materials such as bacteria that have been internalized by the cell and demolish worn-out cell parts to make way for new replacement parts.
- Extracellular material is brought into the cell by endocytosis for attack by lysosomal enzymes. (Review Figure 2-5b.) The three forms of endocytosis are pinocytosis, receptor-mediated endocytosis, and phagocytosis. (Review Figure 2-8.)

### Peroxisomes and Detoxification (p. 31)

- Peroxisomes are small membrane-enclosed sacs containing powerful oxidative enzymes. (Review Figure 2-7.)
- They carry out particular oxidative reactions that detoxify various wastes and toxic foreign compounds that have entered the cell. During these detoxification reactions, peroxisomes generate potent hydrogen peroxide, which they decompose into harmless water and oxygen by means of the catalase they contain.

Translating...

**Mitochondria and ATP Production (pp. 31–39)**

- The rod-shaped mitochondria are enclosed by two membranes, a smooth outer membrane and an inner membrane that forms a series of shelves, the cristae, which project into an interior gel-filled cavity, the matrix. (Review Figure 2-9.)
- Mitochondria are the energy organelles of the cell. They efficiently convert the energy in food molecules to the usable energy stored in ATP molecules. Cells use ATP as an energy source for synthesis of new chemical compounds, for membrane transport, and for mechanical work.
- *Cellular respiration* refers collectively to the intracellular reactions in which energy-rich molecules are broken down to form ATP, using O<sub>2</sub> and producing CO<sub>2</sub> in the process. Cellular respiration includes the sequential dismantling of nutrient molecules and subsequent ATP production in three stages: (1) glycolysis in the cytosol, (2) the citric acid cycle in the mitochondrial matrix, and (3) oxidative phosphorylation at the mitochondrial inner membrane. (Review Figure 2-10.)
- *Oxidative phosphorylation* includes the electron transport system and chemiosmosis by ATP synthase. The electron transport system extracts high-energy electrons from hydrogens released during nutrient breakdown during glycolysis and the citric acid cycle and transfers them to successively lower energy levels. The free energy released during this process is used to create a H gradient across the mitochondrial inner membrane. The flow of H down this gradient activates ATP synthase, an enzyme that synthesizes ATP in a process called chemiosmosis. (Review Figures 2-11 through 2-14.)
- A cell is more efficient at converting food energy into ATP when O<sub>2</sub> is available. Without O<sub>2</sub> (the anaerobic condition), a cell can produce only 2 molecules of ATP for every glucose molecule processed by glycolysis. With O<sub>2</sub> (the aerobic condition), the mitochondrial processes can yield another 30 molecules of ATP for every glucose molecule processed (2 from the citric acid cycle and 28 from oxidative phosphorylation). (Review Figures 2-14 and 2-16.)

**Ribosomes and Protein Synthesis (pp. 39–40)**

- During protein synthesis, a large and a small ribosomal subunit unite to form a ribosome. (Review Figure 2-17a.)
- Ribosomes translate mRNA into chains of amino acids assembled according to the DNA code carried by mRNA. Ribosomes have binding sites where tRNAs carrying specified amino acids link with mRNA during protein assembly. (Review Figure 2-17b.)

**Vaults as Cellular Trucks (pp. 40–41)**

- Vaults are hollow, octagonal structures that are the same shape and size as the nuclear pores. (Review Figure 2-18.) They are believed to be cellular trucks that dock at the nuclear pores and pick up cargo for transport from the nucleus.

- The leading proposals are that vaults may transport mRNA or the ribosomal subunits from the nucleus to the cytoplasmic sites of protein synthesis.

**Centrosome, Centrioles, and Microtubule Organization (p. 41)**

- The centrosome (cell center) consists of a pair of centrioles surrounded by an amorphous mass. (Review Figure 2-19.)
- The centrosome is the main microtubule organizing center of a cell. It forms and organizes the microtubule cytoskeleton, forms cilia and flagella, and forms the mitotic spindle.

**Cytosol: Cell Gel (p. 42)**

- The cytosol contains the enzymes involved in intermediary metabolism and the ribosomal machinery essential for synthesis of these enzymes as well as other cytosolic proteins.
- Many cells store unused nutrients within the cytosol in the form of glycogen granules or fat droplets. (Review Figure 2-20.)
- Also present in the cytosol are various secretory, transport, and endocytic vesicles.

**Cytoskeleton: Cell “Bone and Muscle” (pp. 42–49)**

- Extending throughout the cytosol is the cytoskeleton, which serves as the “bone and muscle” of the cell. (Review Table 2-2, p. 44.)
- The three types of cytoskeletal elements—microtubules, microfilaments, and intermediate filaments—each consist of different proteins and perform various roles. (Review Figure 2-21.)
- Microtubules, made of tubulin, maintain asymmetric cell shapes, serve as highways for intracellular transport by molecular motors, are the main component of cilia and flagella, and make up the mitotic spindle. (Review Figures 2-22, 2-23, 2-24, and 2-25.)
- Microfilaments, made of actin in most cells, are important in various cellular contractile systems, including amoeboid movement and muscle contraction. They also serve as a mechanical stiffener for microvilli. (Review Figures 2-26, 2-27, and 2-28.)
- Intermediate filaments are irregular threadlike proteins that help cells resist mechanical stress. They are most abundant in skin cells and nerve cells.
- Collectively, the cytoskeletal elements give the cell shape and support, enable it to organize and move its internal structures as needed, and, in some cells, allow movement between the cell and its environment.

# 3

## Membrane Structure and Function Study Card

- All cells are bounded by a plasma membrane, a thin lipid bilayer interspersed with proteins and having carbohydrates attached on the outer surface.
- The appearance of the plasma membrane in an electron microscope as a trilaminar structure (two dark lines separated by a light interspace) is produced by the arrangement of its molecules. The phospholipids orient themselves to form a bilayer with a hydrophobic interior (light interspace) sandwiched between hydrophilic outer and inner surfaces (dark

- Many cells are further joined by specialized cell junctions, of which there are three types: desmosomes, tight junctions, and gap junctions.
- Desmosomes serve as adhering junctions to hold cells together mechanically and are especially important in tissues subject to a great deal of stretching. (Review Figure 3-4.)
- Tight junctions actually fuse cells together, preventing the passage of materials between cells and thereby permitting only regulated passage of materials through the cells. These impermeable junctions are found in the epithelial sheets that

lines). (Review Figures 3-1, 3-2, and 3-3.)

- The lipid bilayer forms the structural boundary of the cell, serving as a barrier for water-soluble substances and being responsible for the fluid nature of the membrane. Cholesterol molecules tucked between the phospholipids contribute to the fluidity and stability of the membrane.
- According to the fluid mosaic model of membrane structure, the lipid bilayer is embedded with proteins. (Review Figure 3-3.) Membrane proteins, which vary in type and distribution among cells, serve as (1) channels for passage of small ions across the membrane; (2) carriers for transport of specific substances in or out of the cell; (3) docking-marker acceptors for fusion with and subsequent exocytosis of secretory vesicles; (4) membrane-bound enzymes that govern specific chemical reactions; (5) receptors for detecting and responding to chemical messengers that alter cell function; and (6) cell adhesion molecules that help hold cells together and serve as a structural link between the extracellular surroundings and intracellular cytoskeleton.
- Membrane carbohydrates on the outer surface of the cell serve as self-identity markers. (Review Figure 3-3.) They are important in recognition of "self" in cell-to-cell interactions such as tissue formation and tissue growth.



**Cell-to-Cell Adhesions (pp. 57–60)**

- The extracellular matrix (ECM) serves as a biological "glue" between the cells of a tissue. The ECM consists of a watery, gel-like substance interspersed with three major types of protein fibers: collagen, elastin, and fibronectin.

separate compartments with very different chemical compositions. (Review Figure 3-3.)

- Gap junctions are communicating junctions between two adjacent, but not touching, cells. They form small tunnels that permit exchange of ions and small molecules between the cells. Such movement of ions plays a key role in the spread of electrical activity to synchronize contraction in heart and smooth muscle. (Review Figure 3-6.)

**Overview of Membrane Transport (p. 60)**

- Materials can pass between the ECF and ICF by unassisted and assisted means.
- Transport mechanisms may also be passive (the particle moves across the membrane without the cell expending energy) or active (the cell expends energy to move the particle across the membrane). (Review Table 3-2, p. 76.)

**Unassisted Membrane Transport (pp. 60–67)**

- Nonpolar (lipid-soluble) molecules of any size cross the membrane unassisted by dissolving in and passively moving through the lipid bilayer down concentration gradients. (Review Figures 3-7 and 3-8.) Small ions can traverse the membrane unassisted by passively moving down electrochemical gradients through open protein channels specific for the ion. (Review Figure 3-3.)
- In osmosis, water moves passively down its own concentration gradient across a selectively permeable membrane to an area of higher concentration of nonpenetrating solutes. Penetrating solutes do not have an osmotic effect. (Review Figures 3-9 through 3-12.)
- The osmolarity of a solution is a measure of its total number of solute particles, both penetrating and nonpenetrating, both molecules and ions, per liter. The osmotic pressure of a solution is the pressure that must be applied to the solution to completely stop osmosis. The tonicity of a solution refers to the effect the solution has on cell volume and depends on the solution's relative concentration of nonpenetrating solutes compared to the concentration of nonpenetrating solutes in the cell it surrounds. (Review Figure 3-13.)

**Assisted Membrane Transport (pp. 67–75)**

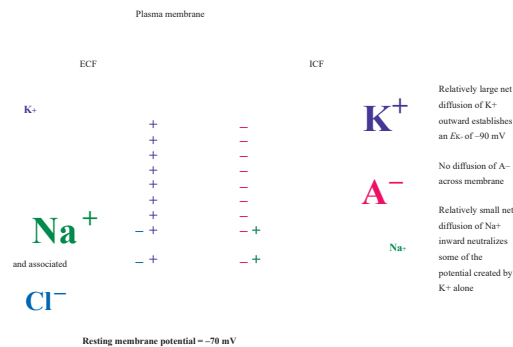
- In carrier-mediated transport, small polar molecules and selected ions are transported across the membrane by specific membrane carrier proteins. Carriers open to one side of the membrane where a passenger binds to a binding site specific for it, then change shape so that the binding site is exposed to the opposite side of the membrane where the passenger is released. Carrier-mediated transport may be passive and move the particle down its concentration gradient (facilitated diffusion) (review Figure 3-14), or active and move the particle against its concentration gradient (active transport). Carriers exhibit a transport maximum ( $T_m$ ) when saturated. (Review Figure 3-15.)
- There are two forms of active transport: primary active transport and secondary active transport. Primary active transport requires the direct use of ATP to drive the pump. (Review Figure 3-16.) One of the most important examples of primary active transport is the Na–K pump, which concentrates Na in the ECF and K in the ICF. (Review Figure 3-17.) Secondary active transport is driven by an ion concentration gradient established by a primary active-transport system. There are two types of secondary active transport: symport (or cotransport) and antiport (or countertransport or exchange). In symport, the cotransported solute is moved uphill in the same direction as the driving ion moves downhill. In antiport, the coupled solute is moved uphill in the opposite direction as the driving ion moves downhill. (Review Figures 3-18 and 3-19.)
- Large polar molecules and multimolecular particles can leave or enter the cell by being wrapped in a piece of mem-

brane to form vesicles that can be internalized (endocytosis) or externalized (exocytosis). (Review Figures 2-5, 2-6, and 2-8.)

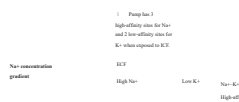
- Cells are differentially selective in what enters or leaves because they possess varying numbers and kinds of channels, carriers, and mechanisms for vesicular transport.
- Large polar molecules (too large for channels and not lipid soluble) for which there are no special transport mechanisms are unable to cross the membrane.

**Membrane Potential (pp. 75–82)**

- All cells have a membrane potential, which is a separation of opposite charges across the plasma membrane. (Review Figure 3-20.)



- The Na–K pump makes a small direct contribution to membrane potential because it transports more Na ions out than K ions in. (Review Figure 3-17.) However, the primary





role of the Na-K pump is to actively maintain a greater concentration of Na outside the cell and a greater concentration of K inside the cell. These concentration gradients tend to passively move K out of the cell and Na into the cell. (Review Table 3-3 and Figures 3-21 and 3-22.)

**Translating...**

■ Because the resting membrane is much more permeable to K than to Na, substantially more K leaves the cell than Na enters, resulting in an excess of positive charges outside the cell. This leaves an unbalanced excess of negative charges, in the form of large protein anions (A<sup>-</sup>), trapped inside the cell. (Review Table 3-3 and Figure 3-23.)

■ When the resting membrane potential of -70 mV is achieved, no further net movement of K and Na takes place, because any further leaking of these ions down their concentration gradients is quickly reversed by the Na-K pump.

■ The distribution of Cl across the membrane is passively driven by the established membrane potential so that Cl is concentrated in the ECF.

# 4

## Introduction to Neural Communication (pp. 81-99)

- Nerve and muscle cells are excitable tissues because they can rapidly alter their membrane permeabilities and undergo transient membrane potential changes when excited. These rapid changes in potential serve as electrical signals.
- Compared to resting potential, a membrane becomes depolarized when the magnitude of its negative potential is reduced (becomes less negative) and hyperpolarized when the magnitude of its negative potential is increased (becomes more negative). (Review Figure 4-1.)
- Changes in potential are brought about by triggering events that alter membrane permeability, in turn leading to changes in ion movement across the membrane.
- The two kinds of potential change are: (1) graded potentials, the short-distance signals, and (2) action potentials, the long-distance signals. (Review Table 4-1, p. 98.)

### Graded Potentials (pp. 88-91)

- A graded potential, usually a depolarization, occurs in a small, specialized region of an excitable cell membrane. The site undergoing a potential change is designated an active area. (Review Figure 4-2.)
- The magnitude of a graded potential varies directly with the magnitude of the triggering event.
- Graded potentials spread decrementally by local current flow between the active area and adjacent inactive areas and die out over a short distance. (Review Figures 4-2 and 4-3.)

### Action Potentials (pp. 91-104)

- During an action potential, depolarization of the membrane to threshold potential triggers sequential changes in permeability caused by conformational changes in voltage-gated Na and K channels. (Review Figures 4-4 through 4-7.)
- These permeability changes bring about a brief reversal of membrane potential, with Na influx causing the rising phase (from -70 to 30 mV), followed by K efflux causing the falling phase (from peak back to resting). (Review Figure 4-7.)
- Before an action potential returns to resting, it regenerates an identical new action potential in the area next to it by means of current flow that brings the previously inactive area to threshold. This self-perpetuating cycle continues until the action potential has spread throughout the cell membrane in undiminished fashion.
- There are two types of action potential propagation: (1) contiguous conduction in unmyelinated fibers, in which the action potential spreads along every portion of the membrane; and (2) the more rapid, saltatory conduction in myelinated fibers, in which the impulse jumps from one node of

Ranvier to the next over sections of the fiber covered with insulating myelin. (Review Figures 4-9, 4-12, and 4-13.)

- The Na-K pump gradually restores the ions that moved during propagation of the action potential to their original location, to maintain the concentration gradients.
- It is impossible to restimulate the portion of the membrane where the impulse has just passed until it has recovered from its refractory period, ensuring the one-way propagation of action potentials. (Review Figures 4-10 and 4-11.)
- Action potentials occur either maximally in response to stimulation or not at all (all or none law).
- Variable strengths of stimuli are coded by varying the frequency of action potentials, not their magnitude, in an activated nerve fiber.

### Synapses and Neuronal Integration (pp. 104-113)

- One neuron directly interacts with another neuron primarily through a chemical synapse. (Review Figures 4-14 and 4-15.)
- Most neurons have four different functional parts: (Review Figure 4-8.)
  1. The dendrite/cell body region (the input zone) serves as the postsynaptic component that binds with and responds to neurotransmitters released from other neurons.
  2. The axon hillock (the trigger zone) is where action potentials are initiated because it has the lowest threshold and thus reaches threshold first in response to an excitatory graded potential change.
  3. The axon, or nerve fiber (the conducting zone), conducts action potentials in undiminished fashion from the axon hillock to the axon terminals.
  4. The axon terminal (the output zone) serves as the presynaptic component, releasing a neurotransmitter that influences other postsynaptic cells in response to action potential propagation down the axon.
- Released neurotransmitter combines with receptor-channels on the postsynaptic neuron. (Review Figure 4-15.)
  - (1) If nonspecific cation channels that permit passage of both Na and K are opened, the resultant ionic fluxes cause an EPSP, a small depolarization that brings the postsynaptic cell closer to threshold.
  - (2) If either K or Cl channels are opened, the likelihood that the postsynaptic neuron will reach threshold is diminished when an IPSP, a small hyperpolarization, is produced. (Review Figure 4-16.)
- If the dominant activity is in its excitatory inputs, the postsynaptic cell is likely to be brought to threshold and have an action potential. This can be accomplished by either (1) temporal summation (EPSPs from a single, repetitively firing, presynaptic input occurring so close together in time that they add together) or (2) spatial summation (adding of EPSPs occurring simultaneously from several different presynaptic inputs). (Review Figure 4-17.) If inhibitory inputs dominate, the postsyn-



Translating...

aptic potential is brought farther than usual from threshold. If excitatory and inhibitory activity to the postsynaptic neuron is balanced, the membrane remains close to resting.

- Even though there are a number of different neurotransmitters, each synapse always releases the same neurotransmitter to produce a given response when combined with a particular receptor. (Review Table 4-2.)

- Synaptic pathways between neurons are incredibly complex, due to convergence of neuronal input and divergence of its output. Usually, many presynaptic inputs converge on a single neuron and jointly control its level of excitability. This same neuron, in turn, diverges to synapse with and influence the excitability of many other cells. (Review Figure 4-19.)

- Numerous factors may alter synaptic effectiveness: Some are built-in mechanisms to fine-tune neural responsiveness, for example presynaptic inhibition (Review Figure 4-18); some are pharmacologic manipulations to achieve a desired result; and some are caused by poisons or disease processes.

### Intercellular Communication and Signal Transduction (pp. 113–117)

- Intercellular communication is accomplished directly via (1) gap junctions or (2) transient direct linkup of cells' complementary surface markers. (Review Figure 4-20.)

- More commonly cells communicate indirectly with one another to carry out various coordinated activities by dispatching extracellular chemical messengers, which act on particular target cells to bring about the desired response. There are four types of extracellular chemical messengers, which differ in their source and in the distance and means by which they get to their site of action: (1) paracrines (local chemical messengers); (2) neurotransmitters (very short-range chemical messengers released by neurons); (3) hormones (long-range chemical messengers secreted into the blood by endocrine glands); and (4) neurohormones (long-range chemical messengers secreted into the blood by neurosecretory neurons). (Review Figure 4-20.)

- Transfer of the signal carried by the extracellular messenger into the cell for execution is known as signal transduction.

- Attachment of an extracellular chemical messenger that cannot gain entry to the cell, such as a protein hormone (the first messenger), to a membrane triggers cellular responses by: (1) opening receptor-channels; (2) activating receptor-enzymes, such as tyrosine kinase; or (3) activating an intracellular second messenger via G-protein-coupled receptors. (Review Figures 4-21 and 4-22.)

### Introduction to Hormonal Communication (pp. 117–129)

- Hormones are long-distance chemical messengers secreted by the endocrine glands into the blood, which transports them to specific target sites where they control a particular function by altering protein activity within the target cells.

- Hormones are grouped into two categories based on their solubility differences: (1) hydrophilic (water-soluble) hormones, which include peptides (the majority of hormones) and catecholamines (secreted by the adrenal medulla); and (2) lipophilic (lipid-soluble) hormones, which include steroid hormones (the sex hormones and those secreted by the adrenal cortex) and thyroid hormone. (Review Table 4-4.)

- Hydrophilic peptide hormones are synthesized and packaged for export by the endoplasmic reticulum/Golgi complex, stored in secretory vesicles, and released by exocytosis on appropriate stimulation. They dissolve freely in the blood for transport to their target cells.

- At their target cells, hydrophilic hormones bind with surface membrane receptors, triggering a chain of intracellular events by means of a second-messenger pathway that ultimately alters preexisting cell proteins, usually enzymes, leading to the target cell's response to the hormone. (Review Figures 4-24 and 4-25.) Through this cascade of reactions, the initial signal is greatly amplified. (Review Figure 4-26.)

- Steroids are synthesized by modifications of stored cholesterol through enzymes specific for each steroidogenic tissue. Steroids are not stored in the endocrine cells. Being lipophilic, they diffuse out through the lipid membrane barrier as soon as they are synthesized. Control of steroids is directed at their synthesis.

- Lipophilic steroids and thyroid hormone are both transported in the blood largely bound to carrier plasma proteins, with only free, unbound hormone being biologically active.

- Lipophilic hormones readily cross the lipid membrane barriers of their target cells and bind with receptors inside the cell. Once the hormone binds with the receptor, the hormone receptor complex binds with DNA and activates a gene, which leads to the synthesis of new enzymatic or structural intracellular proteins that carry out the hormone's effect on the target cell. (Review Figure 4-27.)

### Comparison of the Nervous and Endocrine Systems (pp. 126–129)

- The nervous and endocrine systems are the two main regulatory systems of the body. (Review Table 4-5.) The nervous system is anatomically "wired" to its target organs, whereas the "wireless" endocrine system secretes blood-borne hormones that reach distant target organs.

- Specificity of neural action depends on the anatomic proximity of the neurotransmitter-releasing neuronal terminal to its target organ. Specificity of endocrine action depends on specialization of target cell receptors for a specific circulating hormone.

- In general, the nervous system coordinates rapid responses, whereas the endocrine system regulates activities that require duration rather than speed.

## 5 Study Card

### Organization and Cells of the Nervous System (pp. 133–139)

- The nervous system consists of the central nervous system (CNS), which includes the brain and spinal cord, and the peripheral nervous system, which includes the nerve fibers carrying information to (afferent division) and from (efferent division) the CNS. (Review Figure 5-1.)

- Three functional classes of neurons—afferent neurons, efferent neurons, and interneurons—compose the excitable cells of the nervous system. (Review Figure 5-2.) (1) Afferent neu-

- Ultimate responsibility for many discrete functions is localized in particular regions of the cortex as follows: (1) the occipital lobes house the visual cortex; (2) the auditory cortex is in the temporal lobes; (3) the parietal lobes are responsible for reception and perceptual processing of somatosensory (somesthetic and proprioceptive) input; and (4) voluntary motor movement is set into motion by the motor areas in the frontal lobes. (Review Figures 5-8 through 5-10.)

- Language ability depends on the integrated activity of two primary language areas—Broca's area and Wernicke's area—typically located only in the left cerebral hemisphere. (Review

rons inform the CNS about conditions in both the external and internal environment. (2) Efferent neurons carry instructions from the CNS to effector organs, namely, muscles and glands. (3) Interneurons are responsible for integrating afferent information and formulating an efferent response, as well as for all higher mental functions associated with the "mind."

- Glial cells form the connective tissue within the CNS and physically, metabolically, and functionally support the neurons. The four types of glial cells are astrocytes, oligodendrocytes, microglia, and ependymal cells. (Review Figures 5-3 and 5-4 and Table 5-1.)

#### Protection and Nourishment of the Brain (pp. 139–141)

- The brain is provided with several protective devices, which is important because neurons cannot divide to replace damaged cells. (1) The brain is wrapped in three layers of protective membranes—the meninges—and is further surrounded by a hard, bony covering. (2) Cerebrospinal fluid flows within and around the brain to cushion it against physical jarring. (Review Figure 5-6.) (3) Protection against chemical injury is conferred by a blood–brain barrier that limits access of blood-borne substances to the brain.
- The brain depends on a constant blood supply for delivery of O<sub>2</sub> and glucose because it cannot generate ATP in the absence of either of these substances.

#### Overview of the Central Nervous System (pp. 141–143)

- The parts of the brain from the lowest, most primitive level to the highest, most sophisticated level are the brain stem, cerebellum, hypothalamus, thalamus, basal nuclei, and cerebral cortex. (Review Table 5-2 and Figure 5-7.)

#### Cerebral Cortex (pp. 143–153)

- The cerebral cortex is the outer shell of gray matter that caps an underlying core of white matter. The cortex itself consists primarily of neuronal cell bodies, dendrites, and glial cells. The white matter consists of bundles of nerve fibers that interconnect various areas. (Review Figure 5-14.)

Figures 5-9 and 5-11.)

- The association areas are regions of the cortex not specifically assigned to processing sensory input or commanding motor output or language ability. These areas provide an integrative link between diverse sensory information and purposeful action; they also play a key role in higher brain functions such as memory and decision making. The association areas include the prefrontal association cortex, the parietal-temporal-occipital association cortex, and the limbic association cortex. (Review Figures 5-9 and 5-12.)

#### Basal Nuclei, Thalamus, and Hypothalamus (pp. 153–155)

- The subcortical brain structures include the basal nuclei, thalamus, and hypothalamus. (Review Figures 5-14 and 5-15 and Table 5-2.)
- The basal nuclei inhibit muscle tone; coordinate slow, sustained postural contractions; and suppress useless patterns of movement.
- The thalamus serves as a relay station for preliminary processing of sensory input. It also accomplishes a crude awareness of sensation and some degree of consciousness.
- The hypothalamus regulates body temperature, thirst, urine output, and food intake; extensively controls the autonomic nervous system and endocrine system; and is part of the limbic system.

#### Emotion, Behavior, and Motivation (pp. 155–157)

- The limbic system, which includes portions of the hypothalamus and other structures that encircle the brain stem, plays an important role in emotion, basic behavioral patterns, motivation, and learning. (Review Figure 5-16.)
- *Emotion* refers to subjective feelings and moods and the physical responses associated with these feelings.
- Basic behavioral patterns triggered by the limbic system are aimed at survival (such as attack) and perpetuation of the species (such as mating behavior). Higher cortical centers can reinforce, modify, or suppress these basic behaviors.

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- *Motivation* is the ability to direct behavior toward specific goals.
- Norepinephrine, dopamine, and serotonin are the key neurotransmitters in pathways for emotions and behavior.

#### Learning and Memory (pp. 157–165)

- *Learning* refers to acquiring knowledge or skills as a result of experience, instruction, or both. *Memory* is storage of acquired knowledge for later recall and use.
- There are two types of memory: (1) a short-term memory with limited capacity and brief retention, coded by modification of activity at preexisting synapses; and (2) a long-term memory with large storage capacity and enduring retention, involving relatively permanent structural or functional changes, such as the formation of new synapses between existing neurons. Enhanced protein synthesis underlies these long-term changes. (Review Table 5-3 and Figure 5-17.)
- *Consolidation* is the transfer of short-term memory to long-term memory. Long-term potentiation, a prolonged increase in the strength of existing synaptic connections in activated pathways, might be the link between short-term memory and consolidation of long-term memory. (Review Figure 5-18.)
- The hippocampus and associated structures are especially important in declarative, or "what," memories of specific objects, facts, and events. The cerebellum and associated structures are especially important in procedural, or "how to," memories of motor skills gained through repetitive training.
- The prefrontal association cortex is the site of working memory, which temporarily holds currently relevant data—both new information and knowledge retrieved from memory stores—and manipulates and relates them to accomplish the higher-reasoning processes of the brain.

- *Consciousness* is the subjective awareness of the external world and self. The states of consciousness in decreasing order of arousal level are (1) maximum alertness, (2) wakefulness, (3) several types of sleep, and (4) coma.

- The prevailing state of consciousness depends on the cyclical interplay among an arousal system (the reticular activating system) originating in the brain stem and commanded by hypocretin-secreting neurons in the hypothalamus, (2) a slow-wave sleep center consisting of sleep-on neurons in the hypothalamus, and (3) an REM sleep center consisting of REM sleep-on neurons in the brain stem. (Review Figure 5-21.)

- Sleep is an active process, not just the absence of wakefulness. While sleeping, a person cyclically alternates between slow-wave sleep and paradoxical (REM) sleep. (Review Figure 5-23 and Table 5-4.) *Slow-wave sleep* is characterized by slow waves on the EEG and little change in behavior pattern from the waking state except for not being consciously aware of the external world. *Paradoxical, or REM, sleep* is characterized by an EEG pattern similar to that of an alert, awake individual; rapid eye movements, dreaming, and abrupt changes in behavior pattern occur. (Review Figure 5-22.)

- The leading theories of why we need sleep fall into the categories of (1) restoration and recovery and (2) memory consolidation.

#### Spinal Cord (pp. 172–179)

- Extending from the brain stem, the spinal cord descends through a canal formed by surrounding protective vertebrae. (Review Figures 5-24 and 5-25.)
- The spinal cord has two functions. (1) It serves as the neuronal link between the brain and the peripheral nervous system. All communication up and down the spinal cord is located in ascending and descending tracts in the cord's outer

### Cerebellum (pp. 166–167)

- The cerebellum, attached at the back of the brain stem beneath the cortex, consists of three functionally distinct parts. (Review Figure 5-19.)
- The *vestibulocerebellum* helps maintain balance and controls eye movements. The *spinocerebellum* enhances muscle tone and helps coordinate voluntary movement, especially fast, phasic motor activities. The *cerebrocerebellum* plays a role in initiating voluntary movement and in storing procedural memories.

### Brain Stem (pp. 167–172)

- The brain stem is an important link between the spinal cord and higher brain levels.
- The brain stem is the origin of the cranial nerves. (Review Figure 5-20.) It also contains centers that control cardiovascular, respiratory, and digestive function; regulates postural muscle reflexes; controls the overall degree of cortical alertness; and plays a key role in the sleep–wake cycle.

white matter. (Review Figures 5-27 and 5-28.) (2) It is the integrating center for spinal reflexes, including some basic protective and postural reflexes and those involved with the emptying of the pelvic organs. (Review Figures 5-31 and 5-32.)

- The basic reflex arc includes a receptor, an afferent pathway, an integrating center, an efferent pathway, and an effector. (Review Figure 5-31.)
- The centrally located gray matter of the spinal cord contains the interneurons interposed between the afferent input and efferent output as well as the cell bodies of efferent neurons. (Review Figures 5-26 and 5-29.)
- A nerve is a bundle of peripheral neuronal axons, both afferent and efferent, wrapped in connective tissue and following the same pathway. (Review Figure 5-30.) Spinal nerves supply specific body regions and are attached to the spinal cord in paired fashion throughout its length. (Review Figures 5-24, 5-25, and 5-26.)
- The 31 pairs of spinal nerves along with the 12 pairs of cranial nerves that arise from the brain stem constitute the peripheral nervous system. (Review Figures 5-21 and 5-25.)

## 6 Study Card

■ The afferent division of the PNS carries information about the internal and external environment to the CNS.

■ Sensory receptors are specialized peripheral endings of afferent neurons. (Review Figure 6-1.) Each type of receptor (photoreceptor, mechanoreceptor, thermoreceptor, osmoreceptor, chemoreceptor, or nociceptor) responds to its adequate stimulus (a change in the energy form, or modality, to which it is responsive), translating the energy form of the stimulus into electrical signals.

■ A stimulus typically brings about a graded, depolarizing receptor potential by opening nonspecific cation channels, which leads to net Na entry. Receptor potentials, if of sufficient magnitude, ultimately generate action potentials in the afferent fiber next to the receptor. These action potentials self-propagate along the afferent fiber to the CNS. (Review Figures 6-1 and 6-2.) The strength of the stimulus determines the magnitude of the receptor potential, which in turn determines the frequency of action potentials generated. (Review Figure 6-3 and Table 6-1.)

■ The magnitude of the receptor potential is also influenced by the extent of receptor adaptation, which is a reduction in receptor potential despite sustained stimulation. (1) Tonic receptors adapt slowly or not at all and thus provide continuous information about the stimuli they monitor. (2) Phasic receptors adapt rapidly and frequently exhibit off responses, thereby providing information about changes in the energy form they monitor. (Review Figure 6-4.)

■ Visceral afferent information remains mostly subconscious. Sensory afferent information reaches the level of conscious awareness, including (1) somatic sensation (somesthetic sensation and proprioception) and (2) special senses.

■ Discrete labeled-line pathways lead from the receptors to the CNS so that information about the type and location of stimuli can be deciphered by the CNS. (Review Table 6-1.)

■ The term *receptive field* refers to the area surrounding a receptor within which the receptor can detect stimuli. The acuity, or discriminative ability, of a body region varies inversely with the size of its receptive fields and also depends on the extent of lateral inhibition in the afferent pathways arising from receptors in the region. (Review Figures 6-6 and 6-7.)

■ Perception is the conscious interpretation of the external world that the brain creates from sensory input. What the brain perceives from its input is an abstraction and not reality. (Review Figures 6-8 and 6-9.) The only stimuli that can be detected are those for which receptors are present. Furthermore, as sensory signals ascend through progressively more complex processing, some of the information may be suppressed, whereas other parts of it may be enhanced.

### Pain (pp. 191–194)

■ Painful experiences are elicited by noxious mechanical, thermal, or chemical stimuli and consist of two components: the perception of pain coupled with emotional and behavioral responses to it.

■ The three categories of pain receptors are mechanical, thermal, and polymodal nociceptors. The latter respond to all kinds of damaging stimuli, including chemicals released from injured tissues.

■ Pain signals are transmitted over two afferent pathways: a fast pathway that carries sharp, pricking pain signals; and a slow pathway that carries dull, aching, persistent pain signals. (Review Table 6-2.)

■ Afferent pain fibers terminate in the spinal cord on ascending pathways that transmit the signal to the brain for processing. Descending pathways from the brain use endogenous opiates to suppress the release of substance P, a pain-signaling neurotransmitter from the afferent pain-fiber terminal. Thus, these descending pathways block further transmission of the pain signal and serve as a built-in analgesic system. (Review Figure 6-10.)

### Eye: Vision (pp. 195–213)

■ Light is a form of electromagnetic radiation, with visible light being only a small band in the total electromagnetic spectrum. (Review Figures 6-14 and 6-15.)

■ The eye houses the light-sensitive photoreceptors essential for vision—the rods and cones found in its retinal layer. (Review Table 6-4, and Figures 6-11, 6-23, and 6-26.)

■ The iris controls the size of the pupil to adjust the amount of light permitted to enter the eye. (Review Figure 6-13.)

■ The cornea and lens are the primary refractive structures that bend incoming light rays to focus the image on the retina. The cornea contributes most to the total refractive ability of the eye. The strength of the lens can be adjusted through action of the ciliary muscle to accommodate for differences in near and far vision. (Review Figures 6-16 through 6-22.)

■ Rods and cones have three parts: a photopigment-containing outer segment, a metabolically specialized inner segment, and a neurotransmitter-secreting synaptic terminal. (Review Figures 6-23, 6-26, and 6-27.)

■ Rods and cones secrete neurotransmitter in the dark. They are activated when their photopigments differentially absorb various wavelengths of light. Photopigments consist of opsin, a membrane protein, and retinal, a vitamin A derivative. During phototransduction, light absorption by retinal causes a biochemical change in the photopigment that, through a series of steps, hyperpolarizes the photoreceptor, leading to decreased neurotransmitter release. Further retinal processing by on-center and off-center bipolar and ganglion cells eventually

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converts this light-induced signal into a change in the rate of action potential propagation in the visual pathway leaving the retina. (Review Figures 6-26, 6-27, and 6-28.)

- Cones display high acuity but can be used only for day vision because of their low sensitivity to light. Different ratios of stimulation of three cone types by varying wavelengths of light lead to color vision. (Review Figure 6-29 and Table 6-3.)
- Rods provide only indistinct vision in shades of gray, but because they are very sensitive to light, they can be used for night vision. (Review Table 6-3.)
- The visual message is transmitted via a complex crossed and uncrossed pathway to the visual cortex in the occipital lobe of the brain for perceptual processing. (Review Figure 6-31.)

### Ear: Hearing and Equilibrium (pp. 213–228)

- The ear performs two unrelated functions: (1) hearing, which involves the external ear, middle ear, and cochlea of the inner ear; and (2) sense of equilibrium, which involves the vestibular apparatus of the inner ear. The ear receptor cells located in the inner ear—the hair cells in the cochlea and vestibular apparatus—are mechanoreceptors. (Review Table 6-6 and Figure 6-32.)
- Hearing depends on the ear's ability to convert airborne sound waves into mechanical deformations of auditory hair cells, thereby initiating neural signals. Sound waves consist of high-pressure regions of compression alternating with low-pressure regions of rarefaction of air molecules. The pitch (tone) of a sound is determined by the frequency of its waves, the loudness (intensity) by the amplitude of the waves, and the timbre (quality) by its characteristic overtones. (Review Figures 6-33 and 6-34 and Table 6-5.)
- Sound waves are funneled through the ear canal to the tympanic membrane, which vibrates in synchrony with the waves. Middle ear bones bridging the gap between the tympanic membrane and the inner ear amplify the tympanic movements and transmit them to the oval window, whose movement sets up traveling waves in the cochlear fluid. (Review Figures 6-35 and 6-36.)
- These waves, which are at the same frequency as the original sound waves, set the basilar membrane in motion. Various regions of this membrane selectively vibrate more vigorously in response to different frequencies of sound. The narrow, stiff end of the basilar membrane near the oval window vibrates best with high-frequency pitches, and the wide, flexible end near the helicotrema vibrates best with low-frequency pitches. (Review Figure 6-36.)
- On top of the basilar membrane are the receptive inner hair cells of the organ of Corti, whose stereocilia ("hairs") are bent as the basilar membrane is deflected up and down in relation to the overhanging stationary tectorial membrane, which the hairs contact. (Review Figures 6-35, 6-37, and 6-38.)

- Pitch discrimination depends on which region of the basilar membrane naturally vibrates maximally with a given frequency. Loudness discrimination depends on the amplitude of the vibrations. Hair bending in the region of maximal basilar membrane vibration is transduced into neural signals that are transmitted to the auditory cortex in the temporal lobe of the brain for sound perception. (Review Figure 6-39.)
- The vestibular apparatus in the inner ear consists of (1) the semicircular canals, which detect rotational acceleration or deceleration in any direction; and (2) the utricle and the saccule, which collectively detect changes in the rate of linear movement in any direction and provide information important for determining head position in relation to gravity. Neural signals are generated in response to the mechanical deformation of vestibular hair cells by specific movement of fluid and related structures within these vestibular sense organs. (Review Figures 6-41 and 6-42.)
- Vestibular input goes to the vestibular nuclei in the brain stem and to the cerebellum for use in maintaining balance and posture, controlling eye movement, and perceiving motion and orientation. (Review Figure 6-43.)

### Chemical Senses: Taste and Smell (pp. 227–232)

- Taste and smell are chemical senses. In both cases, attachment of specific dissolved molecules to binding sites on the receptor membrane causes receptor potentials that, in turn, set up neural impulses signaling the presence of the chemical.
- Taste receptors are housed in taste buds on the tongue; olfactory receptors are located in the olfactory mucosa in the upper part of the nasal cavity. (Review Figures 6-44 and 6-45.)
- Both sensory pathways include two routes: one to the limbic system for emotional and behavioral processing and one to the cortex for conscious perception and fine discrimination.
- Taste and olfactory receptors are continuously renewed, unlike visual and hearing receptors, which are irreplaceable.
- The five primary tastes are salty, sour, sweet, bitter, and umami (a meaty, "amino-acid" taste). Taste discrimination beyond the primary tastes depends on the patterns of stimulation of the taste buds, each of which responds in varying degrees to the different primary tastes. Salty and sour tastants bring about receptor potentials in taste buds by directly affecting membrane channels, whereas the other three categories of tastants act through second-messenger pathways to bring about receptor potentials.
- There are 1000 different types of olfactory receptors, each of which responds to only one discrete component of an odor, an odorant. Odorants act through second-messenger pathways to trigger receptor potentials. The afferent signals arising from the olfactory receptors are sorted according to scent component by the glomeruli within the olfactory bulb. Odor discrimination depends on the patterns of activation of the glomeruli. (Review Figure 6-46.)

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## 7 CHAPTER 7 Autonomic Nervous System (pp. 246–266) Study Card

- The CNS controls muscles and glands by transmitting signals to these effector organs through the efferent division of the PNS. (Review Table 7-1.)
- There are two types of efferent output: the autonomic nervous system, which is under involuntary control and supplies cardiac and smooth muscle as well as most exocrine and some endocrine glands; and the somatic nervous system, which is subject to voluntary control and supplies skeletal muscle. (Review Table 7-6, p. 247, and Table 7-7, p. 248.)

- All preganglionic fibers and parasympathetic postganglionic fibers release acetylcholine (ACh). Sympathetic postganglionic fibers release norepinephrine (NE). (Review Figure 7-2 and Tables 7-2 and 7-4.)
- Postganglionic fibers have numerous swellings, or varicosities, that simultaneously release neurotransmitter over a large area of the innervated organ. (Review Figures 7-1 and 8-32, p. 297.)
- The adrenal medulla, an endocrine gland, is a modified sympathetic ganglion that secretes the hormones epinephrine and to a lesser extent norepinephrine into the blood in re-

- The autonomic nervous system consists of two subdivisions—the sympathetic and parasympathetic nervous systems. (Review Figures 7-2 and 7-3 and Tables 7-3 and 7-5.)
- An autonomic nerve pathway consists of a two-neuron chain. The preganglionic fiber originates in the CNS and synapses with the cell body of the postganglionic fiber in a ganglion outside the CNS. The postganglionic fiber ends on the effector organ. (Review Figures 7-1, 7-2, and 7-3 and Table 7-5.)

response to stimulation by the sympathetic preganglionic fiber that innervates it. (Review Figure 7-2.)

- The same neurotransmitter elicits different responses in different tissues. Thus, the response depends on specialization of the tissue cells, not on the properties of the messenger. (Review Table 7-4.)

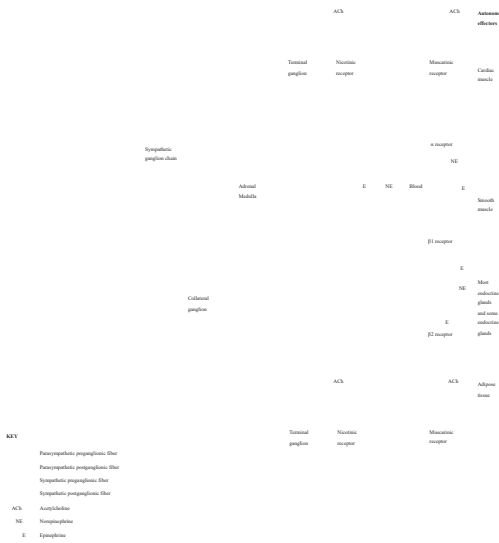
■ Tissues innervated by the autonomic nervous system possess one or more of several different receptor types for the postganglionic chemical messengers (and for the related adrenomedullary hormone epinephrine). Cholinergic receptors include nicotinic and muscarinic receptors; adrenergic receptors include  $\alpha_1$ ,  $\alpha_2$ ,  $\beta_1$ , and  $\beta_2$  receptors. (Review Figure 7-2 and Tables 7-3, 7-4, and 7-5.)

■ A given autonomic fiber either excites or inhibits activity in the organ it innervates. (Review Tables 7-3 and 7-4.)

■ Most visceral organs are innervated by both sympathetic and parasympathetic fibers, which in general produce opposite effects in a particular organ. Dual innervation of organs by both branches of the autonomic nervous system permits precise control over an organ's activity. (Review Figure 7-3 and Table 7-3.)

■ The sympathetic system dominates in emergency or stressful ("fight-or-flight") situations and promotes responses that prepare the body for strenuous physical activity. The parasympathetic system dominates in quiet, relaxed ("rest-and-digest") situations and promotes body-maintenance activities such as digestion. (Review Tables 7-3 and 7-5.)

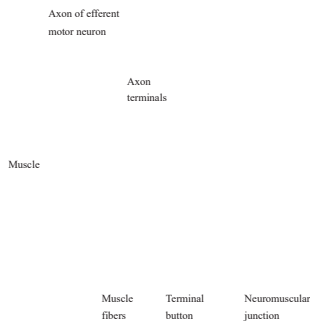
■ Visceral afferent input is used by the CNS to direct appropriate autonomic output to maintain homeostasis. Autonomic activities are controlled by multiple areas of the CNS, including the spinal cord, medulla, hypothalamus, and prefrontal association cortex.



Somatic Nervous System (p. 246)

- The somatic nervous system consists of the axons of motor neurons, which originate in the spinal cord or brain stem and end on skeletal muscle. (Review Figure 7-4 and Table 7-6.)
- ACh, the neurotransmitter released from a motor neuron, stimulates muscle contraction.
- Motor neurons are the final common pathway by which various regions of the CNS exert control over skeletal muscle activity. The areas of the CNS that influence skeletal muscle activity by acting through the motor neurons are the spinal cord, motor regions of the cortex, basal nuclei, cerebellum, and brain stem.

Spinal cord (section)



Neuromuscular Junction (pp. 246–253)

- When a motor neuron reaches a muscle, it branches into axon terminals. Each axon terminal forms a neuromuscular

■ An action potential in the axon terminal causes the release of ACh from its storage vesicles in the terminal button. The released ACh diffuses across the space separating the nerve and muscle cells and binds to special receptor-channels on the underlying motor end plate. This binding triggers the opening of these nonspecific cation channels. The subsequent ion movements depolarize the motor end plate, producing the end-plate potential (EPP). (Review Figure 7-5.)

■ Local current flow between the depolarized end plate and adjacent muscle cell membrane brings these adjacent areas to threshold, initiating an action potential that is propagated throughout the muscle fiber. This muscle action potential triggers muscle contraction. (Review Figure 7-5.)

■ Membrane-bound acetylcholinesterase in the motor end plate inactivates ACh, ending the EPP and, subsequently, the action potential and resultant contraction. (Review Figure 7-5.)



junction with a single muscle cell (fiber). The axon terminal splits into multiple fine branches, each of which ends in an enlarged terminal button. (Review Figure 7-4 and Table 7-8.)

■ The specialized region of the muscle cell membrane underlying the axon-terminal complex is called the motor end plate. Because these structures do not make direct contact, signals are passed between a terminal button and muscle fiber by chemical means. (Review Figure 7-5.)



## 8 Structure of Skeletal Muscle Study Card

- Muscles, contraction specialists, can develop tension, shorten, produce movement, and accomplish work.
- The three types of muscle are categorized in two different ways according to common characteristics. (1) Skeletal muscle and cardiac muscle are striated, whereas smooth muscle is unstriated. (2) Skeletal muscle is voluntary, whereas cardiac muscle and smooth muscle are involuntary. (Review Figure 8-1 and Table 8-3, pp. 290–291.)
- Skeletal muscles are made up of bundles of long, cylindrical muscle cells known as muscle fibers, wrapped in connective tissue. Muscle fibers are packed with myofibrils, each myofibril consisting of alternating, slightly overlapping stacked sets of thick and thin filaments. This arrangement leads to a skeletal muscle fiber's striated microscopic appearance, which consists of alternating dark A bands and light I bands. A sarcomere, the area between two Z lines, is the functional unit of skeletal muscle. (Review Figures 8-2 and 8-3.)
- Thick filaments consist of the protein myosin. Cross bridges made up of the myosin molecules' globular heads project from each thick filament toward the surrounding thin filaments. (Review Figures 8-2 and 8-4.)
- Thin filaments consist primarily of the protein actin, which can bind and interact with the myosin cross bridges to bring about contraction. In the resting state two other proteins, tropomyosin and troponin, lie across the surface of the thin filament to prevent this cross-bridge interaction. (Review Figures 8-2 and 8-5.)

### Molecular Basis of Skeletal Muscle Contraction (pp. 261–268)

- Excitation of a skeletal muscle fiber by its motor neuron brings about contraction through a series of events that results in the thin filaments sliding closer together between the thick filaments. (Review Figure 8-7.)
- This sliding filament mechanism of muscle contraction is switched on by  $Ca^{2+}$  release from the lateral sacs of the sarcoplasmic reticulum in response to the spread of a muscle fiber action potential into the central portions of the fiber via the T tubules. (Review Figures 8-9, 8-10, and 8-11.)
- Released  $Ca^{2+}$  binds to troponin, slightly repositioning tropomyosin to uncover actin's cross-bridge binding sites. (Review Figures 8-6 and 8-11.)
- Binding of actin to a myosin cross bridge triggers cross-bridge stroking, powered by energy stored in the myosin head from prior splitting of ATP by myosin ATPase. During a power stroke the cross bridge bends toward the thick filament's center, "rowing" in the thin filament to which it is attached. (Review Figures 8-8, 8-11, and 8-12.)

- When a fresh ATP attaches to the cross bridge, myosin and actin detach, the cross bridge returns to its original shape, and the cycle is repeated. Repeated cycles of cross-bridge activity slide the thin filaments inward step by step. (Review Figures 8-8 and 8-12.)
- When the action potential ends, the lateral sacs actively take up the  $Ca^{2+}$ , troponin and tropomyosin slip back into their blocking position, and relaxation occurs. (Review Figure 8-11.)
- The entire contractile response lasts about 100 times longer than the action potential. (Review Figure 8-13.)

### Skeletal Muscle Mechanics (pp. 268–276)

- Tension is generated within a muscle by the contractile component (sarcomere shortening brought about by cross-bridge cycling). To move the bone to which the muscle is inserted, this internal tension is transmitted to the bone as the contractile component stretches and tightens the muscle's series-elastic component (intracellular titin, connective tissue, tendon). (Review Figure 8-14.)
- Gradation of whole-muscle contraction can be accomplished by (1) varying the number of muscle fibers contracting within the muscle and (2) varying the tension developed by each contracting fiber. (Review Table 8-2, p. 283.)
- The number of fibers contracting depends on (1) size of the muscle (number of muscle fibers present), (2) extent of motor unit recruitment (how many motor neurons supplying the muscle are active), and (3) size of each motor unit (how many muscle fibers are activated simultaneously by a single motor neuron). (Review Figures 8-16 and 8-17 and Table 8-2.)
- Two variable factors that affect fiber tension are (1) frequency of stimulation, which determines the extent of twitch summation; and (2) length of the fiber before the onset of contraction (length-tension relationship). (Review Table 8-2.)
- Twitch summation is the increase in tension accompanying repetitive stimulation of a muscle fiber. After undergoing an action potential, the muscle cell membrane recovers from its refractory period and can be restimulated while some contractile activity triggered by the first action potential still remains so that the twitches induced by the two rapidly successive action potentials sum. If the muscle fiber is stimulated so rapidly that it does not have a chance to start relaxing between stimuli, a smooth, sustained maximal contraction known as tetanus occurs. (Review Figure 8-18.)
- The tension also depends on the length of the fiber at the onset of contraction. At optimal length ( $l_0$ ) (the resting muscle length), there is maximal opportunity for cross-bridge interaction, because of optimal overlap of thick and thin filaments, so the greatest tension can develop. Less tension can develop at shorter or longer lengths. (Review Figure 8-19.)

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- The two primary types of muscle contraction—**isometric** (constant length) and **isotonic** (constant tension)—depend on the relationship between muscle tension and the load (the weight of an object being lifted). (1) If tension is less than the load, the muscle cannot shorten and lift the object but remains at constant length (an isometric contraction). (2) If the tension exceeds the load, the muscle can shorten and lift the object, maintaining constant tension while shortening (isotonic contraction).
- The velocity, or speed, of shortening is inversely proportional to the load. (Review Figure 8-20.)
- The amount of work accomplished by a contracting muscle equals the magnitude of the load times the distance the load is moved. The amount of energy consumed by a contracting muscle that is realized as external work varies from 0% to 25%; the remaining energy is converted to heat. (Review Figure 8-20.)

#### Skeletal Muscle Metabolism and Fiber Types (pp. 276–281)

- Three pathways furnish the ATP needed for muscle contraction and relaxation: (1) the transfer of high-energy phosphates from stored creatine phosphate to ADP, providing the first source of ATP at the onset of exercise; (2) oxidative phosphorylation, which efficiently extracts large amounts of ATP from nutrients if enough O<sub>2</sub> is available to support this system; and (3) glycolysis, which can synthesize ATP in the absence of O<sub>2</sub> but uses large amounts of stored glycogen and produces lactate in the process. (Review Figure 8-22.)
- The three types of skeletal muscle fibers are classified by the pathways they use for ATP synthesis (oxidative or glycolytic) and the rapidity with which they split ATP and subsequently contract (slow twitch or fast twitch): (1) slow-oxidative fibers, (2) fast-oxidative fibers, and (3) fast-glycolytic fibers. (Review Table 8-1.)

#### Control of Motor Movement (pp. 281–289)

- Control of motor movement depends on activity in the three types of presynaptic inputs that converge on the motor neurons supplying various muscles: (1) spinal reflex pathways, which originate with afferent neurons; (2) the corticospinal (pyramidal) motor system, which originates in the primary motor cortex and is concerned with discrete, intricate movements of the hands; and (3) the multineuronal (extrapyramidal) motor system, which originates in the brain stem and is involved with postural adjustments and involuntary movements of the trunk and limbs. The final motor output from the brain stem is influenced by the cerebellum, basal nuclei, and cerebral cortex. (Review Figure 8-23.)
- Establishment and adjustment of motor commands depend on continuous afferent input, especially feedback about changes in muscle length (monitored by muscle spindles) and muscle tension (monitored by Golgi tendon organs). (Review Figure 8-24.)

- When a whole muscle is stretched, the stretch of its muscle spindles triggers the stretch reflex, which results in reflex contraction of that muscle. This reflex resists any passive changes in muscle length. (Review Figures 8-25 and 8-26.)

#### Smooth and Cardiac Muscle (pp. 289–299)

- Smooth muscle cells are spindle shaped and much smaller than skeletal muscle fibers. The thick and thin filaments of smooth muscle are oriented diagonally in a diamond-shaped lattice instead of running longitudinally, so the fibers are not striated. (Review Figures 8-27 and 8-28.)
- In smooth muscle, cytosolic Ca<sup>2+</sup>, which enters from the ECF and is also released from sparse intracellular stores, activates cross-bridge cycling by initiating a series of biochemical reactions that result in phosphorylation of the light chains of the myosin cross bridges to enable them to bind with actin. (Review Figures 8-29 and 8-30.)
- Smooth muscle in different organs is highly diversified and can be classified in various ways: phasic or tonic, multiunit or single-unit, and neurogenic or myogenic.
- Phasic smooth muscle displays bursts of pronounced contraction in response to action potentials. Tonic smooth muscle is partially contracted at all times in the absence of action potentials because of ongoing Ca<sup>2+</sup> entry through open surface-membrane Ca<sup>2+</sup> channels.
- Multiunit smooth muscle is neurogenic, requiring stimulation of individual muscle fibers by its autonomic nerve supply to trigger contraction. Single-unit smooth muscle is myogenic; it can initiate its own contraction. Phasic, single-unit smooth muscle spontaneously depolarizes to threshold as a result of pacemaker potentials or slow-wave potentials. Once an action potential is initiated, this electrical activity spreads by means of gap junctions to the surrounding cells within the functional syncytium, so the entire sheet becomes excited and contracts as a unit. (Review Figure 8-31 and Table 8-4.)
- The level of tension in smooth muscle depends on the level of cytosolic Ca<sup>2+</sup>. The autonomic nervous system (Review Figure 8-32), as well as hormones and local metabolites, can modify the rate and strength of contractions by altering cytosolic Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentration.
- Smooth muscle contractions are slow and energy efficient, enabling this type of muscle to economically sustain long-term contractions without fatigue. This economy, coupled with the fact that single-unit smooth muscle can exist at a variety of lengths with little change in tension, makes single-unit smooth muscle ideally suited for its task of forming the walls of hollow organs that can distend.
- Cardiac muscle is found only in the heart. It has highly organized striated fibers, like skeletal muscle. Like single-unit smooth muscle, some cardiac muscle fibers can generate action potentials, which are spread throughout the heart with the aid of gap junctions. (Review Table 8-3.)

## 9 Anatomy of the Heart Study Card

- The circulatory system is the transport system of the body.
- The three basic components of the circulatory system are the heart (the pump), the blood vessels (the passageways), and the blood (the transport medium).
- The heart is positioned midline in the thoracic cavity at an angle with its wide base lying toward the right and its pointed apex toward the left.
- The heart is basically a dual pump that provides the driving pressure for blood flow through the pulmonary circula-

of inherent changes in ion movement across the membrane. The first half of the pacemaker potential results from opening of unique funny channels that permit entry of Na at the same time K channels slowly close so that exit of K slowly declines. Both of these actions gradually depolarize the membrane toward threshold. The final boost to threshold results from Ca<sup>2+</sup> entry on opening of T-type Ca<sup>2+</sup> channels. The rising phase of the action potential is the result of further Ca<sup>2+</sup> entry on opening of L-type Ca<sup>2+</sup> channels at threshold. The falling phase results from K efflux on opening of K channels at the peak of the action potential. Slow closure of these K channels at the end of repolarization contributes to the next pacemaker potential. (Review Figure 9-7.)

tion (between the heart and lungs) and systemic circulation (between the heart and other body systems). (Review Figures 9-1 and 9-2.)

- The heart has four chambers: Each half of the heart consists of an atrium, or venous input chamber, and a ventricle, or arterial output chamber. The right atrium receives O<sub>2</sub>-poor blood from the systemic circulation and the right ventricle pumps it into the pulmonary circulation. The left atrium receives O<sub>2</sub>-rich blood from the pulmonary circulation and pumps it into the systemic circulation. (Review Figures 9-1, 9-2, and 9-4.)
- Four heart valves direct blood in the right direction and keep it from flowing in the other direction. The right and left atrioventricular (AV) valves direct blood from the atria to the ventricles during diastole and prevent backflow of blood from the ventricles to the atria during systole. The aortic and pulmonary semilunar valves direct blood from the ventricles to the aorta and pulmonary artery, respectively, during systole and prevent backflow of blood from these major vessels to the ventricles during diastole. (Review Figures 9-3, 9-4, and 9-5.)
- Contraction of the spirally arranged cardiac muscle fibers produces a wringing effect important for efficient pumping. Also important for efficient pumping is that the muscle fibers in each chamber act as a functional syncytium, contracting as a coordinated unit. (Review Figure 9-6.)
- The branching cardiac muscle fibers are interconnected by intercalated discs, which contain (1) desmosomes that hold the cells together mechanically and (2) gap junctions that permit spread of electrical current between cells joined together as a functional syncytium. (Review Figure 9-6.)

**Electrical Activity of the Heart (pp. 309–321)**

- The heart is self-excitabile, initiating its own rhythmic contractions.
- Autorhythmic cells are 1% of the cardiac muscle cells; they do not contract but are specialized to initiate and conduct action potentials. The other 99% of cardiac cells are contractile cells that contract in response to the spread of an action potential initiated by autorhythmic cells.
- Autorhythmic cells display a pacemaker potential, a slow drift to threshold potential, as a result of a complex interplay

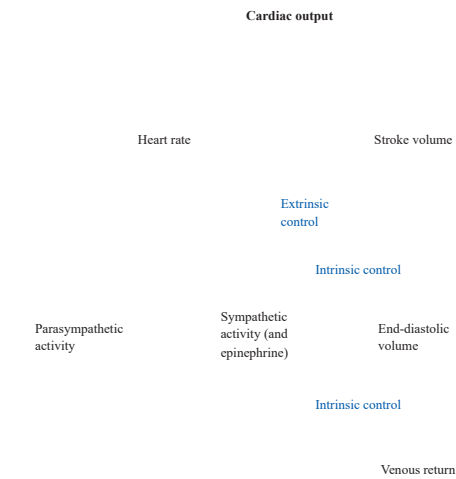
- The cardiac impulse originates at the SA node, the pacemaker of the heart, which has the fastest rate of spontaneous depolarization to threshold. (Review Table 9-1 and Figures 9-8 and 9-9.)

**Translating...**

- Once initiated, the action potential spreads throughout the right and left atria, partially facilitated by specialized conduction pathways but mostly by cell-to-cell spread of the impulse through gap junctions. (Review Figure 9-8.)
- The impulse passes from the atria into the ventricles through the AV node, the only point of electrical contact between these chambers. The action potential is delayed briefly at the AV node, ensuring that atrial contraction precedes ventricular contraction to allow complete ventricular filling. (Review Figure 9-8.)
- The impulse then travels rapidly down the interventricular septum via the bundle of His and rapidly disperses throughout the myocardium by means of the Purkinje fibers. The rest of the ventricular cells are activated by cell-to-cell spread of the impulse through gap junctions. (Review Figure 9-8.)
- Thus, the atria contract as a single unit, followed after a brief delay by a synchronized ventricular contraction.
- The action potentials of cardiac contractile cells exhibit a prolonged positive phase, or plateau, accompanied by a prolonged period of contraction, which ensures adequate ejection time. This plateau is primarily the result of activation of slow L-type Ca<sub>v</sub> channels. (Review Figure 9-10.)
- Ca<sub>v</sub> entry through the L-type channels in the T tubules triggers a much larger release of Ca<sub>v</sub> from the sarcoplasmic reticulum. This Ca<sub>v</sub>-induced Ca<sub>v</sub> release leads to cross-bridge cycling and contraction. (Review Figure 9-11.)
- Because a long refractory period occurs in conjunction with this prolonged plateau phase, summation and tetanus of cardiac muscle are impossible, ensuring the alternate periods of contraction and relaxation essential for pumping of blood. (Review Figure 9-12.)
- The spread of electrical activity throughout the heart can be recorded from the body surface. In this electrocardiogram (ECG), the P wave represents atrial depolarization; the QRS complex, ventricular depolarization; and the T wave, ventricular repolarization. (Review Figures 9-13, 9-14, and 9-15.)

**Mechanical Events of the Cardiac Cycle (pp. 321–324)**

- The cardiac cycle consists of three important events (Review Figure 9-16):
  1. The generation of electrical activity as the heart autorhythmically depolarizes and repolarizes (Review Figure 9-14.)
  2. Mechanical activity consisting of alternate periods of systole (contraction and emptying) and diastole (relaxation and filling), which are initiated by the rhythmic electrical cycle.
  3. Directional flow of blood through the heart chambers, guided by valve opening and closing induced by pressure changes that are generated by mechanical activity.
- The atrial pressure curve remains low throughout the entire cardiac cycle, with only minor fluctuations (normally varying between 0 and 8 mm Hg). The aortic pressure curve remains high the entire time, with moderate fluctuations (normally varying between a systolic pressure of 120 mm Hg and a diastolic pressure of 80 mm Hg). The ventricular pressure curve fluctuates dramatically, because ventricular pressure must be below the low atrial pressure during diastole to allow the AV valve to open for filling; and to force the aortic valve open to allow emptying, it must be above the high aortic pressure during systole. Therefore, ventricular pressure normally varies from 0 mm Hg during diastole to slightly more than 120 mm Hg during systole. During the periods of isovolumetric ventricular contraction and relaxation, ventricular pressure is above the low atrial pressure and below the high aortic pressure, so all valves are closed and no blood enters or leaves the ventricles. (Review Figure 9-16.)
- The end-diastolic volume is the volume of blood in the ventricle when filling is complete at the end of diastole. The end-systolic volume is the volume of blood remaining in the ventricle when ejection is complete at the end of systole. The stroke volume is the volume of blood pumped out by each ventricle each beat. (Review Figure 9-16.)



- Stroke volume depends on (1) the extent of ventricular filling, with an increased end-diastolic volume resulting in a larger stroke volume by means of the length–tension relationship (Frank–Starling law of the heart, a form of intrinsic control); and (2) the extent of sympathetic stimulation, with increased sympathetic stimulation resulting in increased contractility of the heart, that is, increased strength of contraction and increased stroke volume at a given end-diastolic volume (extrinsic control). (Review Figures 9-20 through 9-23.)
- The preload of the heart (the workload imposed on the heart before contraction begins) is the extent of filling. The



■ Valve closing gives rise to two normal heart sounds. The first heart sound is caused by closing of the AV valves and signals the onset of ventricular systole. The second heart sound is the result of closing of the aortic and pulmonary valves at the onset of diastole. (Review Figure 9-16.)

■ Defective valve function produces turbulent blood flow, which is audible as a heart murmur. Abnormal valves may be either stenotic and not open completely or insufficient and not close completely. (Review Figure 9-18 and Table 9-2.)

### Cardiac Output and Its Control (pp. 325–332)

■ Cardiac output, the volume of blood ejected by each ventricle each minute, is determined by heart rate times stroke volume. (Review Figure 9-24.)

■ Heart rate is varied by altering the balance of parasympathetic and sympathetic influence on the SA node. Parasympathetic stimulation slows the heart rate, and sympathetic stimulation speeds it up. (Review Figure 9-19 and Table 9-3.)

afterload of the heart (the workload imposed on the heart after contraction has begun) is the arterial blood pressure.

### Translating the Heart Muscle (pp. 332–338)

■ Cardiac muscle is supplied with oxygen and nutrients by blood delivered to it by the coronary circulation, not by blood within the heart chambers.

■ Most coronary blood flow occurs during diastole, because during systole the contracting heart muscle compresses the coronary vessels. (Review Figure 9-26.)

■ Coronary blood flow is normally varied to keep pace with cardiac oxygen needs. (Review Figure 9-27.)

■ Coronary blood flow may be compromised by development of atherosclerotic plaques, which can lead to ischemic heart disease ranging in severity from mild chest pain on exertion to fatal heart attacks. (Review Figures 9-28 through 9-30 and Table 9-4.)

## CHAPTER 10 Patterns and Physics of Blood Flow (pp. 347–350) Study Card

■ Materials can be exchanged between various parts of the body and with the external environment by means of the blood vessel network that transports blood to and from all organs. (Review Figure 10-1.)

■ Organs that replenish nutrient supplies and remove metabolic wastes from the blood receive a greater percentage of the cardiac output than is warranted by their metabolic needs. These “reconditioning” organs can better tolerate reductions in blood supply than can organs that receive blood solely for meeting their own metabolic needs. The reconditioning organs are the digestive organs, kidneys, and skin.

■ The brain is especially vulnerable to reductions in its blood supply. Therefore, maintaining adequate flow to this vulnerable organ is a high priority in circulatory function.

■ The flow rate of blood through a vessel (in volume per unit of time) is directly proportional to the pressure gradient and inversely proportional to the resistance. The higher pressure at the beginning of a vessel is established by the pressure imparted to the blood by cardiac contraction. The lower pressure at the end is the result of frictional losses as flowing blood rubs against the vessel wall. (Review Figure 10-2.)

■ Resistance, the hindrance to blood flow through a vessel, is influenced most by the vessel’s radius. Resistance is inversely proportional to the fourth power of the radius, so small changes in radius profoundly influence flow. As the radius increases, resistance decreases and flow increases, and vice versa. (Review Figure 10-3.)

■ Blood flows in a closed loop between the heart and the organs. The arteries transport blood from the heart throughout the body. The arterioles regulate the amount of blood that flows through each organ. The capillaries are the actual site where materials are exchanged between blood and surrounding tissue cells. The veins return blood from the tissue level back to the heart. (Review Figure 10-4 and Table 10-1.)

### Arteries (pp. 347–350)

■ Arteries are large-radius, low-resistance passageways from the heart to the organs. They also serve as a pressure reservoir. Because of their elasticity, owing to their abundant elastin fibers, arteries expand to accommodate the extra volume of blood pumped into them by cardiac contraction and then recoil to continue driving the blood forward when the heart is relaxing. (Review Table 10-1 and Figures 10-5 and 10-6.)

■ Systolic pressure (average 120 mm Hg) is the peak pressure exerted by the ejected blood against the vessel walls during cardiac systole. Diastolic pressure (average 80 mm Hg) is the minimum pressure in the arteries when blood is draining off into the vessels downstream during cardiac diastole. When blood pressure is 120/80, pulse pressure (the difference between systolic and diastolic pressures) is 40 mm Hg. (Review Figures 10-7 and 10-8.)

■ The average driving pressure throughout the cardiac cycle is the mean arterial pressure, which can be estimated using the following formula: mean arterial pressure diastolic pressure  $\frac{1}{3}$  pulse pressure. (Review Figure 10-9.)

### Arterioles (pp. 350–360)

■ Arterioles are the major resistance vessels. Their high resistance produces a large drop in mean pressure between the arteries and capillaries. This decline enhances blood flow by contributing to the pressure differential between the heart and organs. (Review Figure 10-9.)

■ Arterioles have a thick layer of circular smooth muscle, variable contraction of which alters arteriolar caliber and resistance. (Review Table 10-1.) Tone, a baseline of contractile activity, is maintained in arterioles at all times. Arteriolar vasodilation (expansion of arteriolar caliber above tonic level) decreases resistance and increases blood flow through the vessel, whereas vasoconstriction (narrowing of the vessel) increases resistance and decreases flow. (Review Figure 10-10.)

■ Arteriolar caliber is subject to two types of control mechanisms: local (intrinsic) controls and extrinsic controls.

■ Local controls primarily involve local chemical changes associated with changes in the level of metabolic activity in an organ, such as local changes in  $O_2$ , which cause the release of vasoactive mediators from the endothelial cells in the vicinity. Examples include vasodilating nitric oxide and vasoconstricting endothelin. These vasoactive mediators act on the underlying arteriolar smooth muscle to bring about an appropriate change in the caliber of the arterioles supplying the organ. By adjusting the resistance to blood flow, the local control mechanism adjusts blood flow to the organ to match the momentary metabolic needs of the organ. (Review Figures 10-10, 10-11, and 10-14 and Tables 10-2 and 10-3.)

■ Arteriolar caliber can be adjusted independently in different organs by local control factors. Such adjustments are important in variably distributing cardiac output. (Review Figure 10-12.)

■ Other local influences include (1) histamine release (important in inflammatory and allergic reactions); (2) local application of heat or cold (important therapeutically); (3) chemical response to shear stress (which resists changes in the force exerted parallel to the vessel surface by flowing blood); and (4) myogenic response to stretch (which resists changes in the distending force exerted across the vessel wall by blood-pressure driven changes in blood flow).

■ Extrinsic control is accomplished primarily by sympathetic and to a lesser extent by hormonal influence over arteriolar smooth muscle. Extrinsic controls are important in maintaining mean arterial pressure. Arterioles are richly supplied with sympathetic nerve fibers, whose increased activity produces generalized vasoconstriction and a subsequent increase in total peripheral resistance, thus increasing mean arterial pressure. Decreased sympathetic activity produces generalized ar-

Translating...

teriolar vasodilation, which lowers mean arterial pressure. These extrinsically controlled adjustments of arteriolar caliber help maintain the appropriate pressure head for driving blood forward to the tissues. Most arterioles are not supplied by parasympathetic nerves. (Review Figure 10-14.)

- Hormones that extrinsically influence arteriolar radius are norepinephrine, epinephrine, vasopressin, and angiotensin II, all of which cause generalized arteriolar vasoconstriction.

### Capillaries (pp. 361–371)

- The thin-walled, small-radius, extensively branched capillaries are ideally suited to serve as sites of exchange between the blood and surrounding tissue cells. Anatomically, the surface area for exchange is maximized and diffusion distance is minimized in the capillaries. Furthermore, because of their large total cross-sectional area, the velocity of blood flow through capillaries (in distance per unit of time) is relatively slow, providing adequate time for exchanges to take place. (Review Figures 10-15 through 10-17 and Table 10-1, p. 348.)

- Two types of passive exchanges—diffusion and bulk flow—take place across capillary walls.

- Individual solutes are exchanged primarily by diffusion down concentration gradients. Lipid-soluble substances pass directly through the single layer of endothelial cells lining a capillary, whereas water-soluble substances pass through water-filled pores between the endothelial cells. Plasma proteins generally do not escape. (Review Figures 10-18 and 10-21.)

- Imbalances in physical pressures acting across capillary walls are responsible for bulk flow of fluid through the pores. (1) Fluid is forced out of the first portion of the capillary (ultrafiltration), where outward pressures (mainly capillary blood pressure) exceed inward pressures (mainly plasma-colloid osmotic pressure). (2) Fluid is returned to the capillary along its last half, when outward pressures fall below inward pressures. The reason for the shift in balance down the capillary's length is the continuous decline in capillary blood pressure while the plasma-colloid osmotic pressure remains constant. Bulk flow is responsible for the distribution of ECF between plasma and interstitial fluid. (Review Figures 10-9, 10-22, and 10-23.)

- Normally, slightly more fluid is filtered than is reabsorbed. The extra fluid, any leaked proteins, and bacteria in the tissue are picked up by the lymphatic system. Bacteria are destroyed as lymph passes through lymph nodes on the way to being returned to the venous system. (Review Figures 10-22, 10-24 and 10-25.)

### Veins (pp. 371–376)

- Veins are large-radius, low-resistance passageways through which blood returns from the organs to the heart. In addition,

the thin-walled, highly distensible veins, as capacitance vessels, can passively stretch to store a larger volume of blood and therefore act as a blood reservoir. The capacity of veins to hold blood can change markedly with little change in venous pressure. At rest, the veins contain more than 60% of the total blood volume. (Review Table 10-10 and Figure 10-27.)

- The primary force that produces venous flow is the pressure gradient between the veins and atrium (that is, what remains of the driving pressure imparted to the blood by cardiac contraction). (Review Figures 10-9 and 10-28.)

- Venous return is enhanced by sympathetically induced venous vasoconstriction and by external compression of the veins from contraction of surrounding skeletal muscles, both of which drive blood out of the veins. These actions help counter the effects of gravity on the venous system. (Review Figures 10-28 through 10-31.)

- One-way venous valves ensure that blood is driven toward the heart and kept from flowing back toward the tissues. (Review Figure 10-32.)

- Venous return is also enhanced by the respiratory pump and the cardiac suction effect. Respiratory activity produces a less-than-atmospheric pressure in the chest cavity, thus establishing an external pressure gradient that encourages flow from the lower veins that are exposed to atmospheric pressure to the chest veins that empty into the heart. In addition, slightly negative pressures created within the atria during ventricular systole and within the ventricles during ventricular diastole exert a suctioning effect that further enhances venous return and facilitates cardiac filling. (Review Figures 10-28 and 10-33.)

### Blood Pressure (pp. 376–386)

- Regulation of mean arterial pressure (MAP) depends on control of its two main determinants, cardiac output (CO) and total peripheral resistance (TPR). Control of CO, in turn, depends on regulation of heart rate and stroke volume, whereas TPR is determined primarily by the degree of arteriolar vasoconstriction. (Review Figure 10-34.)

- Short-term regulation of blood pressure is accomplished mainly by the baroreceptor reflex. Carotid sinus and aortic arch baroreceptors continuously monitor MAP. When they detect a deviation from normal, they signal the medullary cardiovascular center, which responds by adjusting autonomic output to the heart and blood vessels to restore the blood pressure to normal. (Review Figures 10-35 through 10-38.)

- Long-term control of blood pressure involves maintaining proper plasma volume through the kidneys' control of salt and water balance. (Review Figure 10-34.)

## 11 Study Card

Plasma (p. 391–393)  
CHAPTER

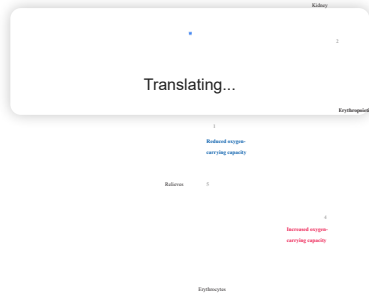
- Blood consists of three types of cellular elements—erythrocytes (red blood cells), leukocytes (white blood cells), and platelets (thrombocytes)—suspended in the liquid plasma. (Review Figure 11-1 and Table 11-1.)

- The 5- to 5.5-liter volume of blood in an adult consists of 42% to 45% erythrocytes, less than 1% leukocytes and platelets, and 55% to 58% plasma. The percentage of whole-blood volume occupied by erythrocytes is the hematocrit. (Review Figure 11-1.)

- Hemoglobin also contributes to CO<sub>2</sub> transport and buffering of blood by reversibly binding with CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sup>+</sup>.

- Unable to replace cell components, erythrocytes are destined to a short life span of about 120 days.

- Undifferentiated pluripotent stem cells in the red bone marrow give rise to all cellular elements of the blood. (Review Figures 11-3 and 11-9.) Erythrocyte production (erythropoiesis) by the marrow normally keeps pace with the rate of erythrocyte loss, keeping the red cell count constant. Erythropoiesis is stimulated by erythropoietin, a hormone secreted by the kidneys in response to reduced O<sub>2</sub> delivery. (Review Figure 11-4.)



Plasma = 55% of whole blood

Buffy coat: platelets and leukocytes = 1% of whole blood

Packed cell volume, or hematocrit

Erythrocytes = 45% of whole blood

Platelets (white blood cells)

Leukocytes (white blood cells)

Erythrocytes (red blood cells)

■ Plasma is a complex liquid consisting of 90% water that serves as a transport medium for substances being carried in the blood. The most abundant inorganic constituents in plasma are Na and Cl. The most plentiful organic constituents in plasma are plasma proteins.

■ All plasma constituents are freely diffusible across the capillary walls except the plasma proteins, which remain in the plasma, where they perform a variety of important functions. Plasma proteins include the albumins, globulins ( , , and ), and fibrinogen. (Review Table 11-1.)

Erythrocytes (pp. 393–400)

■ Erythrocytes are specialized for their primary function of O<sub>2</sub> transport in the blood. Their biconcave shape maximizes the surface area available for diffusion of O<sub>2</sub> into cells of this volume. (Review Figure 11-1.) Erythrocytes do not contain a nucleus or organelles (these are extruded during development) but instead are packed full of hemoglobin, an iron-containing molecule that can loosely and reversibly bind with O<sub>2</sub>. Because O<sub>2</sub> is poorly soluble in blood, hemoglobin is indispensable for O<sub>2</sub> transport. Each hemoglobin molecule can carry four O<sub>2</sub> molecules. (Review Figures 11-2 and 11-3.)

■ The major ABO blood types depend on the presence of specific antigens on the surface of erythrocytes. The red blood cells of type A blood have A antigen, of type B blood have B antigen, of type AB blood have both A and B antigen, and of type O blood have no A or B antigen. Type A blood has anti-B antibodies, type B blood has anti-A antibodies, type AB blood has no anti-A or anti-B antibodies, and type O blood has both anti-A and anti-B antibodies. These antibodies cause the RBCs with the corresponding antigens to agglutinate (clump) and/or rupture, causing a transfusion reaction if incoming donor cells are exposed to corresponding antibodies in recipient blood. (Review Figure 11-7.)

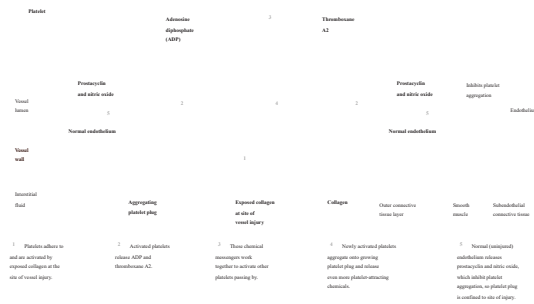
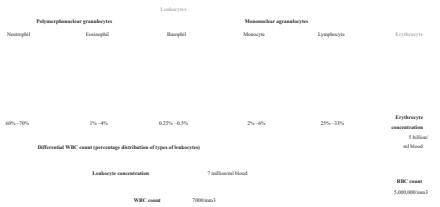
Leukocytes (pp. 400–405)

■ Leukocytes are the defense corps of the body. They attack foreign invaders (the most common of which are bacteria and viruses), destroy cancer cells that arise in the body, and clean up cellular debris. Leukocytes as well as certain plasma proteins make up the immune system.

■ Each of the five types of leukocytes has a different task: (1) Neutrophils, the phagocytic specialists, are important in engulfing bacteria and debris. (2) Eosinophils specialize in attacking parasitic worms and play a role in allergic responses. (3) Basophils release two chemicals: histamine, which is also important in allergic responses; and heparin, which helps clear fat particles from the blood. (4) Monocytes, on leaving

the blood, set up residence in the tissues and greatly enlarge to become the large tissue phagocytes known as macrophages. (5) Lymphocytes provide immune defense against bacteria, viruses, and other targets for which they are specifically programmed. Their defense tools include the production of antibodies that mark the victim for destruction by phagocytosis or other means (for B lymphocytes) and the release of chemicals that punch holes in the victim (for T lymphocytes). (Review Figure 11-8 and Table 11-1.)

gether cause other passing-by platelets to pile on, setting up a positive-feedback cycle as the platelet plug grows to fill in the defect. Normal adjacent endothelium secretes inhibitory chemicals that prevent platelets from adhering to the surrounding undamaged part of the vessel. (Review Figures 11-11 and 11-15.)



■ Leukocytes are present in the blood only while in transit from their site of production and storage in the bone marrow (and also in the lymphoid tissues in the case of the lymphocytes) to their site of action in the tissues. (Review Figure 11-9.) At any given time, most leukocytes are out in the tissues on surveillance or performing actual combat missions.

■ All leukocytes have a limited life span and must be replenished by ongoing differentiation and proliferation of precursor cells. The total number and percentage of each of the different types of leukocytes are produced at variable rates depending on the momentary defense needs of the body. Factors that regulate production of the different types of leukocyte are released from invaded or injured tissues and/or from activated leukocytes.

■ Clot formation reinforces the platelet plug and converts blood in the vicinity of a vessel injury into a nonflowing gel.

■ Most factors necessary for clotting are always present in the plasma in inactive precursor form. When a vessel is damaged, exposed collagen initiates a cascade of reactions involving successive activation of these clotting factors, ultimately converting fibrinogen into fibrin via the intrinsic clotting pathway. (Review Figures 11-13, 11-14, and 11-15.)

■ Fibrin, an insoluble threadlike molecule, is laid down as the meshwork of the clot; the meshwork in turn entangles blood cellular elements to complete clot formation. (Review Figure 11-12.)

Platelets and Hemostasis (pp. 405–412)

- Platelets are cell fragments derived from large megakaryocytes in the bone marrow. (Review Figures 11-8, 11-9, and 11-10.)
- Platelets play a role in hemostasis, the arrest of bleeding from an injured vessel. The three main steps in hemostasis are (1) vascular spasm, (2) platelet plugging, and (3) clot formation.
- Vascular spasm reduces blood flow through an injured vessel.
- Aggregation of platelets at the site of vessel injury quickly plugs the defect. Platelets start to aggregate on contact with exposed collagen in the damaged vessel wall. These aggregated platelets secrete ADP and thromboxane A<sub>2</sub>, which to-

- Platelet aggregation and clot formation mutually reinforce each other to seal the damaged vessel. Both processes are initiated simultaneously by exposure to collagen at a vessel defect. Thrombin converts fibrinogen to fibrin to form the clot and participates in hemostasis in multiple ways, including enhancing platelet aggregation. Platelets secrete PF3, which enhances the clotting cascade. (Review Figures 11-13 and 11-15.)
- Blood that has escaped into the tissues clots on exposure to tissue thromboplastin, which sets the extrinsic clotting pathway into motion. (Review Figure 11-14.)
- Clots form quickly. When no longer needed, they are slowly dissolved by plasmin, a fibrinolytic factor also activated by exposed collagen. (Review Figure 11-16.)

# 12

## Immune System: Targets, Effectors

### CHAPTER 12 Study Card

(pp. 417–420)

- Foreign invaders and newly arisen mutant cells are immediately confronted with multiple interrelated defense mechanisms aimed at destroying and eliminating anything that is not part of the normal self. These mechanisms, collectively referred to as immunity, include both innate and adaptive immune responses. Innate immune responses are nonspecific responses that nonselectively defend against foreign material even on initial exposure to it. Adaptive immune responses are specific responses that selectively target particular invaders for which the body has been specially prepared after a prior exposure. (Review Table 12-3, p. 445.)
- The most common invaders are bacteria and viruses. Bacteria are self-sustaining, single-celled organisms, which produce disease by virtue of the destructive chemicals they release. Viruses are protein-coated nucleic acid particles, which invade host cells and take over the cellular metabolic machinery for their own survival to the detriment of the host cell.
- Leukocytes and their derivatives are the major effector cells of the immune system and are reinforced by a number of different plasma proteins. Leukocytes include neutrophils, eosinophils, basophils, monocytes, and lymphocytes.
- Immune cells also clean up cellular debris, preparing the way for tissue repair.

#### Innate Immunity (pp. 420–428)

- Innate immune responses include inflammation, interferon, natural killer cells, and the complement system.
- Inflammation is a nonspecific response to foreign invasion or tissue damage mediated largely by the professional phagocytes (neutrophils and monocytes-turned-macrophages). The phagocytic cells destroy foreign and damaged cells both by phagocytosis and by release of lethal chemicals. (Review Figures 12-2 and 12-3.) Phagocytic secretions also augment inflammation, induce systemic manifestations such as fever, and enhance adaptive immune responses.
- Histamine-induced vasodilation and increased permeability of local capillaries at the site of invasion or injury permit enhanced delivery of more phagocytic leukocytes and inactive plasma protein precursors crucial to defense, such as complement components. These vascular changes also largely produce the observable local manifestations of inflammation—swelling, redness, heat, and pain. (Review Figure 12-3.)
- Interferon is nonspecifically released by virus-infected cells and transiently inhibits viral multiplication in other cells to which it binds. (Review Figure 12-5.)

- Natural killer (NK) cells nonspecifically lyse and destroy virus-infected cells and cancer cells on first exposure to them. (Review Figure 12-11.)

- On being activated by microbes themselves at the site of invasion or by antibodies produced against the microbes, the complement system directly destroys the foreign invaders by lysing their membranes and also augments other aspects of the inflammatory process, such as by acting as opsonins that enhance phagocytosis. The complement system lyses the targeted cells by forming a hole-punching membrane attack complex that inserts into the victim cell's membrane, leading to osmotic rupture of the cell. (Review Figures 12-4 and 12-6.)

#### Adaptive Immunity: General Concepts (pp. 428–429)

- Not only is the adaptive immune system able to recognize foreign molecules as different from self-molecules—so that destructive immune reactions are not unleashed against the body itself—but it can also distinguish between millions of different foreign molecules. Lymphocytes, the effector cells of adaptive immunity, are each uniquely equipped with surface membrane receptors that can bind with only one specific complex foreign molecule, known as an antigen.
- The two broad classes of adaptive immune responses are antibody-mediated immunity accomplished by plasma cells derived from B lymphocytes (B cells), and cell-mediated immunity accomplished by T lymphocytes (T cells). (Review Figure 12-7 and Table 12-4, p. 450.)
- B cells develop from a lineage of lymphocytes that originally matured within the bone marrow. The T-cell lineage comes from lymphocytes that migrated from the bone marrow to the thymus to complete their maturation. New B and T cells arise from lymphocyte colonies in lymphoid tissues. (Review Figures 12-1 and 12-7 and Table 12-1.)

#### B Lymphocytes: Antibody-Mediated Immunity (pp. 429–437)

- Each B cell recognizes specific free extracellular antigen, such as that found on the surface of bacteria.
- After being activated by binding of its receptor (a B-cell receptor or BCR) with its specific antigen, a B cell rapidly proliferates, producing a clone of its own kind that can specifically wage battle against the invader. Most lymphocytes in the expanded B-cell clone become antibody-secreting plasma cells that participate in the primary response against the invader. Some of the new lymphocytes do not participate in the attack but become memory cells that lie in wait, ready to launch a swifter and more forceful secondary response should the same foreigner ever invade the body again. (Review Figures 12-8, 12-9, 12-12, 12-13, and 12-14.)

Translating...

■ Antibodies are Y-shaped molecules. The antigen-binding sites on the tips of each arm of the antibody determine with what specific antigen the antibody can bind. Properties of the antibody's tail portion determine what the antibody does once it binds with antigen. There are five subclasses of antibodies, depending on differences in the biological activity of their tail portion: IgM, IgG, IgE, IgA, and IgD immunoglobulins. (Review Figure 12-10.)

■ Antibodies do not directly destroy antigenic material. Instead, they exert their protective effect by physically hindering antigens through neutralization or agglutination or by intensifying lethal innate immune responses already called into play by the foreign invasion. Antibodies activate the complement system, enhance phagocytosis, and stimulate killer cells. (Review Figure 12-11 and Table 12-3.)

### T Lymphocytes: Cell-Mediated Immunity (pp. 437–449)

■ T cells accomplish cell-mediated immunity by being in direct contact with their targets and by releasing cytokines. Chemicals other than antibodies released by leukocytes are known as cytokines.

■ There are three types of T cells: cytotoxic, helper, and regulatory T cells.

■ The targets of cytotoxic (CD8) T cells are virally invaded cells and cancer cells, which they destroy by releasing perforin molecules that form a lethal hole-punching complex that inserts into the membrane of the victim cell or by releasing granzymes that trigger the victim cell to undergo apoptosis. (Review Figures 12-15 and 12-16 and Table 12-2.)

■ Helper (CD4) T cells bind with other immune cells and release cytokines that augment the activity of these other cells. B cells cannot convert to plasma cells and produce antibodies in response to T-dependent antigen without the help of helper cells. (Review Figure 12-21.)

■ Regulatory (CD4CD25) cells secrete cytokines that suppress other immune cells, putting the brake on immune responses in check-and-balance fashion.

■ Like B cells, T cells bear receptors (T-cell receptors or TCRs) that are antigen specific (Review Figure 12-8), undergo clonal selection, exert primary and secondary responses, and form memory pools for long-lasting immunity against targets to which they have already been exposed.

■ Helper T cells can recognize and bind with antigen only when it has been processed and presented to them by antigen-presenting cells (APCs), such as macrophages and dendritic cells. (Review Figures 12-18 and 12-19.)

■ Lymphocytes produced by chance that can attack the body's own cells are eliminated or suppressed so that they are prevented from functioning. In this way, the body is able to "tolerate" (not attack) its own antigens.

■ B and T cells have different targets because their requirements for antigen recognition differ. B cells recognize freely circulating antigen, such as bacteria, that can lead to antigen destruction at long distances via antibodies. T cells, in contrast, have a dual binding requirement of foreign antigen in association with self-antigens on the surface of one of the body's own cells. (Review Figures 12-20 and 12-21.)

■ The self-antigens on cell surfaces are class I or class II MHC molecules, which are unique for each individual. Cytotoxic T cells can bind only with virus-infected host cells or cancer cells, which always bear class I MHC self-antigen in association with foreign or abnormal antigen. Helper T cells can bind only with APCs and B cells that bear the class II MHC self-marker in association with foreign antigen. The APCs activate helper T cells, and helper T cells activate B cells. Thus, such differential binding ensures that the appropriate specific immune response ensues. (Review Figures 12-20 and 12-21.)

■ In the process of immune surveillance, natural killer cells, cytotoxic T cells, macrophages, and the interferon they collectively secrete normally eradicate newly arisen cancer cells before they have a chance to spread. (Review Figure 12-23.)

### Immune Diseases (pp. 449–453)

■ Immune diseases are of two types: immunodeficiency diseases (insufficient immune responses) or inappropriate immune attacks (excessive or mistargeted immune responses).

■ Inappropriate attacks include autoimmune diseases, immune complex diseases, and allergies (hypersensitivities), of which there are two types: (1) Immediate hypersensitivities involving the production of IgE antibodies by B cells that trigger release of histamine from mast cells and basophils to bring about a swift response to the allergen, and (2) delayed hypersensitivities involving a more slowly responding cell-mediated, symptom-producing response by T cells against the allergen. (Review Figure 12-24 and Table 12-5.)

### External Defenses (pp. 453–457)

■ The body surfaces exposed to the outside environment—both the outer covering of skin and the linings of internal cavities that communicate with the external environment—serve not only as mechanical barriers to deter would-be pathogenic invaders but also play an active role in thwarting entry of bacteria and other unwanted materials.

■ The skin consists of two layers: an outer vascular, keratinized epidermis and an inner, connective tissue dermis. The epidermis contains four cell types: pigment-producing melanocytes, keratin-producing keratinocytes, antigen-presenting Langerhans cells, and immune-suppressive Granstein cells. (Review Figure 12-25.)

■ The other main routes by which potential pathogens enter the body are the digestive system, the urogenital system, and the respiratory system, which are all defended by various antimicrobial strategies.

## 13 Respiratory Anatomy (pp. 461–464) Study Card

■ Cellular respiration refers to the intracellular metabolic reactions that use O<sub>2</sub> and produce CO<sub>2</sub> during energy-yielding oxidation of nutrient molecules. External respiration refers to the transfer of O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> between the external environment and tissue cells. The respiratory and circulatory systems function together to accomplish external respiration. (Review Figure 13-1.)

■ The respiratory system exchanges air between the atmosphere and lungs. The airways conduct air from the atmosphere to the alveoli, across which O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> are exchanged between air in these air sacs and blood in the surrounding

■ For more forceful active expiration, contraction of the expiratory muscles (namely, the abdominal muscles) further decreases the size of the thoracic cavity and lungs, which further increases the intra-alveolar-to-atmospheric-pressure gradient. (Review Figures 13-11 and 13-12d.)

■ The larger the gradient between the alveoli and atmosphere in either direction, the larger the airflow rate, because air flows until intra-alveolar pressure equilibrates with atmospheric pressure. (Review Figures 13-13 and 13-14.)

■ Besides being directly proportional to the pressure gradient, airflow rate is also inversely proportional to airway resistance. (Review Table 13-1.) Because airway resistance, which depends on the caliber of the conducting airways, is normally

pulmonary capillaries. The extremely thin alveolar walls are formed by type I alveolar cells. Type II alveolar cells secrete pulmonary surfactant. (Review Figures 13-2 and 13-4.)

- The lungs are housed within the closed compartment of the thorax, the volume of which can be changed by contractile activity of surrounding respiratory muscles.
- Each lung is surrounded by a double-walled, closed sac, the pleural sac. (Review Figure 13-5.)

### Respiratory Mechanics (pp. 465–485)

- Ventilation, or breathing, is the process of cyclically moving air in and out of the lungs so that old alveolar air that has given up  $O_2$  and picked up  $CO_2$  can be exchanged for fresh atmospheric air.
- Ventilation is mechanically accomplished by alternately shifting the direction of the pressure gradient for airflow between the atmosphere and alveoli through the cyclic expansion and recoil of the lungs. When intra-alveolar pressure decreases as a result of lung expansion during inspiration, air flows into the lungs from the higher atmospheric pressure. When intra-alveolar pressure increases as a result of lung recoil during expiration, air flows out of the lungs toward the lower atmospheric pressure. (Review Figures 13-6, 13-7, 13-10, 13-13, and 13-14.)
- Alternate contraction and relaxation of the inspiratory muscles (primarily the diaphragm) indirectly produce periodic inflation and deflation of the lungs by cyclically expanding and compressing the thoracic cavity, with the lungs passively following its movements. (Review Figures 13-11 and 13-12.)
- The lungs follow the movements of the thoracic cavity by virtue of the intrapleural fluid's cohesiveness and the transmural pressure gradient across the lung wall. The transmural pressure gradient exists because the intrapleural pressure is subatmospheric and thus less than the intra-alveolar pressure. (Review Figures 13-8 and 13-14.)
- Because energy is required for contracting the inspiratory muscles, inspiration is an active process, but expiration is passive during quiet breathing because it is accomplished by elastic recoil of the lungs on relaxing inspiratory muscles, at no energy expense. (Review Figure 13-12a, b, and c.)

very low, airflow rate usually depends primarily on the pressure gradient between the alveoli and atmosphere.

- The lungs can be stretched to varying degrees during inspiration and then recoil to their preinspiratory size during expiration because of their elastic behavior. *Pulmonary compliance* refers to the distensibility of the lungs—how much they stretch in response to a given change in the transmural pressure gradient. *Elastic recoil* refers to the snapping back of the lungs to their resting position during expiration.

- Pulmonary elastic behavior depends on the elastic connective tissue within the lungs and on alveolar surface tension/pulmonary surfactant interaction. Alveolar surface tension, which is the result of attractive forces between the surface water molecules lining each alveolus, tends to resist the alveolus being stretched on inflation (decreases compliance) and tends to return it back to a smaller surface area during deflation (increases lung rebound). (Review Table 13-2.)

- If the alveoli were lined by water alone, the surface tension would be so great that the lungs would be poorly compliant and would tend to collapse. Pulmonary surfactant intersperses between the water molecules and lowers alveolar surface tension, thereby increasing compliance and counteracting the tendency for alveoli to collapse. Alveolar interdependence also counteracts the tendency for alveoli to collapse. (Review Figures 13-16 and 13-17 and Table 13-2.)

- The lungs can be filled to about 5.5 liters on maximal inspiration or emptied to about 1 liter on maximal expiration. Normally the lungs operate at “half full.” Lung volume typically varies from about 2 to 2.5 liters as an average tidal volume of 500 ml of air is moved in and out with each breath. (Review Figures 13-18, 13-19, and 13-20.)

- The amount of air moved in and out of the lungs in one minute, the pulmonary ventilation, is equal to tidal volume times respiratory rate.

- Not all the air moved in and out is available for gas exchange with the blood, because part occupies the conducting airways (*anatomic dead space*). Alveolar ventilation, the volume of air exchanged between the atmosphere and alveoli in one minute, is a measure of the air actually available for gas exchange with the blood. Alveolar ventilation equals (tidal volume minus dead space volume) times respiratory rate. (Review Figure 13-22 and Table 13-3.)

### Gas Exchange (pp. 486–490)

- Oxygen and  $CO_2$  move across body membranes by passive diffusion down partial pressure gradients. The partial pressure of a gas in air is that portion of the total atmospheric pressure contributed by this individual gas, which in turn is directly proportional to the percentage of this gas in the air. The partial pressure of a gas in blood depends on the amount of this gas dissolved in the blood. (Review Figure 13-25.)
- Net diffusion of  $O_2$  occurs first between the alveoli and blood and then between the blood and tissues as a result of the  $O_2$  partial pressure gradients created by continuous use of  $O_2$  in the cells and continuous replenishment of fresh alveolar  $O_2$  provided by ventilation. Net diffusion of  $CO_2$  occurs in the reverse direction, first between the tissues and blood and then between the blood and alveoli, as a result of the  $CO_2$  partial pressure gradients created by continuous production of  $CO_2$  in the cells and continuous removal of alveolar  $CO_2$  through ventilation. (Review Figure 13-26.)
- Other factors that influence the rate of gas exchange are surface area and thickness of the membrane across which the gas is diffusing and the diffusion constant of the gas in the membrane (Fick's law of diffusion). (Review Table 13-5.)

### Gas Transport (pp. 490–498)

- Because  $O_2$  and  $CO_2$  are not very soluble in blood, they must be transported primarily by mechanisms other than simply being physically dissolved. (Review Table 13-6.)
- Only 1.5% of the  $O_2$  is physically dissolved in the blood, with 98.5% chemically bound to hemoglobin (Hb).
- The primary factor that determines the extent to which Hb and  $O_2$  are combined (the % Hb saturation) is the  $P_{O_2}$  of the blood, depicted by an S-shaped curve known as the  $O_2$ -Hb dissociation curve. In the  $P_{O_2}$  range of the pulmonary capillaries (the plateau portion of the curve), Hb is still almost fully saturated even if the blood  $P_{O_2}$  falls as much as 40%. This

- Carbon dioxide picked up at the systemic capillaries is transported in the blood by three methods: (1) 10% is physically dissolved, (2) 30% is bound to Hb, and (3) 60% takes the form of bicarbonate ( $HCO_3^-$ ). The erythrocyte enzyme carbonic anhydrase catalyzes conversion of  $CO_2$  to  $HCO_3^-$  according to the reaction  $CO_2 + H_2O \rightleftharpoons H^+ + HCO_3^-$ . These reactions are all reversed in the lungs as  $CO_2$  is eliminated to the alveoli. (Review Table 13-6 and Figure 13-31.)

### Control of Respiration (pp. 498–507)

- Ventilation involves two aspects, both subject to neural control: (1) rhythmic cycling between inspiration and expiration and (2) regulation of ventilation magnitude, which depends on control of respiratory rate and depth of tidal volume.
- Respiratory rhythm is established by the pre-Bötzinger complex, which displays pacemaker activity and drives the inspiratory neurons located in the dorsal respiratory group (DRG) of the medullary respiratory control center. When these neurons fire, impulses ultimately reach the inspiratory muscles to bring about inspiration. (Review Figure 13-33.)
- When the inspiratory neurons stop firing, the inspiratory muscles relax and passive expiration takes place. For active expiration, the expiratory muscles are activated at this time by expiratory neurons in the ventral respiratory group (VRG) of the medullary respiratory control center.
- This basic rhythm is smoothed out by the apneustic and pneumotaxic centers located in the pons. The apneustic center prolongs inspiration; the more powerful pneumotaxic center limits inspiration. (Review Figure 13-33.)
- Three chemical factors play a role in determining the magnitude of ventilation:  $P_{CO_2}$ ,  $P_{O_2}$ , and H concentration of the arterial blood. (Review Table 13-8.)
- The dominant factor in the ongoing regulation of ventilation is arterial  $P_{CO_2}$ , an increase of which is the most potent chemical stimulus for increasing ventilation. Changes in arte-

provides a margin of safety by ensuring near-normal  $O_2$  delivery to the tissues despite a substantial reduction in arterial  $P_{O_2}$ . In the  $P_{O_2}$  range in the systemic capillaries (the steep portion of the curve), Hb unloading increases greatly in response to a small local decline in blood  $P_{O_2}$  associated with increased cellular metabolism. In this way, more  $O_2$  is provided to match the increased tissue needs. (Review Figure 13-28.)

- Increased  $P_{CO_2}$ , increased acid, and increased temperature at the tissue level shift the  $O_2$ -Hb curve to the right, facilitating the unloading of  $O_2$  from Hb for tissue use. (Review Figure 13-30.)

- Hemoglobin facilitates a large net transfer of  $O_2$  between the alveoli and blood and between the blood and tissue cells by acting as a storage depot to keep  $P_{O_2}$  (that is, dissolved  $O_2$  concentration) low, despite a considerable increase in the total  $O_2$  content of the blood. (Review Figure 13-29.)

rial  $P_{CO_2}$  alter ventilation by bringing about corresponding changes in the brain-ECF H concentration, to which the central chemoreceptors are very sensitive. (Review Figure 13-35.)

- The peripheral chemoreceptors are responsive to an increase in arterial H concentration, which likewise reflexly brings about increased ventilation. The resulting adjustment in arterial H-generating  $CO_2$  is important in maintaining the acid-base balance of the body. (Review Figure 13-34.)

- The peripheral chemoreceptors also reflexly increase ventilation in response to a marked reduction in arterial  $P_{O_2}$  (60 mm Hg), serving as an emergency mechanism to increase respiration when arterial  $P_{O_2}$  levels fall below the safety range provided by the plateau portion of the  $O_2$ -Hb curve.

- Respiration activity can also be voluntarily modified.

- Myogenic mechanisms and tubuloglomerular feedback, triggered by the juxtaglomerular apparatus, autoregulate glomerular blood flow and the GFR despite transient changes in the driving mean arterial blood pressure in the range of 80 to 180 mm Hg. (Review Figures 14-9, 14-10, and 14-11.)

- The GFR can be deliberately altered by changing the glomerular capillary blood pressure via sympathetic influence on the afferent arterioles as part of the baroreceptor reflex response that compensates for changed arterial blood pressure. When blood pressure falls too low, sympathetically induced afferent arteriolar vasoconstriction lowers glomerular blood pressure and GFR. When blood pressure rises too high, reduced sympathetic activity causes afferent arteriolar vasodilation, leading to a rise in GFR. As the GFR is altered, the amount of fluid lost in urine changes correspondingly, adjusting plasma volume as needed to help restore blood pressure to normal on a long-term basis. (Review Figures 14-10 and 14-12.)

#### Tubular Reabsorption (pp. 524–534)

- After the filtrate is formed, the tubules handle each filtered substance discretely, so that even though the initial glomerular filtrate is identical to plasma (with the exception of plasma proteins), the concentrations of different constituents are variously altered as the filtered fluid flows through the tubular system. (Review Tables 14-2 and 14-3, p. 537.)

- The reabsorptive capacity of the tubular system is tremendous. More than 99% of the filtered plasma is returned to the blood through reabsorption. On average, 124 ml out of the 125 ml filtered per minute are reabsorbed. (Review Table 14-2.)

- Tubular reabsorption involves transepithelial transport from the tubular lumen into the peritubular capillary plasma. This process may be active (requiring energy) or passive (using no energy). (Review Figure 14-14.)

- The pivotal event to which most reabsorptive processes are linked is the active reabsorption of  $Na^+$ , driven by the energy-dependent  $Na^+$ - $K^+$  pump in the basolateral membrane of the tubular cells. The transport of  $Na^+$  out of the cells into the lateral spaces between adjacent cells by this carrier induces the net reabsorption of  $Na^+$  from the tubular lumen to the peritubular capillary plasma. (Review Figure 14-15.)

- Most  $Na^+$  reabsorption takes place early in the nephron in constant unregulated fashion, but in the distal and collecting tubules, the reabsorption of a small percentage of the filtered  $Na^+$  is variable and controlled, primarily by the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system. (Review Table 14-4, p. 548.)

- Because  $Na^+$  and its attendant anion,  $Cl^-$ , are the major osmotically active ions in the ECF, the ECF volume is determined by the  $Na^+$  load in the body. In turn, the plasma volume, which reflects the total ECF volume, is important in the long-term determination of arterial blood pressure. Whenever the  $Na^+$  load, ECF volume, plasma volume, and arterial blood pressure are below normal, the juxtaglomerular apparatus se-

## 14 Study Card

### Kidneys: Anatomy, Functions, and Basic Processes (pp. 511–517)

- Each of the pair of kidneys consists of an outer renal cortex and inner renal medulla. The kidneys form urine. They eliminate unwanted plasma constituents in the urine while conserving materials of value to the body. Urine from each kidney is collected in the renal pelvis, then transmitted from both kidneys through the pair of ureters to the single urinary bladder, where urine is stored until emptied through the urethra to the outside. (Review Figures 14-1 and 14-2.)

- The urine-forming functional unit of the kidneys, the nephron, is composed of interrelated vascular and tubular components. The vascular component consists of two capillary networks in series, the first being the glomerulus, a tuft of capillaries that filters large volumes of protein-free plasma into the tubular component. The second capillary network consists of the peritubular capillaries, which nourish the renal tissue and participate in exchanges between the tubular fluid and plasma. (Review Figures 14-3 and 14-4.)

- The tubular component begins with Bowman's capsule, which cups around the glomerulus to catch the filtrate, then continues a specific tortuous course to ultimately empty into the renal pelvis. (Review Figure 14-3.) As the filtrate passes through various regions of the tubule, cells lining the tubules modify it, returning to the plasma only those materials necessary for maintaining proper ECF composition and volume. What is left behind in the tubules is excreted as urine.

- The kidneys perform three basic processes: (1) glomerular filtration, the nondiscriminating movement of protein-free plasma from the blood into the tubules; (2) tubular reabsorption, the selective transfer of specific constituents in the filtrate back into the blood of the peritubular capillaries; and (3) tubular secretion, the highly specific movement of selected substances from peritubular capillary blood into the tubular fluid. Everything filtered or secreted but not reabsorbed is excreted as urine. (Review Figure 14-6.)

#### Glomerular Filtration (pp. 517–524)

- Glomerular filtrate is produced when part of the plasma flowing through each glomerulus is passively forced under pressure through the glomerular membrane into the underlying Bowman's capsule. The net filtration pressure causing filtration results from a high glomerular capillary blood pressure that favors filtration outweighing the combined opposing forces of plasma-colloid osmotic pressure and Bowman's capsule hydrostatic pressure. (Review Figure 14-7 and Table 14-1.)

- 20% to 25% of the cardiac output is delivered to the kidneys to be acted on by renal regulatory and excretory processes. Of the plasma flowing through the kidneys, normally 20% is filtered through the glomeruli, for an average glomerular filtration rate (GFR) of 125 ml/min.

Translating...

cretin, an enzymatic hormone that triggers a series of events ultimately leading to increased aldosterone secretion by the adrenal cortex. Aldosterone increases Na reabsorption from the distal portions of the tubule, thus correcting for the original reduction in Na, ECF volume, and blood pressure. (Review Figures 14-11 and 14-16.)

- By contrast, Na reabsorption is inhibited by the natriuretic peptides, ANP and BNP, hormones released from the cardiac atria and ventricles, respectively, in response to expansion of the ECF volume and a subsequent increase in blood pressure. (Review Figure 14-17.)
- In addition to driving the reabsorption of Na<sup>+</sup>, the energy used by the Na<sup>+</sup>-K<sup>+</sup> pump is ultimately responsible for the reabsorption of organic nutrients (glucose or amino acids) from the proximal tubule by secondary active transport. (Review Figure 3-19, p. 74.)
- Other electrolytes actively reabsorbed by the tubules, such as PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup> and Ca<sup>2+</sup>, have their own independently functioning carrier systems within the proximal tubule.
- Because the electrolyte and nutrient carriers can become saturated, each exhibits a maximal carrier-limited transport capacity (*T<sub>m</sub>*). Once the filtered load of an actively reabsorbed substance exceeds the *T<sub>m</sub>*, reabsorption proceeds at a constant maximal rate, and any additional filtered quantity of the substance is excreted in the urine. (Review Figure 14-18.)
- Active Na reabsorption also drives the passive reabsorption of Cl<sup>-</sup> (via an electrical gradient), H<sub>2</sub>O (by osmosis), and urea (down a urea concentration gradient created as a result of extensive osmotic-driven H<sub>2</sub>O reabsorption). Sixty-five percent of the filtered H<sub>2</sub>O is reabsorbed from the proximal tubule in unregulated fashion, driven by active Na reabsorption. (Review Figure 14-19 and Table 14-4.) Reabsorption of H<sub>2</sub>O increases the concentration of other substances remaining in the tubular fluid, most of which are filtered waste products. The small urea molecules are the only waste products that can passively permeate the tubular membranes, so urea is the only waste product partially (50%) reabsorbed as a result of being concentrated. (Review Figure 14-20.)
- The other waste products, which are not reabsorbed, remain in the urine in highly concentrated form.

#### Tubular Secretion (pp. 534–537)

- Tubular secretion involves transepithelial transport from the peritubular capillary plasma into the tubular lumen. By tubular secretion, the kidney tubules can selectively add some substances to the quantity already filtered. Secretion of substances hastens their excretion in the urine.
- The most important secretory systems are for (1) H<sup>+</sup> (helps regulate acid–base balance); (2) K<sup>+</sup> (keeps the plasma K<sup>+</sup> concentration at the level needed to maintain normal membrane excitability in the heart, other muscles, and nerves); and (3) organic ions (accomplishes more efficient elimination

of foreign organic compounds from the body). H<sup>+</sup> is secreted in the proximal, distal, and collecting tubules. K<sup>+</sup> is secreted only in the distal and collecting tubules under control of aldosterone. Organic ions are secreted only in the proximal tubule. (Review Table 14-3 and Figures 14-21 and 14-22.)

#### Urine Excretion and Plasma Clearance (pp. 537–552)

- Of the 125 ml/min of glomerular filtrate formed, normally only 1 ml/min remains in the tubules to be excreted as urine. Only wastes and excess electrolytes not wanted by the body are left behind, dissolved in a given volume of H<sub>2</sub>O to be eliminated in the urine.
- Because the excreted material is removed or “cleared” from the plasma, the term *plasma clearance* refers to the volume of plasma cleared of a particular substance each minute by renal activity. (Review Figure 14-23.)
- The kidneys can excrete urine of varying volumes and concentrations to either conserve or eliminate H<sub>2</sub>O, depending on whether the body has a H<sub>2</sub>O deficit or excess, respectively. The kidneys can produce urine ranging from 0.3 ml/min at 1200 mOsm to 25 ml/min at 100 mOsm by reabsorbing variable amounts of H<sub>2</sub>O from the distal portions of the nephron.
- This variable reabsorption is made possible by a vertical osmotic gradient in the medullary interstitial fluid, established by the long loops of Henle of the juxtamedullary nephrons via countercurrent multiplication and preserved by the vasa recta of these nephrons via countercurrent exchange. (Review Figures 14-5, 14-24, 14-25, and 14-28.) This vertical osmotic gradient, to which the hypotonic (100 mOsm) tubular fluid is exposed as it passes through the distal portions of the nephron, establishes a passive driving force for progressive reabsorption of H<sub>2</sub>O from the tubular fluid, but the actual extent of H<sub>2</sub>O reabsorption depends on the amount of vasopressin (antidiuretic hormone) secreted. (Review Figure 14-27.)
- Vasopressin increases the permeability of the distal and collecting tubules to H<sub>2</sub>O; they are impermeable to H<sub>2</sub>O in its absence. (Review Figure 14-26.) Vasopressin secretion increases in response to a H<sub>2</sub>O deficit, increasing H<sub>2</sub>O reabsorption. Its secretion is inhibited in response to a H<sub>2</sub>O excess, reducing H<sub>2</sub>O reabsorption. Thus vasopressin-controlled H<sub>2</sub>O reabsorption helps correct any fluid imbalances.
- Once formed, urine is propelled by peristaltic contractions through the ureters from the kidneys to the urinary bladder for temporary storage.
- The bladder can accommodate up to 250 to 400 ml of urine before stretch receptors within its wall initiate the micturition reflex. (Review Figure 14-30.) This reflex causes involuntary emptying of the bladder by simultaneous bladder contraction and opening of both the internal and external urethral sphincters. Micturition can transiently be voluntarily prevented by deliberately tightening the external sphincter and pelvic diaphragm. (Review Figure 14-29.)

## 15 Balance Concept (pp. 557–558) Study Card

- The internal pool of a substance is the quantity of that substance in the ECF. The inputs to the pool are by way of ingestion or metabolic production of the substance. The outputs from the pool are by way of excretion or metabolic consumption of the substance. (Review Figure 15-1.)
- Input must equal output to maintain a stable balance of the substance.

#### Fluid Balance (pp. 558–569)

- On average, the body fluids compose 60% of total body

- To prevent these harmful fluxes, changes in ECF osmolarity are primarily detected and corrected by the systems that maintain free H<sub>2</sub>O balance (H<sub>2</sub>O without accompanying solute).
- Free H<sub>2</sub>O balance is regulated largely by vasopressin and, to a lesser degree, by thirst. Both of these factors are governed primarily by hypothalamic osmoreceptors, which monitor ECF osmolarity, and to a lesser extent by left atrial volume receptors, which monitor vascular “fullness.” The amount of vasopressin secreted determines the extent of free H<sub>2</sub>O reabsorption by distal portions of the nephrons, thereby determining the volume of urinary output. (Review Figure 15-4 and Table 15-4.)



weight. This figure varies, depending on how much fat (a tissue with a low H<sub>2</sub>O content) a person has. Two thirds of the body H<sub>2</sub>O is in the ICF. The remaining third, in the ECF, is distributed between plasma (20% of ECF) and interstitial fluid (80% of ECF). (Review Table 15-1.)

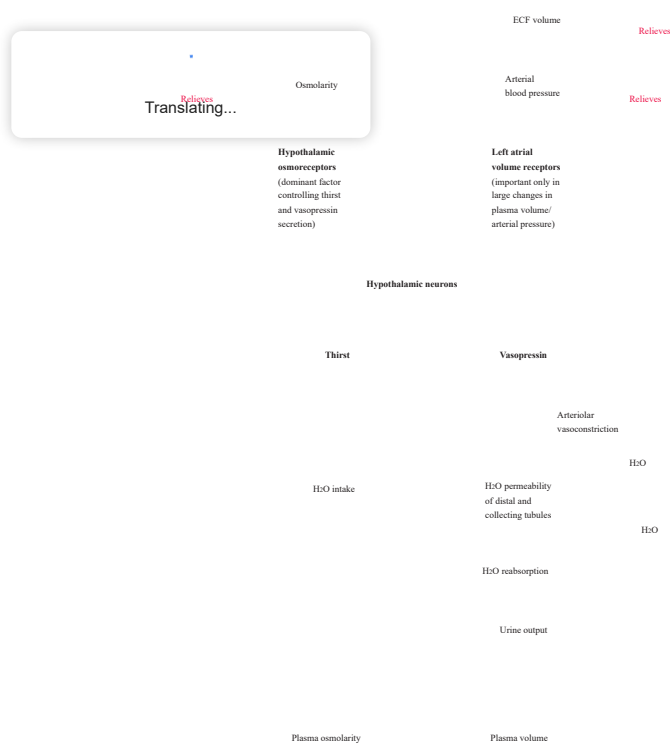
■ Because all plasma constituents are freely exchanged across the capillary walls, the plasma and interstitial fluid are nearly identical in composition, except for the lack of plasma proteins in the interstitial fluid. In contrast, the ECF and ICF have markedly different compositions, because the plasma membrane barriers are highly selective as to what materials are transported into or out of the cells. (Review Figure 15-2.)

■ The essential components of fluid balance are control of ECF volume by maintaining salt balance and control of ECF osmolarity by maintaining water balance. (Review Tables 15-2, 15-3, and 15-5.)

■ Because of the osmotic holding power of Na<sup>+</sup>, the major ECF cation, a change in the body's total Na content, or load, causes a corresponding change in ECF volume, including plasma volume, which alters arterial blood pressure in the same direction. Appropriately, in the long run Na<sup>+</sup>-regulating mechanisms compensate for changes in ECF volume and arterial blood pressure. (Review Table 15-5.)

■ Salt intake is not controlled in humans, but control of salt output in the urine is closely regulated to maintain salt balance. Blood pressure-regulating mechanisms can vary the GFR, and thus the amount of Na filtered, by adjusting the radius of the afferent arterioles supplying the glomeruli. Blood pressure-regulating mechanisms can also vary aldosterone secretion to adjust Na reabsorption by the renal tubules. Varying Na filtration and Na reabsorption can adjust how much Na is excreted in the urine to regulate plasma volume and thus arterial blood pressure in the long term. (Review Figure 15-3.)

■ ECF osmolarity must be closely regulated to prevent osmotic shifts of H<sub>2</sub>O between the ECF and ICF, because cell swelling or shrinking is harmful, especially to brain neurons. Excess free H<sub>2</sub>O in the ECF dilutes ECF solutes; the resulting ECF hypotonicity drives H<sub>2</sub>O into the cells. An ECF free H<sub>2</sub>O deficit, by contrast, concentrates ECF solutes, so H<sub>2</sub>O leaves the cells to enter the hypertonic ECF. (Review Table 15-5.)



■ Simultaneously, intensity of thirst controls the volume of fluid intake. However, because the volume of fluid drunk is often not directly correlated with the intensity of thirst, control of urinary output by vasopressin is the most important regulatory mechanism for maintaining H<sub>2</sub>O balance.

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### Acid-Base Balance (pp. 569–585)

■ Acids liberate free hydrogen ions (H<sup>+</sup>) into solution; bases bind with free hydrogen ions and remove them from solution. (Review Figure 15-5.)

■ Acid-base balance refers to regulation of [H<sup>+</sup>] in the body fluids. To precisely maintain [H<sup>+</sup>], input of H<sup>+</sup> by metabolic production of acids within the body must continually be matched with H<sup>+</sup> output by urinary excretion of H<sup>+</sup> and respiratory removal of H<sup>+</sup>-generating CO<sub>2</sub>. Furthermore, between the time of this generation and its elimination, H<sup>+</sup> must be buffered within the body to prevent marked fluctuations in [H<sup>+</sup>].

■ Hydrogen ion concentration is often expressed in terms of pH, which is the logarithm of 1/[H<sup>+</sup>].

■ The normal pH of the plasma is 7.4, slightly alkaline compared to neutral H<sub>2</sub>O, which has a pH of 7.0. A pH lower than normal (higher [H<sup>+</sup>] than normal) indicates a state of acidosis. A pH higher than normal (lower [H<sup>+</sup>] than normal) characterizes a state of alkalosis. (Review Figure 15-6.)

■ Fluctuations in [H<sup>+</sup>] have profound effects, most notably (1) changes in neuromuscular excitability, with acidosis depressing excitability, especially in the CNS, and alkalosis producing overexcitability of both the PNS and CNS; (2) disruption of normal metabolic reactions by altering the structure and function of all enzymes; and (3) alterations in plasma [K<sup>+</sup>] (which affect cardiac function) brought about by H<sup>+</sup>-induced changes in the rate of K<sup>+</sup> elimination by the kidneys.

■ The primary challenge in controlling acid-base balance is maintaining normal plasma alkalinity despite continual addition of H<sup>+</sup> to the plasma from ongoing metabolic activity. The major source of H<sup>+</sup> is from CO<sub>2</sub>-generated H<sup>+</sup>.

■ The three lines of defense for resisting changes in [H<sup>+</sup>] are *first* the chemical buffer systems, *second* respiratory control of pH, and *third* renal control of pH.

■ Chemical buffer systems each consist of a pair of chemicals involved in a reversible reaction, one that can liberate H<sup>+</sup> and

stimulates respiration so that more H<sup>+</sup>-forming CO<sub>2</sub> is blown off, compensating for acidosis by reducing generation of CO<sub>2</sub>-associated H<sup>+</sup>. Conversely, a fall in [H<sup>+</sup>] depresses respiratory activity so that CO<sub>2</sub> and thus H<sup>+</sup> generated from this source can accumulate in the body fluids to compensate for alkalosis. (Review Table 15-7.)

■ The kidneys are the most powerful line of defense. They require hours to days to compensate for a deviation in body-fluid pH. However, not only can they eliminate the normal amount of H<sup>+</sup> produced from non-CO<sub>2</sub> sources but they can also alter their rate of H<sup>+</sup> removal in response to changes in both non-CO<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>-generated acids. In contrast, the lungs can adjust only H<sup>+</sup> generated from CO<sub>2</sub>. Furthermore, the kidneys can regulate [HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>] in body fluids as well.

■ The kidneys compensate for acidosis by secreting the excess H<sup>+</sup> in the urine while adding new HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to the plasma to expand the HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> buffer pool. During alkalosis, the kidneys conserve H<sup>+</sup> by reducing its secretion in urine. They also eliminate HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, which is in excess because less HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> is used to buffer H<sup>+</sup> when H<sup>+</sup> is in short supply. (Review Figures 15-9 through 15-12 and Table 15-8.)

■ Secreted H<sup>+</sup> must be buffered in the tubular fluid to prevent the H<sup>+</sup> concentration gradient from becoming so great that it blocks further H<sup>+</sup> secretion. Normally, H<sup>+</sup> is buffered by the urinary phosphate buffer pair, which is abundant in the tubular fluid because excess dietary phosphate spills into the urine to be excreted from the body.

■ In acidosis, when all the phosphate buffer is already used up in buffering the extra secreted H<sup>+</sup>, the kidneys secrete NH<sub>3</sub> into the tubular fluid to serve as a buffer so that H<sup>+</sup> secretion can continue.

■ The four types of acid-base imbalances are respiratory acidosis, respiratory alkalosis, metabolic acidosis, and metabolic alkalosis. Respiratory acid-base disorders stem from deviations from normal [CO<sub>2</sub>], whereas metabolic acid-base imbalances include all deviations in pH other than those caused by abnormal [CO<sub>2</sub>]. (Review Figure 15-13 and Table 15-9.)

the other that can bind H<sup>+</sup>. By acting according to the law of mass action, a buffer pair acts immediately to minimize any changes in pH. The four chemical buffers are (1) H<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>:HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, (2) proteins, (3) hemoglobin, and (4) phosphate. (Review Figure 15-8 and Table 15-6.)

- The relationship between pH and the members of the H<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>:HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> buffer pair is represented in the Henderson-Hasselbalch equation:  $\text{pH} = \text{pK} + \log \frac{[\text{HCO}_3^-]}{[\text{CO}_2]}$ , with [CO<sub>2</sub>] reflecting [H<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>]. [HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>] is controlled by the kidneys; [CO<sub>2</sub>] is controlled by the lungs. pK is a constant at 6.1, and the normal ratio of [HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>]/[CO<sub>2</sub>] is 20/1 (the log of which is 1.3), for a normal pH of 7.4.

- The respiratory system normally eliminates metabolically produced CO<sub>2</sub> so that CO<sub>2</sub>-generated H<sup>+</sup> does not accumulate in the body fluids.

- When chemical buffers alone have been unable to immediately minimize a pH change, the respiratory system responds within a few minutes by altering its rate of CO<sub>2</sub> removal. An increase in [H<sup>+</sup>] from sources other than CO<sub>2</sub>

TABLE 15-6

## Chemical Buffers and Their Primary Roles

Translating...

| Buffer System                                   | Major Functions                                      |
|---|--|
| <b>Carbonic Acid: Bicarbonate Buffer System</b> | Primary ECF buffer against non-carbonic acid changes |
| <b>Protein Buffer System</b>                    | Primary ICF buffer; also buffers ECF                 |
| <b>Hemoglobin Buffer System</b>                 | Primary buffer against carbonic acid changes         |
| <b>Phosphate Buffer System</b>                  | Important urinary buffer; also buffers ICF           |

## CHAPTER 16 General Aspects of Digestion (pp. 589–616) Study Card

- The four basic digestive processes are motility, secretion, digestion, and absorption.
- The three classes of energy-rich nutrients are digested into absorbable units as follows: (1) Dietary carbohydrates in the form of the polysaccharides starch and glycogen are digested into monosaccharides, mostly glucose. (Review Figure 16-1.) (2) Dietary proteins are digested into amino acids and a few small polypeptides. (3) Dietary fats (triglycerides) are digested into monoglycerides and free fatty acids.
- The digestive system consists of the digestive tract and accessory digestive organs (salivary glands, exocrine pancreas, and biliary system). (Review Table 16-1.)
- The lumen of the digestive tract (a tube that runs from the mouth to the anus) is continuous with the external environment, so its contents are technically outside the body; this arrangement permits digestion of food without self-digestion occurring in the process.
- The digestive tract wall has four layers. From innermost outward, they are the mucosa, submucosa, muscularis externa, and serosa. (Review Figure 16-2.)
- Digestive activities are carefully regulated by synergistic autonomous, neural (both intrinsic and extrinsic), and hormonal mechanisms to ensure that ingested food is maximally made available to the body. (Review Figure 16-3.)

### Mouth (pp. 596–598)

- **Motility:** Food enters the digestive system through the mouth, where it is chewed and mixed with saliva.
- **Secretion and digestion:** The salivary enzyme, amylase, begins to digest polysaccharides into the disaccharide maltose, a process that continues in the stomach after swallowing. Salivary secretion is controlled by a salivary center in the medulla, mediated by autonomic nerves to the salivary glands. (Review Figures 16-1 and 16-4.)
- **Absorption:** No food is absorbed from the mouth.

### Pharynx and Esophagus (pp. 598–600)

- **Motility:** The tongue propels the bolus of food to the rear of the throat, which initiates the swallowing reflex. The swallowing center in the medulla coordinates a complex group of activities that result in closure of the respiratory passages and propulsion of food through the pharynx and esophagus into the stomach. (Review Figures 16-5 and 16-6.)
- **Secretion, digestion, and absorption:** The esophageal secretion, mucus, is protective. No nutrient digestion or absorption occurs here.

### Stomach (pp. 600–613)

- **Motility:** Gastric motility includes filling, storage, mixing, and emptying. Gastric filling is facilitated by vagally mediated receptive relaxation of the stomach. Gastric storage takes place in the body of the stomach, where peristaltic contractions of the thin muscle walls are too weak to mix the contents. Gastric mixing in the thick-muscle antrum results from vigorous peristaltic contractions. (Review Figures 16-7 and 16-8.)
- Gastric emptying is influenced by factors in both the stomach and duodenum. (1) Increased volume and fluidity of chyme in the stomach promote emptying. (2) Fat, acid, hypertonicity, and distension in the duodenum (the dominant factors controlling gastric emptying) delay gastric emptying until the duodenum is ready to process more chyme. They do so by inhibiting stomach peristaltic activity via the enterogastric reflex and the enterogastrones, secretin and cholecystokinin (CCK), which are secreted by the duodenal mucosa. (Review Figure 16-8 and Table 16-2.)
- **Secretion:** Gastric secretions into the stomach lumen include (1) HCl (from the parietal cells), which activates pepsinogen; (2) pepsinogen (from the chief cells), which, once activated, initiates protein digestion; (3) mucus (from the mucous cells), which provides a protective coating; and (4) intrinsic factor (from the parietal cells), which is needed for vitamin B<sub>12</sub> absorption. (Review Table 16-3 and Figures 16-9, 16-10, and 16-11.)
- The stomach also secretes the hormone gastrin, which plays a dominant role in stimulating gastric secretion, and the paracrines histamine and somatostatin, which stimulate and inhibit gastric secretion, respectively. (Review Table 16-3.)
- Gastric secretion is increased before and during a meal via excitatory vagal and intrinsic nerve responses along with the stimulatory actions of gastrin and histamine. After the meal empties, gastric secretion is reduced by withdrawal of stimulatory factors, release of inhibitory somatostatin, and inhibitory actions of the enterogastric reflex and enterogastrones. (Review Tables 16-4 and 16-5.)
- **Digestion and absorption:** Carbohydrate digestion continues by swallowed salivary amylase in the body of the stomach. Protein digestion is initiated by pepsin in the antrum of the stomach, where vigorous peristaltic contractions mix the food with gastric secretions, converting it to a thick liquid mixture known as chyme. (Review Table 16-6, p. 624.) No nutrients are absorbed from the stomach.

### Pancreatic and Biliary Secretions (pp. 613–621)

- Pancreatic exocrine secretions and bile from the liver both enter the duodenal lumen.
- Pancreatic secretions include (1) potent digestive enzymes from the acinar cells, which digest all three categories of

Translating...

foodstuff; and (2) an aqueous  $\text{NaHCO}_3$  solution from the duct cells, which neutralizes the acidic contents emptied into the duodenum from the stomach. Secretin stimulates the pancreatic duct cells, and CCK stimulates the acinar cells. (Review Figures 16-12 and 16-13.)

- The pancreatic digestive enzymes include (1) the proteolytic enzymes trypsinogen, chymotrypsinogen, and procarboxypeptidase, which are secreted in inactive form and are activated in the duodenal lumen on exposure to enterokinase and activated trypsin; (2) pancreatic amylase, which continues carbohydrate digestion; and (3) lipase, which accomplishes fat digestion. (Review Table 16-6.)

- The liver, the body's largest and most important metabolic organ, performs many varied functions. Its contribution to digestion is the secretion of bile, which contains bile salts. Bile salts aid fat digestion through their detergent action (forming a lipid emulsion) and facilitate fat absorption by forming water-soluble micelles that carry the water-insoluble products of fat digestion to their absorption site. (Review Figures 16-15 through 16-18 and 16-26)

- Between meals, bile is stored and concentrated in the gallbladder, which is stimulated by CCK to contract and empty into the duodenum during meal digestion. After participating in fat digestion and absorption, bile salts are reabsorbed and returned via the hepatic portal system to the liver, where they are resecreted and also act as a potent choleric to stimulate secretion of more bile. (Review Figures 16-14 and 16-16.)

- Bile also contains bilirubin, a derivative of degraded hemoglobin, which is the major excretory product in the feces.

#### Small Intestine (pp. 621–633)

- **Motility:** Segmentation, the small intestine's primary motility during digestion of a meal, thoroughly mixes the chyme with digestive juices to facilitate digestion; it also exposes the products of digestion to the absorptive surfaces. (Review Figure 16-19.) Between meals, the migrating motility complex sweeps the lumen clean.

- **Secretion:** The juice secreted by the small intestine does not contain any digestive enzymes. The enzymes synthesized by the small intestine act within the brush-border membrane of the epithelial cells. (Review Figures 16-24a and 16-25a.)

- **Digestion:** The small intestine is the main site for digestion and absorption. Carbohydrate and protein digestion continues in the small-intestine lumen by the pancreatic enzymes and is completed by the small-intestine brush-border enzymes (disaccharidases and aminopeptidases, respectively). Fat is digested entirely in the small-intestine lumen, by pancreatic lipase. (Review Table 16-6.)

- **Absorption:** The small-intestine lining is remarkably adapted to its digestive and absorptive function. Its folds bear a rich array of fingerlike projections, the villi, which have a multi-

tude of even smaller hairlike protrusions, the microvilli (brush border). Together, these surface modifications tremendously increase the area available to house the membrane-bound enzymes and to accomplish absorption. (Review Figures 16-21, 16-22, and 16-23.) This lining is replaced about every three days to ensure it is optimally healthy despite harsh lumen conditions.

- The energy-dependent process of Na absorption provides the driving force for  $\text{Cl}^-$ , water, glucose, and amino acid absorption. All these absorbed products enter the blood. (Review Figures 16-24b and 16-25b.)

- Because they are not soluble in water, the products of fat digestion must undergo a series of transformations that enable them to be passively absorbed, eventually entering the lymph. (Review Figure 16-26.)

- The small intestine absorbs almost everything presented to it, from ingested food to digestive secretions to sloughed epithelial cells. In contrast to the almost complete, unregulated absorption of ingested nutrients, water, and most electrolytes, the amount of iron and calcium absorbed is variable and subject to control. (Review Figure 16-27.) Only a small amount of fluid and indigestible food residue passes on to the large intestine. (Review Table 16-7.)

#### Large Intestine (pp. 633–637)

- **Motility:** The colon (review Figure 16-28) concentrates and stores undigested food residues (fiber; that is, plant cellulose) and bilirubin until they can be eliminated in the feces. (Review Figure 16-28.) Haustral contractions slowly shuffle the colonic contents back and forth to mix and facilitate absorption of most of the remaining fluid and electrolytes. Mass movements several times a day, usually after meals, propel the feces long distances. Movement of feces into the rectum triggers the defecation reflex.

- **Secretion, digestion, and absorption:** The alkaline mucus secretion is protective. No secretion of digestive enzymes or absorption of nutrients takes place in the colon. Absorption of some of the remaining salt and water converts the colonic contents into feces.

#### Overview of the Gastrointestinal Hormones (pp. 637–638)

- The three major gastrointestinal hormones are *gastrin* from the stomach mucosa and *secretin* and *cholecystokinin* from the duodenal mucosa. Gastrin is released primarily in response to protein in the stomach, and its effects promote digestion of protein. Secretin is released primarily in response to acid in the duodenum, and its effects neutralize the acid. Cholecystokinin is released primarily in response to fat in the duodenum, and its effects optimize conditions for digesting fat.

## 17 Study Card

CHAPTER 17 Energy Balance (pp. 641–650)

- Energy input to the body in the form of food energy must equal energy output, because energy cannot be created or destroyed. Energy output or expenditure includes (1) external work, performed by skeletal muscles to move an external object or move the body through the external environment; and (2) internal work, which consists of all other energy-dependent activities that do not accomplish external work, including active transport, smooth and cardiac muscle contraction, glandular secretion, and protein synthesis. (Review Figure 17-1.)

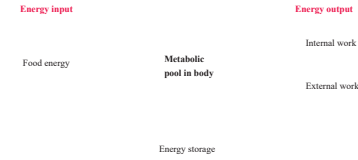
- Only about 25% of the chemical energy in food is harnessed to do biological work. The rest is immediately con-

and promote eating, whereas satiety signals lead to the sensation of fullness and suppress eating. (Review Table 17-3.)

- The arcuate nucleus of the hypothalamus plays a key role in energy homeostasis by virtue of the two clusters of appetite-regulating neurons it contains: neurons that secrete neuropeptide Y (NPY), which increases appetite and food intake; and neurons that secrete melanocortins, which suppress appetite and food intake. (Review Figure 17-2.)

- Adipocytes in fat stores secrete the hormone leptin, which reduces appetite and decreases food consumption by inhibiting the NPY-secreting neurons and stimulating the melanocortins-secreting neurons of the arcuate nucleus. This mechanism is important in the long-term matching of energy intake with energy output, thus maintaining body weight

verted to heat. Furthermore, all the energy expended to accomplish internal work is eventually converted into heat, and 75% of the energy expended by working skeletal muscles is lost as heat. Therefore, most of the energy in food ultimately appears as body heat.



- The metabolic rate (energy expenditure per unit of time) is measured in kilocalories of heat produced per hour.
- The basal metabolic rate (BMR) is a measure of the body's minimal waking rate of internal energy expenditure.
- For a neutral energy balance, the energy in ingested food must equal energy expended in performing external work and transformed into heat. If more energy is consumed than is expended, the extra energy is stored in the body, primarily as adipose tissue, so body weight increases. By contrast, if more energy is expended than is available in the food, body energy stores are used to support energy expenditure, so body weight decreases.
- Usually, body weight remains fairly constant over a prolonged period of time (except during growth) because food intake is adjusted to match energy expenditure on a long-term basis. Food intake is controlled primarily by the hypothalamus by means of complex regulatory mechanisms in which hunger and satiety are important components. Feeding or appetite signals give rise to the sensation of hunger

over the long term. (Review Table 17-2 and Figure 17-2.)

■ Insulin released by the endocrine pancreas in response to increased glucose and other nutrients in the blood also inhibits the NPY-secreting neurons and contributes to long-term control of energy balance and body weight.

■ NPY and melanocortins bring about their effects by acting on the lateral hypothalamus area (LHA) and paraventricular nucleus (PVN) to alter the release of chemical messengers from these areas. The LHA secretes orexins, which are potent stimulators of food intake, whereas the PVN releases neuropeptides such as corticotropin-releasing hormone, which decrease food intake. (Review Figure 17-2.)

■ Short-term control of the timing and size of meals is mediated primarily by the actions of two peptides secreted by the digestive tract. (1) Ghrelin, a mealtime initiator, is secreted by the stomach before a meal and signals hunger. Its secretion drops when food is consumed. Ghrelin stimulates appetite and promotes feeding behavior by stimulating the NPY-secreting neurons. (2) PYY<sub>3-36</sub>, a mealtime terminator, is secreted by the small and large intestines during a meal and signals satiety. Its secretion is lowest before a meal. PYY<sub>3-36</sub> inhibits the NPY-secreting neurons. (Review Figure 17-2.)

■ The nucleus tractus solitarius (NTS) in the brain stem serves as the satiety center and in this capacity also plays a key role in short-term control of meals. The NTS receives input from the higher hypothalamic areas concerned with control of energy balance and food intake as well as input from the digestive tract and pancreas. Satiety signals acting through the NTS to inhibit further food intake include stomach distension and increased CCK, a hormone released from the duodenum in response to the presence of nutrients, especially fat, in the digestive tract lumen. (Review Figure 17-2.)

■ Psychosocial and environmental factors can also influence food intake above and beyond the internal signals that govern feeding behavior. (Review Figure 17-2.)

Temperature Regulation (pp. 650–657)

- The body can be thought of as a heat-generating core (internal organs, CNS, and skeletal muscles) surrounded by a shell of variable insulating capacity (the skin).
- The skin exchanges heat energy with the external environment, with the direction and amount of heat transfer depending on the environmental temperature and the momentary insulating capacity of the shell. The four physical means by which heat is exchanged are (1) radiation (net movement of heat energy via electromagnetic waves); (2) conduction (exchange of heat energy by direct contact); (3) convection (transfer of heat energy by means of air currents); and (4) evaporation (extraction of heat energy from the body by the heat-requiring conversion of liquid H<sub>2</sub>O to H<sub>2</sub>O vapor). Because heat energy moves from warmer to cooler objects, radiation, conduction, and convection can be channels for either heat loss or heat gain, depending on whether surrounding objects are cooler or warmer, respectively, than the body surface. Normally, they are avenues for heat loss, along with evaporation resulting from sweating. (Review Figure 17-4.)
- To prevent serious cell malfunction, the core temperature must be held constant at about 100°F (equivalent to an average oral temperature of 98.2°F) by continuously balancing heat gain and heat loss despite changes in environmental temperature and variation in internal heat production. (Review Figure 17-3.)
- This thermoregulatory balance is controlled by the hypothalamus. The hypothalamus is apprised of the skin temperature by peripheral thermoreceptors and of the core temperature by central thermoreceptors, the most important of which are located in the hypothalamus itself. (Review Figure 17-5.)
- The primary means of heat gain is heat production by metabolic activity, the biggest contributor being skeletal muscle contraction. (Review Figure 17-5.)
- Heat loss is adjusted by sweating and by controlling to the greatest extent possible the temperature gradient between the skin and surrounding environment. The latter is accom-

Change in skin temperature                      Change in core temperature



■ Conversely, in response to a rise in core temperature (resulting either from excessive internal heat production accompanying exercise or from excessive heat gain on exposure to

plished by regulating the diameter of the skin's arterioles.  
 (1) Skin vasoconstriction reduces the flow of warmed blood through the skin so that skin temperature falls. The layer of cool skin between the core and environment increases the insulating barrier between the warm core and the external air.  
 (2) Skin vasodilation brings more warmed blood through the skin so that skin temperature approaches the core temperature, thus reducing the insulative capacity of the skin. (Review Figure 17-5.)

■ On exposure to cool surroundings, the core temperature starts to fall as heat loss increases, because of the larger-than-normal skin-to-air temperature gradient. The posterior hypothalamus responds to reduce the heat loss by inducing skin vasoconstriction while simultaneously increasing heat production through heat-generating shivering. (Review Table 17-4.)

a hot environment), the anterior hypothalamus triggers heat-loss mechanisms, such as skin vasodilation and sweating, while simultaneously decreasing heat production, such as by reducing muscle tone. (Review Table 17-4.)

- In translating heat responses, voluntary behavioral actions also help maintain thermal homeostasis.
- A fever occurs when endogenous pyrogen released from macrophages in response to infection raises the hypothalamic set point. An elevated core temperature develops as the hypothalamus initiates cold-response mechanisms to raise the core temperature to the new set point. (Review Figure 17-6.)

# 18

General Principles of Endocrinology StudyCard

■ Hormones are long-distance chemical messengers secreted by the ductless endocrine glands into the blood, which transports the hormones to specific target cells where they control a particular function by altering protein activity.

■ Hormones are grouped into two categories based on differences in their solubility and are further grouped according to their chemical structure—hydrophilic hormones (peptide hormones, catecholamines, and indoleamines) and lipophilic hormones (steroid hormones and thyroid hormone).

■ The endocrine system is especially important in regulating organic metabolism, H<sub>2</sub>O and electrolyte balance, growth, and reproduction and in helping the body cope with stress. (Review Figure 18-1 and Table 18-2, pp. 667–669.)

■ Some hormones are tropic, meaning their function is to stimulate and maintain other endocrine glands.

■ The effective plasma concentration of each hormone is normally controlled by regulated changes in the rate of hormone secretion. Secretory output of endocrine cells is primarily influenced by two types of direct regulatory inputs:

(1) neural input, which increases hormone secretion in response to a specific need and governs diurnal variations in secretion; and (2) input from another hormone, which involves either stimulatory input from a tropic hormone or inhibitory input from a target-cell hormone in negative-feedback fashion. (Review Figures 18-2, 18-3, and 18-7, p. 675.)

■ The effective plasma concentration of a hormone can also be influenced by its rate of removal from the blood by metabolic inactivation and excretion and, for some hormones, by its rate of peripheral activation or its extent of binding to plasma proteins.

■ Endocrine dysfunction arises when too much or too little of any particular hormone is secreted or when there is decreased target-cell responsiveness to a hormone. (Review Table 18-1.)

■ Target-cell sensitivity to a given plasma concentration of a hormone to which the target cell is responsive can be modified by (1) down regulation (number of target-cell receptors decreases in the face of a prolonged increase in the hormone), (2) permissiveness (one hormone increases the effectiveness of another hormone), (3) synergism (combined effect of two hormones is greater than sum of their separate effects), and (4) antagonism (one hormone decreases the effectiveness of another hormone).

## Hypothalamus and Pituitary (pp. 670–677)

■ The pituitary gland consists of two distinct lobes, the posterior pituitary and the anterior pituitary. (Review Figure 18-4.)

■ The hypothalamus, a portion of the brain, secretes nine peptide hormones. Two are stored in the posterior pituitary, and seven are carried through a special vascular link—the hypothalamic–hypophyseal portal system—to the anterior pituitary, where they regulate the release of particular anterior pituitary hormones. (Review Figures 18-5 and 18-8.)

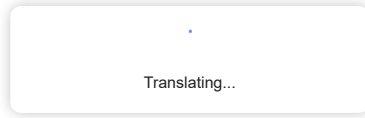
■ The posterior pituitary is a neural extension of the hypothalamus. Cell bodies of neurosecretory neurons in the hypothalamus synthesize two small peptide hormones, vasopressin and oxytocin, which pass down the axon to be stored in nerve terminals within the posterior pituitary. These hormones are independently released from the posterior pituitary into the blood in response to action potentials originating in the hypothalamus. (Review Figure 18-5.)

■ The anterior pituitary secretes six different peptide hormones that it produces itself. Five anterior pituitary hormones are tropic. (1) Thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH) stimulates secretion of thyroid hormone. (2) Adrenocorticotropic hormone (ACTH) stimulates secretion of cortisol from the adrenal cortex. (3 and 4) The gonadotropic hormones—follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH) and luteinizing hormone (LH)—stimulate production of gametes (eggs and sperm) as well as secretion of sex hormones. (5) Growth hormone (GH) stimulates growth indirectly by stimulating liver secretion of IGF-I, which in turn promotes growth. GH exerts metabolic effects as well. (6) Prolactin stimulates milk secretion and is not tropic to another endocrine gland. (Review Figure 18-6.)

■ The anterior pituitary releases its hormones into the blood at the bidding of releasing and inhibiting hormones from the hypothalamus. The hypothalamus, in turn, is influenced by a variety of neural and hormonal controlling inputs. (Review Table 18-4 and Figures 18-7 and 18-8.)



■ Both the hypothalamus and anterior pituitary are inhibited in negative-feedback fashion by the product of the target endocrine gland in the hypothalamus–anterior pituitary–target-gland axis. (Review Figure 18-7.)

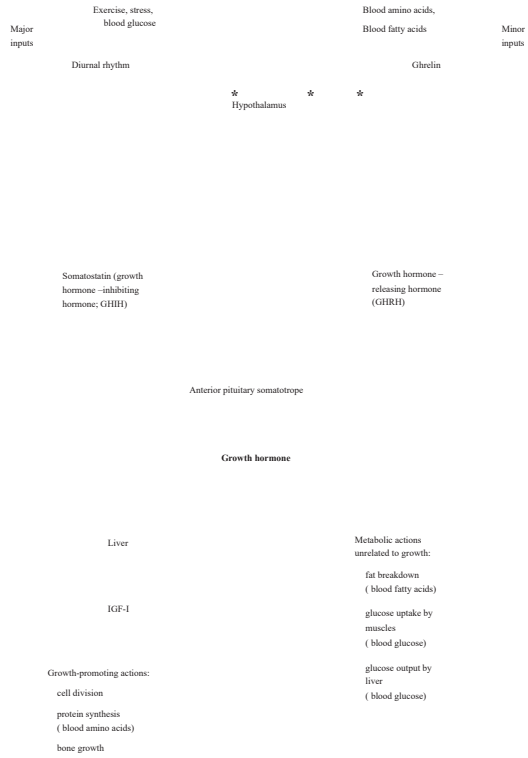


**Endocrine Control of Growth (pp. 677–685)**

- Growth depends not only on growth hormone and other growth-influencing hormones such as thyroid hormone, insulin, and the sex hormones but also on genetic determination, an adequate diet, and freedom from chronic disease or stress. Major growth spurts occur the first few years after birth and during puberty. (Review Figure 18-9.)
- Growth hormone (GH) promotes growth indirectly by stimulating liver production of an insulin-like growth factor, IGF-I, which acts directly on soft tissues and bone to bring about growth-promoting actions. The GH/IGF-I pathway causes growth by stimulating protein synthesis, cell division, and the lengthening and thickening of bones. (Review Figures 18-10 and 18-11.)
- Growth hormone also directly exerts metabolic effects unrelated to growth, such as conservation of carbohydrates and mobilization of fat stores. (Review Figure 18-11.)
- Growth hormone secretion by the anterior pituitary is regulated by two hypothalamic hormones, growth hormone-releasing hormone (GHRH) and growth hormone-inhibiting hormone (somatostatin). In negative-feedback fashion, IGF-I and GH both inhibit GHRH and stimulate somatostatin. (Review Figure 18-11.)
- Growth hormone levels are not highly correlated with periods of rapid growth. The primary signals for increased growth hormone secretion are related to metabolic needs rather than growth, namely, deep sleep (during diurnal rhythm), exercise, stress, and low blood glucose.

**Pineal Gland and Circadian Rhythms (pp. 685–687)**

- The suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN) is the body's master biological clock. Self-induced cyclic variations in the concentration of clock proteins within the SCN bring about cyclic changes in neural discharge from this area. Each cycle takes about a day and drives the body's circadian (daily) rhythms.
- The inherent rhythm of this endogenous oscillator is a bit longer than 24 hours. Therefore, each day the body's circadian rhythms must be entrained or adjusted to keep pace with environmental cues so that the internal rhythms are synchronized with the external light–dark cycle.
- In the eyes, special photoreceptors that respond to light but are not involved in vision send input to the SCN. Acting through the SCN, the pineal gland's secretion of the hormone melatonin rhythmically fluctuates with the light–dark cycle, decreasing in the light and increasing in the dark. Mel-



\*These factors all increase growth hormone secretion, but it is unclear whether they do so by stimulating GHRH or inhibiting GHIH somatostatin, or both.

atonin, in turn, is believed to synchronize the body's natural circadian rhythms, such as diurnal (day–night) variations in hormone secretion and body temperature, with external cues such as the light–dark cycle.

- Other proposed roles for melatonin include (1) promoting sleep; (2) influencing reproductive activity, including the onset of puberty; (3) acting as an antioxidant to remove damaging free radicals; and (4) enhancing immunity.

**19** **CHAPTER (pp. 691–698)** **Study Card**

- The thyroid gland contains two types of endocrine secretory cells: (1) follicular cells, which produce the iodide-containing hormones, T<sub>4</sub> (thyroxine or tetraiodothyronine) and T<sub>3</sub> (tri-iodothyronine), collectively known as thyroid hormone; and (2) C cells, which synthesize a Ca<sup>2+</sup>-regulating hormone, calcitonin. (Review Figure 19-1.)
- Most steps of thyroid hormone synthesis take place on large thyroglobulin molecules within the colloid, an “inland” extracellular site within the interior of the spherical thyroid follicles. Dietary iodine is transported as iodide (I<sup>-</sup>) from the blood into the follicular cells by the iodide pump, an energy-dependent symporter. From the follicular cells, I<sup>-</sup> enters the colloid where it iodates the amino acid tyrosine within thy-

- Cortisol helps regulate fuel metabolism and is important in stress adaptation. It increases blood levels of glucose, amino acids, and fatty acids and spares glucose for use by the glucose-dependent brain. The mobilized organic molecules are available for use as needed for energy or repair. Cortisol secretion is regulated by a negative-feedback loop involving hypothalamic CRH and pituitary ACTH. Stress is the most potent stimulus for increasing activity of the CRH–ACTH–cortisol axis. Cortisol also displays a characteristic diurnal rhythm. (Review Figures 18-3, p. 665; 18-7, p. 675; 19-9; and 19-13 and Table 19-2, p. 708.)
- Dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA) governs the sex drive and growth of axillary and pubertal hair in females. It has no observable effect in males, in whom it is overpowered by testosterone. DHEA is under control of CRH/ACTH but negatively

roglobulin, yielding monoiodothyronine (MIT) and di-iodothyronine (DIT). Coupling of MIT and DIT produces  $T_3$ ; coupling of two DITs produces  $T_4$ . Thyroid hormone is secreted by follicular cells phagocytizing a piece of colloid and freeing  $T_4$  and  $T_3$ , which enter the blood. (Review Figure 19-2.)

- Thyroid hormone is the primary determinant of the overall metabolic rate of the body. By accelerating metabolic rate, it increases heat production. It also enhances the actions of the sympathetic catecholamines and is essential for normal growth and for development and function of the nervous system.

- Thyroid hormone secretion is regulated by a negative-feedback system between hypothalamic TRH, anterior pituitary TSH, and thyroid gland  $T_3$  and  $T_4$ . The feedback loop maintains thyroid hormone levels relatively constant. Cold exposure in newborn infants is the only input for increasing TRH and thus thyroid hormone secretion. (Review Figure 19-3.)

#### Adrenal Glands (pp. 698–707)

- Each adrenal gland (of the pair) consists of two separate endocrine organs—an outer, steroid-secreting adrenal cortex and an inner, catecholamine-secreting adrenal medulla. (Review Figure 19-7.)

- Each steroid hormone is produced by stepwise modifications of cholesterol via specific enzymes present in a given steroidogenic endocrine gland. The adrenal cortex has enzymes to produce three categories of steroid hormones: mineralocorticoids (primarily aldosterone), glucocorticoids (primarily cortisol), and adrenal sex hormones (primarily the weak androgen, dehydroepiandrosterone). (Review Figure 19-8.)

- Aldosterone regulates Na and K balance and is important for blood pressure homeostasis, which is achieved secondarily by the osmotic effect of Na in maintaining the plasma volume, a lifesaving effect. Control of aldosterone secretion is related to Na and K balance and to blood pressure regulation and is not influenced by ACTH. Aldosterone is controlled by the renin–angiotensin–aldosterone system (RAAS) and by a direct effect of K on the adrenal cortex. (Review Figure 14-22, p. 535).

feeds back to the gonadotropin loop.

- The adrenal medulla consists of modified sympathetic postganglionic neurons known as chromaffin cells, which secrete the catecholamine epinephrine into the blood in response to sympathetic stimulation. (Review Figure 7-2, p. 239.) Epinephrine reinforces the sympathetic system in mounting fight-or-flight responses and in maintaining arterial blood pressure. It also increases blood glucose and blood fatty acids. The primary stimulus for increased epinephrine secretion is activation of the sympathetic system by stress. (Review Table 19-2 and Figure 19-13.)

#### Integrated Stress Response (pp. 707–710)

- The term *stress* refers to the generalized nonspecific response of the body to any factor that overwhelms, or threatens to overwhelm, the body's compensatory ability to maintain homeostasis. The term *stressor* refers to any noxious stimulus that elicits the stress response. (Review Figure 19-12.)

- In addition to specific responses to various stressors, all stressors produce a similar generalized stress response: (1) increased sympathetic and epinephrine activity, which prepares the body for fight-or-flight; (2) activation of the CRH–ACTH–cortisol axis, which helps the body cope with stress by mobilizing metabolic resources; (3) elevation of blood glucose and fatty acids through decreased insulin and increased glucagon secretion; and (4) maintenance of blood volume and blood pressure through increased activity of RAAS and vasopressin. All these actions are coordinated by the hypothalamus. (Review Figure 19-13 and Table 19-2.)

#### Endocrine Control of Fuel Metabolism (pp. 710–726)

- Intermediary or fuel metabolism is, collectively, the synthesis (anabolism), breakdown (catabolism), and transformations of the three classes of energy-rich organic nutrients—carbohydrate, fat, and protein—within the body. Glucose and fatty acids derived from carbohydrates and fats, respectively, are primarily used as metabolic fuels, whereas amino acids

derived from proteins are primarily used for synthesis of structural and enzymatic proteins. (Review Tables 19-3 and 19-4 and Figure 19-14.)

- During the *absorptive state* following a meal, excess absorbed nutrients not immediately needed for energy production or protein synthesis are stored to a limited extent as glycogen in the liver and muscle but mostly as triglycerides in adipose tissue. During the *postabsorptive state* between meals when no new nutrients are entering the blood, the glycogen and triglyceride stores are catabolized to release nutrient molecules into the blood. If necessary, body proteins are degraded to release amino acids for conversion into glucose (gluconeogenesis). The blood glucose concentration must be maintained above a critical level even during the postabsorptive state because the brain depends on blood-delivered glucose as its energy source. Tissues not dependent on glucose switch to fatty acids as their metabolic fuel, sparing glucose for the brain. (Review Table 19-5.)

- Blood glucose concentration is controlled by factors that regulate glucose uptake by cells and glucose output by the liver. (Review Figure 19-16.)

- The shifts in metabolic pathways between the absorptive and postabsorptive state are controlled by hormones, the most important being insulin. Insulin is secreted by the cells of the islets of Langerhans, the endocrine portion of the pancreas. (Review Figure 19-15 and Table 19-6.)

- Insulin is an anabolic hormone; it promotes the cellular uptake of glucose, fatty acids, and amino acids and enhances their conversion into glycogen, triglycerides, and proteins, respectively. In so doing, it lowers the blood concentrations of these small organic molecules. Insulin secretion is increased during the absorptive state, primarily by a direct effect of an elevated blood glucose on the cells via excitation-secretion coupling. Insulin directs nutrients into cells during this state. (Review Figures 19-17 through 19-21.)

- Glucagon, secreted by the pancreatic cells, mobilizes the energy-rich molecules from their stores during the postabsorptive state. Glucagon, which is secreted in response to a

balance—and depends on hormonal control of exchanges between the ECF and three compartments: bone, kidneys, and intestine. Regulation of  $Ca^{2+}$  homeostasis, maintenance of a constant free plasma  $Ca^{2+}$  concentration, involves rapid exchanges between bone and the ECF and to a lesser extent to adjustments in urinary  $Ca^{2+}$  excretion. Regulation of  $Ca^{2+}$  balance, maintenance of a constant total amount of  $Ca^{2+}$  in the body, is accomplished by adjustments in  $Ca^{2+}$  absorption from the intestine and urinary  $Ca^{2+}$  excretion.

- Bone consists of an organic extracellular matrix, the osteoid, which is hardened by precipitation of calcium phosphate crystals. Bone constantly undergoes remodeling by means of bone-dissolving osteoclasts and bone-building osteoblasts. Entombed osteocytes are “retired” osteoblasts that have deposited bone around themselves. Osteoblasts and osteocytes are interconnected by long cytoplasmic arms that extend through the tiny canals that permeate the hardened bone, forming a continuous osteocytic-osteoblastic bone membrane. (Review Figures 19-23 and 19-24.)

- Three hormones regulate the plasma concentration of  $Ca^{2+}$  (and concurrently regulate  $PO_4^{3-}$ )—parathyroid hormone (PTH), calcitonin, and vitamin D.

- PTH, whose secretion is directly increased by a fall in plasma  $Ca^{2+}$  concentration, acts directly on bone and kidneys and indirectly on the intestine to raise plasma  $Ca^{2+}$ . In so doing, it is essential for life by preventing the fatal consequences of hypocalcemia. PTH promotes  $Ca^{2+}$  movement across the osteocytic-osteoblastic bone membrane from the bone fluid into the plasma in the short term and promotes localized dissolution of bone in the long term by enhancing osteoclasts and suppressing osteoblasts. (Review Figures 19-24 and 19-25.)

- Dissolution of the calcium phosphate bone crystals releases  $PO_4^{3-}$  as well as  $Ca^{2+}$  into the plasma. PTH acts on the kidneys to enhance the reabsorption of filtered  $Ca^{2+}$ , thereby reducing the urinary excretion of  $Ca^{2+}$  and increasing its plasma concentration. Simultaneously, PTH reduces renal  $PO_4^{3-}$  reabsorption, in this way increasing  $PO_4^{3-}$  excretion and lowering plasma  $PO_4^{3-}$  levels. This is important because a rise in plasma  $PO_4^{3-}$  would force the redeposition of some

direct effect of a fall in blood glucose on the cells, in general opposes the actions of insulin. (Review Figures 19-15, 19-20, and 19-21.)

### Endocrine Control of Calcium Metabolism (pp. 726–737)

- Changes in the concentration of free, diffusible plasma  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , the biologically active form of this ion, produce profound and life-threatening effects, most notably on neuromuscular excitability. Hypercalcemia reduces excitability, whereas hypocalcemia brings about overexcitability of nerves and muscles. If the overexcitability is severe enough, fatal spastic contractions of respiratory muscles can occur.
- Control of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  metabolism involves two aspects—regulation of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  homeostasis and regulation of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$

of the plasma  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  back into the bone. (Review Figure 19-28.)

- PTH facilitates activation of vitamin D, which in turn stimulates  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  absorption from the intestine. The skin can synthesize vitamin D from cholesterol when exposed to sunlight, but frequently this endogenous source is inadequate, so vitamin D must be supplemented by dietary intake. From either source, vitamin D must be activated first by the liver and then by the kidneys (the site of PTH regulation of vitamin D activation) before it can exert its effect. (Review Figures 19-26 and 19-27.)
- Calcitonin, a hormone produced by the C cells of the thyroid gland, is secreted in response to an increase in plasma  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and lowers plasma  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  by inhibiting activity of bone osteoclasts. Calcitonin is unimportant except during the rare condition of hypercalcemia. (Review Figure 19-25.)

## 20 Uniqueness of the Reproductive System Study Card

- Both sexes produce gametes (reproductive cells), sperm in males and ova (eggs) in females, each of which bears one member of each of the 23 pairs of chromosomes present in human cells. Union of a sperm and an ovum at fertilization results in the beginning of a new individual with 23 complete pairs of chromosomes, half from each parent. (Review Figure 20-3.)
- The reproductive system is anatomically and functionally distinct in males and females. Males produce sperm and deliver them into the female. Females produce ova, accept sperm delivery, and provide a suitable environment for supporting development of a fertilized ovum until the new individual can survive on its own in the external world.
- In both sexes, the reproductive system consists of (1) a pair of gonads, testes in males and ovaries in females, which are the primary reproductive organs that produce the gametes and secrete sex hormones; (2) a reproductive tract composed of a system of ducts that transport and/or house the gametes after they are produced; and (3) accessory sex glands that provide supportive secretions for the gametes. The external genitalia are the externally visible parts of the reproductive system. (Review Figures 20-1 and 20-2.) Secondary sexual characteristics are the distinguishing features between males and females not directly related to reproduction.
- Sex determination is a genetic phenomenon dependent on the combination of sex chromosomes at the time of fertilization: An XY combination is a genetic male, and an XX combination, a genetic female. Sexual differentiation refers to the embryonic development of the gonads, reproductive tract, and external genitalia along male or female lines, which gives rise to the apparent anatomic sex of the individual. In the presence of masculinizing factors, a male reproductive system develops; in their absence, a female system develops. (Review Figures 20-4, 20-5, and 20-6.)

### Male Reproductive Physiology (pp. 749–758)

- The testes are located in the scrotum. The cooler temperature in the scrotum than in the abdominal cavity is essential for spermatogenesis (sperm production), which occurs in the testes' highly coiled seminiferous tubules. Leydig cells in the interstitial spaces between these tubules secrete the male sex hormone testosterone into the blood. (Review Figure 20-7 and 20-8.)
- Testosterone is secreted before birth to masculinize the developing reproductive system; then its secretion ceases until puberty, at which time it begins once again and continues throughout life. Testosterone is responsible for maturation and maintenance of the entire male reproductive tract, for development of secondary sexual characteristics, and for stimulating libido. (Review Table 20-1.)
- The testes are regulated by the anterior pituitary gonadotropic hormones, luteinizing hormone (LH) and follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH), which are under control of hypo-

thalamic gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH). (Review Figure 20-10.)

- Testosterone secretion is regulated by LH stimulation of the Leydig cells, and in negative-feedback fashion, testosterone inhibits LH secretion. (Review Figure 20-10.)
- Spermatogenesis requires both testosterone and FSH. Testosterone stimulates the mitotic and meiotic divisions required to transform the undifferentiated diploid germ cells, the spermatogonia, into undifferentiated haploid spermatids. FSH stimulates the remodeling of spermatids into highly specialized motile spermatozoa. (Review Figures 20-7, 20-8, and 20-10.)
- A spermatozoon consists only of a DNA-packed head bearing an enzyme-filled acrosome at its tip for penetrating the ovum, a midpiece containing the mitochondria for energy production, and a whiplike motile tail. (Review Figure 20-9.)
- Also present in the seminiferous tubules are Sertoli cells, which protect, nurse, and enhance the germ cells throughout their development. Sertoli cells also secrete inhibin, a hormone that inhibits FSH secretion, completing the negative-feedback loop. (Review Figures 20-7b and d and 20-10.)
- The still immature sperm are flushed out of the seminiferous tubules into the epididymis by fluid secreted by the Sertoli cells. The epididymis and ductus deferens store and concentrate the sperm and increase their motility and fertility prior to ejaculation. During ejaculation, the sperm are mixed with secretions released by the accessory glands. (Review Table 20-2 and Figure 20-7.)
- The seminal vesicles supply fructose for energy and prostaglandins, which promote smooth muscle motility in both the male and female reproductive tracts to enhance sperm transport. The seminal vesicles also contribute the bulk of the semen. The prostate gland contributes an alkaline fluid to neutralize the acidic vaginal secretions. The bulbourethral glands release lubricating mucus.

### Sexual Intercourse between Males and Females (pp. 759–764)

- The male sex act consists of erection and ejaculation, which are part of a much broader systemic sexual response cycle. (Review Table 20-4.)
- Erection is a hardening of the normally flaccid penis that enables it to penetrate the female vagina. Erection is accomplished by marked vasocongestion of the penis brought about by reflexly induced vasodilation of the arterioles supplying the penile erectile tissue. (Review Figures 20-12 and 20-13.)
- When sexual excitation reaches a critical peak, ejaculation occurs. It consists of two stages: (1) emission, the emptying of semen (sperm and accessory sex gland secretions) into the urethra; and (2) expulsion of semen from the penis. The latter is accompanied by a set of characteristic systemic responses and intense pleasure referred to as orgasm. (Review Table 20-4.)



Translating...

■ Females experience a sexual response cycle similar to that of males, with both having excitation, plateau, orgasmic, and resolution phases. Like the penis, the highly vascular clitoris undergoes erection (but not ejaculation). (Review Figure 20-12.) During sexual response, the outer portion of the vagina constricts to grip the penis, and the inner part expands to create space for sperm deposition.

#### Female Reproductive Physiology (pp. 764–796)

■ In the nonpregnant state, female reproductive function is controlled by a complex, cyclic, negative-feedback control system between the hypothalamus (GnRH), anterior pituitary (FSH and LH), and ovaries (estrogen, progesterone, and inhibin). During pregnancy, placental hormones become the main controlling factors.

■ The ovaries perform the dual and interrelated functions of oogenesis (producing ova) and secretion of estrogen and progesterone. (Review Table 20-6, p. 794.) Two related ovarian endocrine units sequentially accomplish these functions: the follicle and the corpus luteum.

■ The same steps in chromosome replication and division take place in oogenesis as in spermatogenesis, but the timing and end result are markedly different. Spermatogenesis is accomplished within two months, but the similar steps in oogenesis take anywhere from 12 to 50 years to complete on a cyclic basis from the onset of puberty until menopause. A female is born with a limited, nonrenewable supply of germ cells, whereas postpubertal males can produce several hundred million sperm each day. Each primary oocyte yields only one cytoplasm-rich ovum along with three doomed cytoplasm-poor polar bodies that disintegrate, whereas each primary spermatocyte yields four equally viable spermatozoa. (Review Figures 20-14, 20-15, and Figure 20-8, p. 753.)

■ Oogenesis and estrogen secretion take place within an ovarian follicle during the first half of each reproductive cycle (the follicular phase) under the influence of FSH, LH, and estrogen. (Review Figures 20-16 through 20-20.)

■ At approximately midcycle, the maturing follicle releases a single ovum (ovulation). Ovulation is triggered by an LH surge brought about by the high level of estrogen produced by the mature follicle. (Review Figures 20-16, 20-18, and 20-21.)

■ LH converts the empty follicle into a corpus luteum (CL), which produces progesterone and estrogen during the last half of the cycle (the luteal phase). This endocrine unit prepares the uterus for implantation if the released ovum is fertilized. (Review Figures 20-16, 20-18, and 20-22.)

■ If fertilization and implantation do not occur, the CL degenerates, withdrawing hormonal support for the highly developed uterine lining, causing it to disintegrate and slough, producing menstrual flow. Simultaneously, a new follicular phase is initiated. (Review Figures 20-16 and 20-18.)

■ Menstruation ceases and the uterine lining (endometrium) repairs itself under the influence of rising estrogen levels from the newly maturing follicle. (Review Figure 20-18.)

■ If fertilization does take place, it occurs in the oviduct as the released egg and sperm deposited in the vagina are both transported to this site. (Review Figures 20-23 through 20-25.)

■ The fertilized ovum begins to divide mitotically. Within a week it grows and differentiates into a blastocyst capable of implantation. (Review Figure 20-26.)

■ Meanwhile, the endometrium has become richly vascularized and stocked with stored glycogen under the influence of luteal-phase progesterone. (Review Figure 20-18.) Into this especially prepared lining the blastocyst implants by means of enzymes released by the trophoblasts, which form the blastocyst's outer layer. These enzymes digest the nutrient-rich endometrial tissue, accomplishing the dual function of carving a hole in the endometrium for implantation of the blastocyst while simultaneously releasing nutrients from the endometrial cells for use by the developing embryo. (Review Figure 20-27.)

■ After implantation, an interlocking combination of fetal and maternal tissues, the placenta, develops. The placenta is the organ of exchange between maternal and fetal blood and also acts as a transient, complex endocrine organ that secretes a number of hormones essential for pregnancy. Human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG), estrogen, and progesterone are the most important of these hormones. hCG maintains the CL of pregnancy, which secretes estrogen and progesterone during the first trimester of gestation until the placenta takes over this function in the last two trimesters. High levels of estrogen and progesterone are essential for maintaining a normal pregnancy. (Review Figures 20-28, 20-30, and 20-31 and Table 20-5.)

■ At parturition, rhythmic contractions of increasing strength, duration, and frequency accomplish the three stages of labor: dilation of the cervix, birth of the baby, and delivery of the placenta (afterbirth). (Review Figure 20-33.)

■ Parturition is initiated by a complex interplay of multiple maternal and fetal factors. Once the contractions are initiated at the onset of labor, a positive-feedback cycle is established that progressively increases their force. As contractions push the fetus against the cervix, secretion of oxytocin, a powerful uterine muscle stimulant, is reflexly increased. The extra oxytocin causes stronger contractions, giving rise to even more oxytocin release, and so on. This positive-feedback cycle progressively intensifies until cervical dilation and delivery are complete. (Review Figure 20-32.)

■ During gestation, the breasts are specially prepared for lactation. The elevated levels of placental estrogen and progesterone, respectively, promote development of the ducts and alveoli in the mammary glands. (Review Figure 20-34.)

■ Prolactin stimulates the synthesis of enzymes essential for milk production by the alveolar epithelial cells. However, the high gestational level of estrogen and progesterone prevents prolactin from promoting milk production. Withdrawal of the placental steroids at parturition initiates lactation.

■ Lactation is sustained by suckling, which triggers the release of oxytocin and prolactin. Oxytocin causes milk ejection (letdown) by stimulating the myoepithelial cells surrounding the alveoli to squeeze the secreted milk out through the ducts. Prolactin stimulates secretion of more milk to replace the milk the baby nurses. (Review Figures 20-34 and 20-35.)