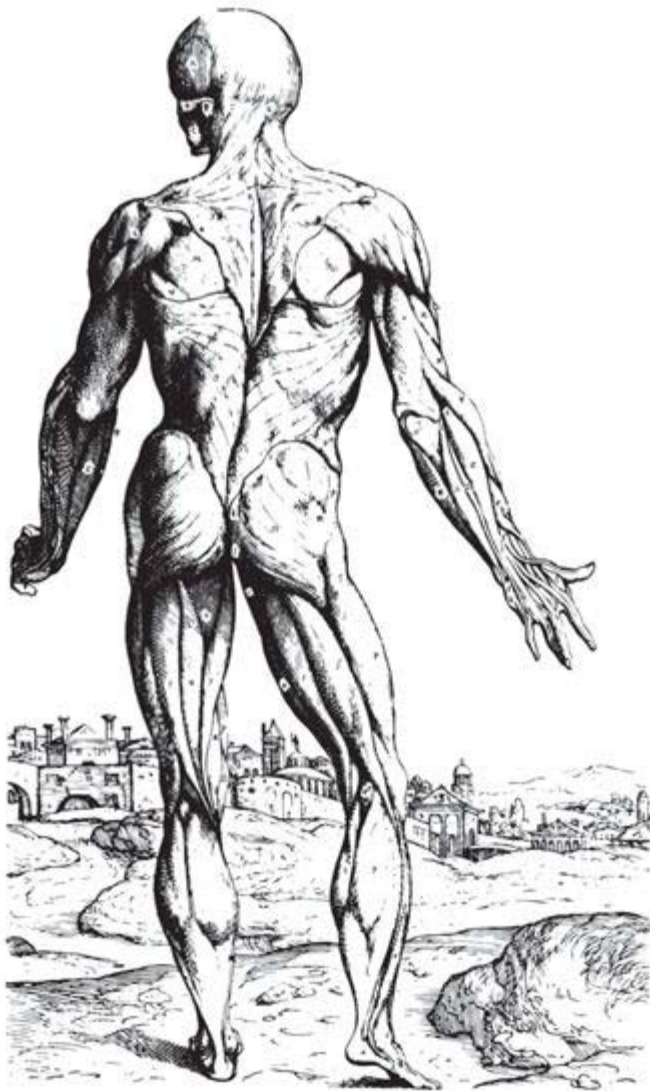


# Chapter 1 - Introduction to Human Anatomy and Physiology

## Section 1.1

### INTRODUCTION

Our understanding of the human body has a long and interesting history (fig. 1.1). Our earliest ancestors must have been curious about how their bodies worked. At first their interests most likely concerned injuries and illnesses, because healthy bodies demand little attention from their owners. Primitive people suffered aches and pains, injured themselves, bled, broke bones, developed diseases, and contracted infections.



**FIGURE 1.1**

**The** study of the human body has a long history, as this illustration from the second book of *De Humani Corporis Fabrica* by Andreas Vesalius, issued in 1543, indicates. Note the similarity to the anatomical position (described on p. 28).

The change from a hunter-gatherer to an agricultural lifestyle, which occurred from 6,000 to 10,000 years ago in various parts of the world, altered the spectrum of human illnesses. Before agriculture, isolated bands of peoples had little contact with each other, and so infectious diseases did not spread easily, as they do today with our global connections. These ancient peoples ate wild plants that provided chemicals that combated some parasitic infections. A man who died in the Austrian/Italian Alps 5,300 years ago and whose body was found frozen was carrying mushrooms that had antibiotic activity.

With agriculture came exposure to pinworms, tapeworms, and hookworms in excrement used as fertilizer, and less reliance on the natural drugs in wild plants. Urbanization brought more infectious disease as well as malnutrition, as people became sedentary and altered their diets. Evidence from preserved bones and teeth chronicle these changes. Tooth decay, for example, affected 3% of samples from hunter-gatherers, but 8.7% from farmers, and 17% of samples from city residents. Preserved bones from children reflect increasing malnutrition as people moved from the grasslands to farms to cities. When a child starves or suffers from severe infection, the ends of the long bones stop growing. When health returns, growth resumes, but leaves behind telltale areas of dense bone.

The rise of medical science paralleled human prehistory and history. At first, healers relied heavily on superstitions and notions about magic. However, as they tried to help the sick, these early medical workers began to discover useful ways of examining and treating the human body. They observed the effects of injuries, noticed how wounds healed, and examined dead bodies to determine the causes of death. They also found that certain herbs and potions could treat coughs, headaches, and other common problems. These long-ago physicians began to wonder how these substances, the forerunners of modern drugs, affected body functions.

People began asking more questions and seeking answers, setting the stage for the development of modern medical science. Techniques for making accurate observations and performing careful experiments evolved, and knowledge of the human body expanded rapidly.

This new knowledge of the structure and function of the human body required a new, specialized language. Early medical providers devised many terms to name body parts, describe their locations, and explain their functions. These terms, most of which originated from Greek and Latin, formed the basis for the language of anatomy and physiology. (A list of some of the modern medical and applied sciences appears on pp. 32–33.)

Study of corpses was forbidden in Europe during the Middle Ages, but dissection of dead bodies became a key part of medical education in the twentieth century. Today, cadaver dissection remains an important method to learn how the body functions and malfunctions, and autopsies are vividly depicted on television crime dramas. However, the traditional gross anatomy course in medical schools is sometimes supplemented with learning from body parts already dissected by instructors (in contrast to students doing this) as well as with computerized scans of cadavers, such as the Visible Human Project from the National Library of Medicine and Anatomy and Physiology Revealed available with this textbook.

Much of what is known about the human body is based on *scientific method*, an approach to investigating the natural world. It is part of a general process called scientific inquiry. Scientific method consists of testing a hypothesis and then rejecting or accepting it, based on the results of experiments or observations. This method is described in greater detail in Appendix A, Scientific Method (p. 926), but it is likely that aspects of its application are already familiar.

Imagine buying a used car. The dealer insists it is in fine shape, but the customer discovers that the engine doesn't start. That's an experiment! It tests the hypothesis: If this car is in good shape, then it will start. When the car doesn't start, the wary consumer rejects the hypothesis and doesn't buy the car.

Rather than giving us all the answers, science eliminates wrong explanations. Our knowledge of the workings of the human body reflects centuries of asking questions, testing, rejecting, and sometimes accepting hypotheses. New technologies provide new views of anatomy and physiology, so that knowledge is always growing. One day you may be the one to discover something previously unknown about the human body!

## PRACTICE

- 1 What factors probably stimulated an early interest in the human body?
- 2 How did human health change as lifestyle changed?
- 3 What types of activities helped promote the development of modern medical science?