

CONTENTS

Preface	10
Acknowledgements	11

Part I. Introduction to Histology

Chapter 1. Subject and Aims of Histology. Levels of Structural and Functional Organization of Living Beings	15
Test Questions	17
Chapter 2. A Brief Historical Sketch of the Development of Microscopy, Histology and Embryology	18
Test Questions	31
Chapter 3. Research Methods in Histology and Embryology	32
3.1. Research Methods in Histology	32
3.2. Research Methods in Embryology	43
Test Questions	44

Part II. Cytology

Chapter 4. Basics of General Cytology	47
4.1. Morphofunctional Cell Systems	49
4.1.1. Integumentary Cell System (Plasmalemma)	50
4.1.2. The Internal Metabolic Environment (Cytoplasm) and Its Compartments	58
4.1.3. Cell Cytoskeletal System	74
4.1.4. Cellular Reactivity System (Perception, Transformation and Transmitting of Signals)	80
4.2. Cell Reproduction	81
4.3. Cells Growth and Differentiation	85
4.4. Reactive Cellular Changes and Cell Death	87
4.5. Conclusion	91
Test Questions	92

Part III. The Study of Tissues (General Histology)

Chapter 5. General Principles of Organization, Development and Classification of Tissues	95
5.1. Tissues as Structural Components of Living Systems	95
5.2. Development of Tissue Sources in Some Vertebrates. Germ Sheets and Embryonal Tissue Germs. Tissue Stem Cells	96
5.3. Embryonal Histogenesis	100
5.4. Tissue Classification	105
Test Questions	108
Chapter 6. System of Epithelial Tissues and Their Derivatives	109
6.1. Skin Epithelium	112
6.2. Intestinal Epithelium	116

6.3. Kidney Epithelium	118
6.4. Coelomic Epithelium	119
6.5. Neuroglial Epithelium	120
6.6. Secretory Epithelia and Glands	121
6.7. Physiological and Reparative Regeneration of Epithelia and Glands	123
Test Questions	123
Chapter 7. Tissues of the Internal Environment of the Body	
(With Metabolic Function)	124
7.1. Reticular Tissue	124
7.2. Blood and Lymph as Tissues	125
7.3. Blood Formation (Hematopoiesis)	135
7.4. Age-related Changes and Reactivity of the Blood System	142
7.5. Connective Tissues	143
7.5.1. Loose Connective Tissue	143
7.5.2. Adipose Tissue	153
7.5.3. Muroid Connective Tissue	154
7.6. Endothelium	154
7.7. Interaction Between Blood Circulatory System Cells and Connective Tissue in the Conditions of Inflammation and Tissue Regeneration	155
Test Questions	156
Chapter 8. Connective Tissues with Mechanical Supporting Function	157
8.1. Dense Connective Tissues	157
8.2. Skeletal Tissues	158
8.2.1. Cartilage Tissues	158
8.2.2. Bone Tissues	161
Test Questions	167
Chapter 9. Muscle Tissues	168
9.1. Skeletal Striated Muscle Tissue	168
9.2. Cardiac Striated Muscle Tissue	172
9.3. Smooth Muscle Tissue	177
9.4. Myoneural Tissue	180
9.5. Myoid Cells	181
Test Questions	182
Chapter 10. Tissues of the Nervous System	183
10.1. Neurons	185
10.2. Neuroglia	190
10.3. Nerve Fibers and Nerve Endings Synapses	192
10.4. Reflex Arcs	198
10.5. Regeneration of Histological Elements in Nervous Tissue	199
Test Questions	200
Chapter 11. Tissue Reactivity and Regeneration	201
11.1. Tissue Reactivity	201
11.2. Physiological Regeneration and Regenerative Histogenesis	202
Test Questions	204

Part IV. Special Histology

Introduction to the Histology of Organs and Systems of the Human Body	207
Chapter 12. The Integumentary System	208
12.1. Skin Structure and Development	209
12.2. Glands and Dermal Appendages	214
12.3. Age-related Changes, Skin Reactivity and Regeneration	221
Test Questions	222
Chapter 13. Alimentary System	223
13.1. Proximal Region of the Alimentary Canal	224
13.1.1. Oral Cavity, Lips, Cheeks, Teeth, Gingivae, Tongue	224
13.1.2. Major Salivary Glands	233
13.1.3. Hard and Soft Palate. Tonsils	236
13.1.4. Pharynx and Esophagus	238
13.2. The Organs of Middle and Distal Regions of the Alimentary Canal	241
13.2.1. Stomach	241
13.2.2. Small Intestine	247
13.2.3. Large Intestine. Appendix. Rectum	252
13.3. Pancreas	255
13.4. Liver, Biliary Tract and Gallbladder	259
Test Questions	266
Chapter 14. Cardiovascular System	267
14.1. Arteries	269
14.2. Microvasculature	271
14.3. Veins	277
14.4. Lymphatic Vessels	279
14.5. Heart	280
Test Questions	284
Chapter 15. Respiratory System	285
15.1. Conducting Portion (Nose Cavity, Larynx, Trachea and Extrapulmonary Bronchi)	286
15.2. Lungs	290
15.2.1. Intrapulmonary Bronchi	290
15.2.2. Respiratory Region of the Lungs	291
15.3. Pleura	294
Test Questions	295
Chapter 16. Urinary System	296
16.1. Kidneys	297
16.2. Urinary Tract	304
Test Questions	306
Chapter 17. Hematopoietic System and Immune Protection	307
17.1. Red Bone Marrow	307
17.2. Thymus	309
17.3. Lymph Nodes	312
17.4. Spleen	314
17.5. Immunity and its Types	317

17.6. Cellular Bases of the Immune Reactions Cooperations	318
Test Questions	320
Chapter 18. Endocrine System	321
18.1. Hypothalamus	323
18.2. Pituitary Gland (Hypophysis)	324
18.3. Epiphysis	329
18.4. Thyroid Gland	330
18.5. Parathyroid Glands	335
18.6. Adrenal Glands	336
18.7. Dispersed Endocrine System (Apud Cells)	340
Test Questions	342
Chapter 19. Nervous System	343
19.1. Peripheral Nerves	344
19.2. Sensory Ganglion	344
19.3. Spinal Cord	346
19.4. Brain	350
19.4.1. Brain Stem (truncus encephali)	351
19.4.2. Cerebellum	353
19.4.3. Cerebral Cortex	356
19.5. Meninges	360
19.6. Autonomic Nervous System	362
19.7. Paraganglia	365
Test Questions	367
Chapter 20. Sensory Receptors and Sense Organs	368
20.1. Organ of Vision	368
20.2. Olfactory Organ	379
20.3. Gustatory Organ	382
20.4. Organ of Equilibrium and Hearing	383
20.5. Sensory Receptors	391
Test Questions	392
Chapter 21. Human Musculoskeletal System	393
21.1. Bone as an Organ	393
21.2. Bone Joints	397
21.3. Cartilages	398
21.4. Muscles	399
21.5. Tendons	403
Test Questions	404

Part V. Human Reproduction (Medical Embryology)

Chapter 22. Genital Systems	407
22.1. Development of Germ Cells (Progenesis)	407
22.2. Male Genital System	414
22.2.1. Testis	416
22.2.2. Genital Ducts and Glands	419
22.2.3. Penis	422

22.3. Testicles Function Regulation	423
22.4. Female Genital System	424
22.4.1. Ovaries	424
22.4.2. Uterus, Uterine Tubes, Vagina	430
22.5. Ovarian-menstrual Cycle	437
22.6. Human Embryonic Development	441
22.6.1. Fertilization and Cleavage	441
22.6.2. Implantation and Gastrulation	446
22.6.3. Neurulation and Mesoderm Segmentation	451
22.7. Fetal Period	453
22.8. Embryonic Adnexa (Extra-embryonic Organs and Tissues). Placenta	460
22.9. Critical Periods and Development Anomalies	470
Test Questions	475
Conclusion. Medical Relevance of Histology Course	476
Bibliography	479

Chapter 1

SUBJECT AND AIMS OF HISTOLOGY. LEVELS OF STRUCTURAL AND FUNCTIONAL ORGANIZATION OF LIVING BEINGS

Histology (derived from the Greek word *histos* meaning “tissue”, and *logos* meaning “study”) is a scientific study exploring patterns of development, structure and functioning of tissues, interstitial interactions during historical and individual evolution of humans and other multicellular organisms. The focus of Histology is to study tissues, which are topographically and functionally related cell systems and their derivatives with common phylogenetic background that form organs.

Histology as a scientific and educational subject includes several sections.

Cytology is the study of the cell as a key histological element within tissues. Here, we will discuss the general and specific principles of cell structure, cytophysiology, reproduction and death mechanisms, reactive changes and regenerating capacity in case of cell damage. *Embryology* is the study of embryogenesis, patterns of developing germ layers, tissues and organs, critical periods of human development; embryology is closely linked to teratology (the study of congenital disorders) *General histology* is the study of tissue development, structure, functions, and regeneration. *Specific histology* deals with the microscopic structure of organs and organ systems, interstitial interactions during organogenesis, reactive and regenerative properties of organs, age-related changes during ontogenesis.

The human and animal organisms are holistic biological systems in which it is conditionally possible to distinguish several interrelated, interacting and subordinate levels of organization: molecular, subcellular, cellular, tissue and organ. Each of these levels is to a certain extent autonomous and includes structural units of subordinate levels.

The organismal level (i.e., the organism itself) is formed as an integral biological system in the process of an individual organism’s development called ontogenesis.

The organ level comprises a complex of interacting tissues in the process of performing inherent functions of the given organ or organ system.

The tissue level integrates cells and their derivatives. Tissues may consist of cells developing from different genetic sources; however, the main properties of tissues are determined by the prevailing cells.

The cellular level is represented by the cell and its derivatives as the basic functional tissue unit.

The subcellular level comprises structural and functional components of the cell, which are the cell membrane, the nucleus, the cytosol, organelles, cytoplasmic inclusions and so forth.

Finally, the molecular level is characterized by the molecular composition of the cell components and the mechanisms of their functioning.

A basic understanding of the levels of organization and interconnections of different levels allow us to view the organism as an integral and yet hierarchically subordinate complex system. The structural components of various levels of organization of living things are the object of study of various biomedical disciplines. In recent years the science has developed an integrated approach for studying animal organisms using the full set of methods and techniques available to these disciplines. These allowed planning and performing of the fundamental studies and achieve a high level of knowledge about structural and functional organization of living matter including that of the human body.

The substantive content of histology as a branch of science and educational subject comprises the patterns of histogenesis, morphofunctional organization, tissue reactivity and regeneration, which were identified by examining a large amount of factual material. Here are the most important theoretical achievements of histology: cell theory, theory of germ layers, tissue evolution, histogenesis, and regeneration.

The urgent problems in the field of histology are:

- ▶ developing a general theory of histology which would reflect the evolutionary dynamics of tissues and the patterns of embryonal and postnatal histogenesis;
- ▶ studying histogenesis as a set of coordinated both in time and space processes of proliferation, differentiation, determination, integration, adaptive variability, programmed cell death and so on;
- ▶ clarification of homeostatic mechanisms and tissue regulation (nervous, endocrine, immune) and age-related tissue dynamics;
- ▶ studying the patterns of reactivity and adaptive variability of cells and tissues caused by exposure to adverse environmental factors, extreme conditions of functioning and development or transplantation;
- ▶ working on the problem of posttraumatic tissue regeneration and methods of tissue replacement therapy;
- ▶ revealing the mechanisms of molecular genetic regulation of cell differentiation and inheritance of genetic developmental defects of the organ systems in humans, developing methods of gene therapy and embryonic stem cells transplantation;
- ▶ elucidation of embryogenetic processes in humans, a critical period of fetal development, reproduction and fertility challenges.

Medical university histology course must give the future doctors a concept about the levels of structural and functional organization of the human body, their interconnection and continuity. In-depth knowledge of the human body's structure and functions at all its organizational levels is essential for modern doctors as only on this basis can authoritative analysis of a disease etiology (from the Greek word *aitiología* which means "cause" + *logos* meaning "study" which is the study of what causes the disease) and pathogenesis (from the Greek word *pathos* which means "suffering" + *genesis* meaning "creation" which is a field of medicine studying the disease occurrence and progression) can be performed as well as pathogenetically justified therapy

assigned. For the medicine of the future which should become preventive, knowing the structural basis and patterns of ensuring stability and integrity of living systems (in particular tissues) is especially important since the progressive development of human civilization inevitably leads to creating new factors with a negative impact on animals including the human.

TEST QUESTIONS

1. Substantive content of histology, cytology and embryology.
2. Levels of structural organization of living beings.
3. Urgent problems of histology.

Chapter 2

A BRIEF HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF MICROSCOPY, HISTOLOGY AND EMBRYOLOGY

Histology started to emerge as a distinct discipline during the early part of the 19th century. It evolved as a result of multiple microscopic (visual) studies of different animals and plants. The crucial factor in the emergence of histology as the study of tissue structure was the invention of a magnifying device that was first created in the early 17th century (H. and Z. Janssens, Galilei, Drebbel et al.). One of the earliest scientific studies using a microscope of his design was undertaken by English physicist Robert Hooke (1635–1703). He studied the microscopic structure of various objects. All the objects of his studies Hooke described in a book called “Micrographia: or some Physiological Descriptions of Minute Bodies made by Magnifying Glasses...” that was first published in 1665. His observations led him to conclude that vesicular compartments, or cells, are common in plants and thus made him the first to suggest the term “cell”.

In 1671 English scientist Nehemiah Grew (1641–1712) wrote about cellular structure as a general principle of plant organization. Grew was the first to introduce the term “tissue” to denote plant microstructure as the latter resembled fibers that were used to produce clothes. In the same year, Italian biologist Marcello Malpighi (1628–1694) gave a systematic and detailed description of the cellular structure of various plants. Later, the evidence of the cellular structure of animal tissues gradually kept on accumulating. In the second half of the 17th century, Antonie van Leeuwenhoek (1632–1723) through his mastery in lens grinding designed microscopes providing up to 300–400 times magnification. This enabled him to discover the world of microscopic creatures and be the first to describe red blood cells and male germ cells.

Throughout the 18th century, the evidence of the cellular structure of animals and plants was building up. Czech scientist Jan Purkyně (1787–1869) and his students thoroughly examined and described animal cells in the early 18th century.

The microscope technology improvement has had a huge impact on the further advancement of knowledge about the microscopic structure of organisms. Already in the 18th century, microscopes were produced in large number. The early compound microscopes consisted of a pillar mounted on a base (Fig. 2.1) the focusing was achieved by sliding the tube. The most popular model up until the 1820s was a Culpeper type microscope produced by English optician E. Culpeper (1660–1740). The round base supported the tripod that held a tube with a sliding microscope body inside and had a round aperture in the center turning it into the stage (Fig. 2.1, a). The stage itself was mounted on a tripod secured to a small wooden box for accessories.

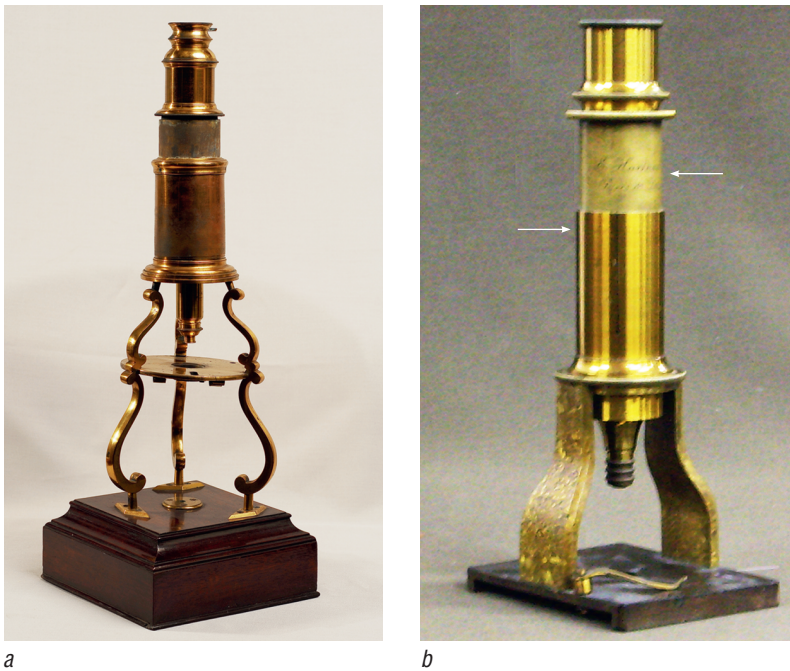


Fig. 2.1. Culpeper-Style microscope from the museum of the Department of Surgery of the S.M. Kirov Military Medical Academy (a); a simple microscope designed by the German optician E. Gartnak exhibiting in the museum at the Department of Histology with a course of embryology at S.M. Kirov Military Medical Academy (the 1830s–1840s). The inscription on the tube says: E. Hartnach Paris & Potsdam (upper arrow); the focusing is reached through direct movement of the tube (lower arrow) (b)

Imperator Peter the Great was the first to bring the microscope to Russia from Holland. Later, the St. Petersburg Academy of Sciences opened a mechanical workshop for producing microscopes and, in 1725, employed I.P. Kulibin and I.I. Belyaev. Russian scientist and naturalist M.V. Lomonosov (1711–1765), regarded as a founder of national science, made a great contribution to the development of microscopy in Russia by proposing a number of technical improvements to the construction and optical system of the microscope.

The second half of the 19th century was marked by a significant improvement in the microscopy techniques. New models of microscopes were designed (Fig. 2.2). Fine focusing was made possible by introducing a screw.

The invention of immersion objectives (water immersion was first introduced in 1850, oil immersion — in 1878) increased resolving power of optical instruments tenfold. The microscopes are becoming more and more comfortable to work with. The stage is equipped with a device for moving the slides around and a rotating nosepiece holds objectives that are easy to change (Fig. 2.3).

The design of microscopes continues to improve throughout the 20th century. Microscopes come with a binocular head, knobs of fine and coarse focus placed in the lower part of the arm, the image quality increases significantly due to using new lenses and techniques of manufacturing objectives (Fig. 2.4).



Fig. 2.2. Enhanced microscope made by Hartnack (1860–1870s); arrow — fine focusing screw; coarse focusing is achieved through the direct movement of the tube

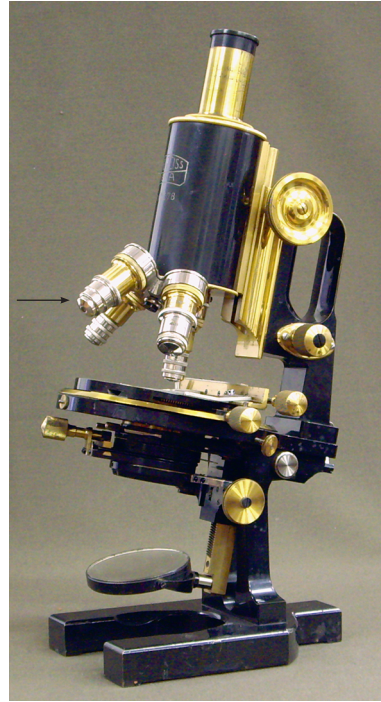


Fig. 2.3. Carl Zeiss Jena microscope with a revolving nosepiece for changing objective lenses (arrow)

In the late 1920s, the first production models of the Russian microscopes come out. Modern Russian microscopes are multifunctional, both light and dark-field, phase-contrast, allow the use of a camera and monitor (Fig. 2.5).

Currently, the greatest improvement of light microscopy is the confocal laser-scanning microscope (Fig. 2.6). However, the image of the slide here is digital, not optical (see Chapter 3).

Alongside improving microscopes, the technique of preparing histological slides was also developing. If earlier objects were examined under the microscope immediately after their isolation from plants or animals without any preliminary preparation, now the researchers began to resort to various preparation techniques, which made possible to preserve the structure of biological objects. Different methods of material fixation were proposed. A wide range of substances such as chromic, picric, osmic, acetic and other acids and their mixtures found their application as fixatives. Simple and often irreplaceable fixative formalin was first used for fixation of biological samples in 1893.

Preparing slides in a form suitable to be examined visually in transmitted light became possible with the introduction of a new technique of placing samples into dense embedding media, thus facilitating the preparation of thin sections. The invention of special instruments for sectioning called microtomes in the Purkyně's laboratory



Fig. 2.4. Reichert microscope (Austria) with binocular head (arrow)

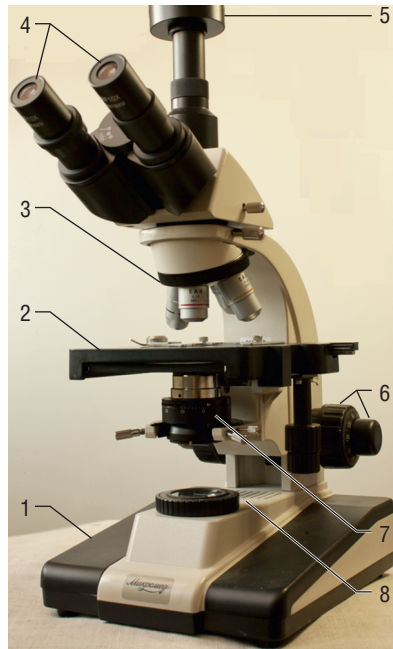


Fig. 2.5. Light microscope for biological research: 1 — base; 2 — stage; 3 — revolving nosepiece with several objective lenses; 4 — eyepiece lenses of the binocular; 5 — microscope camera; 6 — fine and coarse focus; 7 — condenser with an iris diaphragm; 8 — illuminator



Fig. 2.6. Confocal microscope: 1 — light microscope; 2 — objectives; 3 — control unit of the scanning device that moves the light beam along the X, Y, Z axes; 4 — digital image processed by a computer program