23: Bone Tissue I

Skeletal System

tissue types: bone, cartilage, dense connective, epithelium, adipose, nervous, and blood vessels

support: bones, cartilage, and ligaments provide support

bones: hard and rigid; complex and dynamic **cartilage**: flexible; second strongest tissue in the body; in nose, auricle, trachea, and joints **ligaments**: dense regular collagenous; connect bones to bones

protection: protects the brain, organs of the thoracic cavity, and spinal cord

skull: protects the brain

ribs, sternum, and vertebrae: protect the thoracic cavity and spinal cord

movement: muscle contractions need to pull on something; almost all skeletal muscles attach to bones on at least one end, typically moving across a joint

tendons: connect muscles and bones **facial muscles**: an exception to the need for attachment to bone for movement to occur

storage: calcium, phosphorus, and fat are stored in the bone and can be released

calcium: required for presynaptic terminals, muscle contractions, etc.

phosphorus: required for ATP, metabolism,
and growth/maintenance of cells/tissues
fat: stored as yellow bone marrow

blood cell production: red bone marrow produces all the blood cells in the body newborn: all cavities are filled with red BM aging: yellow BM starts replacing it; the ends of long bones (arms and legs) and irregularly shaped bones maintain their red BM

Cartilage

properties: firm, smooth, resilient, non-vascular

resilient: bounces back to original shape after being pressed; due to high water content non-vascular: does not have a direct blood supply; similar to epithelial tissue (blood supply surrounds tissue, and nutrients and gases diffuse through)

composition: cartilage cells and matrix water: 70-85% of matrix; gives resiliency and allows easy diffusion of nutrients and oxygen ground substance: proteoglycans; trap water protein: collagen, sometimes elastin; strength

classification: based on type, amount, and organization of protein; classified as hyaline, elastic, or fibrocartilage bone development: we build a cartilage skeleton as an embryo, and most bone is

built as cartilage first before ossifying

Hyaline Cartilage

location: most common; often associated with bone; e.g., bridge of nose, rings of trachea, and joints
articular cartilage: hyaline cartilage found on the surface of moveable joints
development: forms during embryological

on the surface of moveable joints

development: forms during embryological
development, creating the cartilage
skeleton; this undergoes ossification until
you are ~40 years old

Elastic Cartilage

location: regions where we need flexibility;

e.g., auricle

composition: lots of elastin

Fibrocartilage

location: regions where we need more support and structure; e.g., intervertebral discs, meniscus

meniscus: pad of cartilage between the joints

composition: lots of highly organized, dense collagen protein fibers

Cartilage Histology

chondrocytes: main cell type; mature cells; located in lacunae

chondroblasts: immature chondrocytes; build the matrix of collagen and proteoglycans, becoming chondrocytes once they are trapped within; located along the surface of the cartilage

perichondrium: double layer of connective tissue where blood and nerves are located

outer layer: dense irregular connective tissue and fibroblasts (produces proteins); includes blood and nervous tissue supply inner layer: chondroblast cell layer, including

osteochondral progenitor cells (produces cartilage)

articular and fibrocartilage: no perichondrium; this is why it is so difficult to repair

Cartilage Growth

appositional growth: new cartilage forms just underneath the outside layer of the perichondrium; more common as we age interstitial growth: mature chondrocytes divide; they push away from each other and secrete more matrix; this is unique to cartilage, which has so much water that the cells can move around; more common in childhood

Bone Histology

dynamic: bone is constantly being broken down and replaced

inorganic matrix: 65%; mostly crystallized mineral salt, which provides weight bearing strength (and differentiates form cartilage)

hydroxyapatite: calcium phosphate crystals calcification: adding these cells to the matrix; also called mineralization and ossification acid: breaks down inorganic matrix

organic matrix: 35%; collagen, proteoglycans, and water, which provides flexible strength

somewhat resilient: less proteoglycans and water than cartilage

enzymes: can break down proteins, leaving only inorganic materials (brittle bones)

osteoblasts: cells that build matrix (both organic and inorganic); found in lacunae

matrix vesicles: formed by pinching off a portion of the membrane > concentrates Ca and P together > forms hydroxyapatite > exocytosis into collagen framework > ossification

osteochondral progenitor cells: stem cells that can become osteoblasts or chondroblasts; found in the perichondrium and allow us to keep making cells throughout our lifetime

osteocytes: mature osteoblasts trapped in the matrix within a lacuna; considered inactive, but maintains the ability to produce components for bone matrix maintenance

canaliculi: channels between lacunae which allows transport of nutrients and gases (start off as connecting cell extensions when building the matrix)

osteoclasts: large, multi-nuclear cells on the surface of bones; break down osteocytes

resorption: break down of bone reabsorption: return of minerals into the bloodstream

structure: formed from the fusion of monocytes (white blood cells)
mechanism: attach to bone via podosomes (protein attachments) > creates sealed compartment > portion of membrane extends into ruffled border (increases surface area) > releases acids and enzymes > bone fragments taken up and released into extracellular space and blood

NOTE: review of MODULE 8 was recommended (part of TEST 3 NOTES)

24: Bone Tissue II

Bone Classification

classification: based on organization of collagen fibers in the matrix woven bone: randomly oriented collagen fibers; quick and fast way of making a bone, but is eventually remodeled by osteoclasts and osteoblasts lamellar bone: more organized collagen; mature bone organized in sheets/layers (lamellae); seen in all the bones

classification: based on amount and organization of matrix

spongy: also known as cancellous, trabecular

compact: also known as cortical

Compact Bone

composition: dense with fewer spaces; very organized sheets of lamellar bone location: 80% of the skeleton by mass; outside of all bones, and most of the shafts of long bones

function: gives bones strength

periosteum: lines outside of bone; similar to perichondrium

outer layer: dense fibrous connective tissue; has blood supply (periosteal vein and artery) inner layer: osteogenic; contains osteoblasts, osteoclasts, and osteochondral progenitor

endosteum: lines medullary cavity side of bone; only has osteogenic layer

medullary cavity: spaces within the bone perforating (Volkmann's) canal: pathways running perpendicular to the length of the bone which allow blood vessels to enter; connects central canals

central (Haversian) canals: parallel tunnels within the bone for blood vessels lamellae: rings of calcified matrix concentric lamellae: form concentric circles around the central canal

osteocytes: sandwiched between lamellae canaliculi: connect layers

circumferential lamellae: bundle the osteons together; several layers

outer circumferential lamellae: runs around the outside of the entire bone

inner circumferential lamellae: layer that spongy bone forms off of

interstitial lamellae: fill spaces between the circles of concentric lamellae; shortened pieces of lamellar bone leftover from broken-down osteons

blood supply: nutrients move outwards from the central canals towards the cells; vessels found within and around bone osteon (Haversian system): central canal and contents, associated concentric lamellae, and osteocytes

Spongy Bone

composition: less bone matrix, more space; porous appearance; protected by a layer of compact bone; osteochondral progenitor cells throughout

location: 20% of the skeleton by mass; inside of bones; fills spaces of bones that are irregularly shaped, and the ends of long bones; forms a thin layer in regions where there are cavities inside of bones (e.g., shaft of long bones)

function: provides strength without extra mass

trabeculae: matrix is organized into connecting rods or plates, oriented along the lines of stress

cavities: filled with bone marrow and blood vessels; nutrients diffuse inwards towards cells

osteocytes: found sandwiched in lacunae between lamella; connected by canaliculi outer layer: osteoclasts and osteoblasts (mostly osteoblasts)

Long Bone Structure

long bone: longer in length than width; e.g., femur (thigh bone)

epiphysis: region closest to the end of the bone; mostly spongy, typically filled with red bone marrow

proximal epiphysis: region closer to the trunk distal epiphysis: region farther from the trunk articular cartilage: surrounds epiphysis

diaphysis: shaft of the bone; mostly compact with a thin layer of spongy inside metaphysis: connects epiphysis and diaphysis

periosteum: surrounds bone medullary cavity: inside of shaft region; contains yellow bone marrow in adults, except for the proximal epiphysis of long bones, and pelvic bones (responsible for producing blood cells as an adult); lined with endosteum

epiphyseal line: between epiphysis and diaphysis (or metaphysis)

epiphyseal plate: layer of hyaline cartilage which is initially found here; allows the bone to grow in length; ossified once it has reached its final length

Bone Development

osteogenesis: process of forming bone tissue; begins in the embryo at 8 weeks mesenchyme cells: stem cells which produce all connective tissue; stimulated into osteochondral progenitor cells when blood vessels invade future-bone regions processes: intramembranous or endochondral; both start with woven bone, and have identical end results

Intramembranous

description: bone formation in connective tissue membranes

locations: skull bones, mandible, part of

clavicle

mechanism: mesenchyme > creates collagen connective tissue membrane > osteochondral progenitor cells turn into osteoblasts > membrane is ossified

Endochondral

description: bone formation in cartilage locations: base of skull, part of clavicle, other bones

mechanism: mesenchyme > osteochondral progenitor cells > chondroblasts > hyaline cartilage skeleton > [8 weeks] > blood vessels invade perichondrium > progenitor cells become osteoblasts > perichondrium becomes periosteum

Bone Growth

appositional growth: formation of new bone on the surface of old bone directions: grows in length and thickness remodeling: continuous osteoblast and osteoclast activity throughout lifetime

cycle: skeleton is replaced every 10 years stress: stimulates osteoblasts medullary cavity: formed by destroying inside

and rebuilding outside

epiphysis: can grow underneath the articular cartilage (which doesn't get ossified)

Bone Lengthening

layers: forms 5 layers/regions; cartilage remains on the epiphyseal side, while bone forms on the diaphyseal side

zone of resting cartilage: slowly dividing chondrocytes (interstitial growth); provides an anchor point for the epiphysis

zone of proliferating cartilage: rapidly dividing chondrocytes; divides into "stacks of coins" zone of hypertrophy: chondrocytes enlarge and grow, secreting matrix vessels that contain hydroxyapatite

zone of calcified cartilage: chondrocytes die off, blood vessels and osteoblasts from the endosteum invade, and bone starts calcifying ossified bone: developing bone of diaphysis

Bone Thickening

groove: osteoblasts beneath the periosteum lay down bone around a periosteal blood vessel ridges: heighten and eventually meet, forming a tunnel; periosteum is pinched off; inside layer become endosteum endosteum: osteoblasts form concentric lamellae towards the blood vessel periosteum: osteoblasts form new circumferential lamellae

25: Axial & Hyoid

Skeletal System

206 bones: in the human adult skeleton; children have more before they fuse axial skeleton: bones along the longitudinal axis; head, neck, and trunk bones: 80 in total; skull, hyoid bone, vertebrae,

ribs, sternum, auditory ossicles

skull: series of bones that make up the facial

bones and the cranial case

appendicular skeleton: limbs, pelvic and

pectoral girdles

bones: 126 in total

girdle: attachment site between axial and

appendicular

Surface Features

ridges: point of attachment for muscle onto bone; e.g., spine on scapula projections: point of attachment for muscles and ligaments crossing a joint

process: smaller tuberosity: larger knob tubercles: rounded bumps

openings: space for things to run through foramina: holes for blood vessels and nerves

canal: tunnel

depressions: lowered regions

fossa: shallow notches: grooves:

Bone Structure

body: largest part

head: end

neck: connects body and head margin/border: outside edge condoyle: smooth, rounded articular

surface

facet: small, flattened articular surface

Skull

function: protects the brain; supports organs of vision, hearing, smell, and taste bones: 8 cranial, 14 facial; associated with 6 auditory ossicles (malleus, incus, stapes)

and 1 hyoid bone

joints: 22 bones are connected by

immovable joints

"surface" bones: occipital, parietal, temporal, frontal, nasal, zygomatic,

maxilla, mandible

sutures: immovable joints where the bones of the skull articulate with each other anterior nasal septum: made of hyaline

cartilage

alveolar processes: spaces for teeth in

maxilla and mandible

Cranial Bones

cranial bones: 8 bones that make up the brain case

parietal (2): make up the sides and roof of the cranial cavity

temporal (2): make up the inferior lateral aspects of the cranial cavity (part of the floor)

mastoid process: bony feature behind the ear; attachment point for neck muscles

styloid process: looks like the end of a pencil; attachment point for tongue and neck muscles external auditory (acoustic) canal (meatus): pathway for soundwaves

zygomatic process: starts forming a region of

the cheekbone mandibular fossa: articulation with mandible

jugular foramen: where veins leave the cranial cavity; more posterior

carotid foramen: where arteries enter the cranial cavity; more anterior

frontal (1): forehead, roof of orbit, anterior cranial floor; formed from 2 bones that fuse anteriorly by age 6

occipital (1): posterior inferior; base of most of the cranium

external occipital protuberance: bump on back of skull; joints to ligaments which hold skull upright

foramen magnum: large round hole where spinal cord and brainstem connect occipital condoyles: rounded, rocker-shaped bony features anterior and lateral to foramen magnum; allows movement of skull relative to C1 vertebra (nodding and tilting head)

sphenoid (1): mostly on the inside of skull; butterfly/bat shaped (has greater and lesser wings); portion of lateral skull, cranial floor, and orbit; articulates with all other cranial bones

sella turcica: depression in body; houses the pituitary gland

ethmoid (1): also hard to see >:(

cribriform plate: foramina for olfactory neurons; separates nasal and cranial cavities perpendicular plate: superior and posterior

portion of nasal septum

middle and superior nasal conchae: ridges crista galli: superior projection; attachment point for falx cerebri; cribriform plate extends from here

Facial Bones

facial bones: 14 bones that make up the underlying structure of the face and support the teeth (which are not bones) maxilla (2): form upper jaw, floors of orbit, some of nasal cavity, most of hard palate palatine processes: large portion of roof of mouth; associated with horizontal plate of palatine; 2 portions fuse together during embryological development cleft lip: issue with fusing in soft portion cleft palate: issue with fusing palatine

surgery can be done zygomatic (2): cheekbones and portion of the orbit

a plate is placed in the roof of mouth until

processes; fails to divide oral and nasal cavity;

temporal process: connects with the zygomatic process (forms zygomatic arch)

palatine (2): L-shaped; forms back of oral cavity and some of nasal cavity lacrimal (2): smallest; within the eye orbit

lacrimal groove: helps form the nasolacrimal canal

nasal (2): forms upper portion of the bridge of the nose, and anterior portion of roof of nasal cavity

inferior nasal conchae (2): create ridges for turbulent flow of air

vomer (1): elongated plow-shape; forms inferior and posterior portion of nasal septum

mandible: largest and strongest bone; not actually attached (only moveable bone of the skull); articulates with temporal bone at mandibular fossa

Orbit

orbit: cavity containing the eye; made of 7 bones

roof: frontal, sphenoid lateral: sphenoid, zygomatic floor: maxilla, zygomatic, palatine medial: maxilla, lacrimal, ethmoid,

sphenoid

supraorbital margin: in frontal bone; thickened region that prevents damage to the eye when we get hit

Hyoid Bone

location: not part of the skull, but it's in the region; just below the chin; unpaired floating bone (no articulations) below mandible

shape: u-shaped; large body with projections off the side

function; attachment point for tongue and neck muscles (elevate larynx during speech and swallowing)

iv: DEXA & Osteoporosis

D(E)XA Scan

D(E)XA: dual energy x-ray absorptiometry function: 15-30 minute noninvasive imaging test to measure bone density and body composition; measures inorganic components

mechanism: 2 low-dose x-rays with distinct energy peaks are sent through; one is absorbed mainly be soft tissue and the other by bone; differential attenuation provides an estimate of bone mineral, fat, and lean soft tissue mass purpose: in clinical situations, typically to measure bone density; in research situations, often to measure changes in muscle

Osteoporosis

definition: deterioration of bone mineral content, which leads to weakening of the bones and increased risk of fracture diagnosis: based on standard deviation from someone (20s-30s) with a healthy bone mineral content; 2 standard deviations below = osteoporotic impact: risk of fractures from activities of

daily living

prevention: much easier than fixing it once it's advanced

cellular cause: osteoclasts > osteoblasts while growing: osteoclasts < osteoblasts</pre> at peak height: osteoclasts = osteoblasts post-35: osteoclasts > osteoblasts

estrogen: facilitates coupling of osteoblasts and osteoclasts; menopause causes rapid deterioration

testosterone: facilitates coupling in males weight-bearing activity: prescribed to place site-specific stress on the bones, which activates osteoblast cells site-specific exercise: fat loss isn't sitespecific, but bone growth is

bisphosphonate drugs: cause apoptosis of osteoclasts; e.g., Fosamax

Necrosis

necrosis: cell or tissue death **complications**: if blood is cut off from the femoral head ("hip" fracture), the tissue and marrow dies; the necrotic tissue collapses