

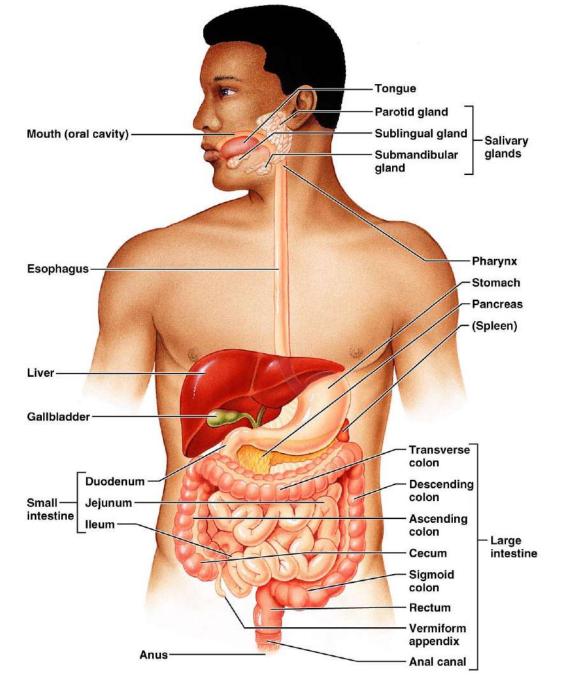
PowerPoint® Lecture Slides prepared by Vince Austin, Bluegrass Technical and Community College

PART A

The Digestive System

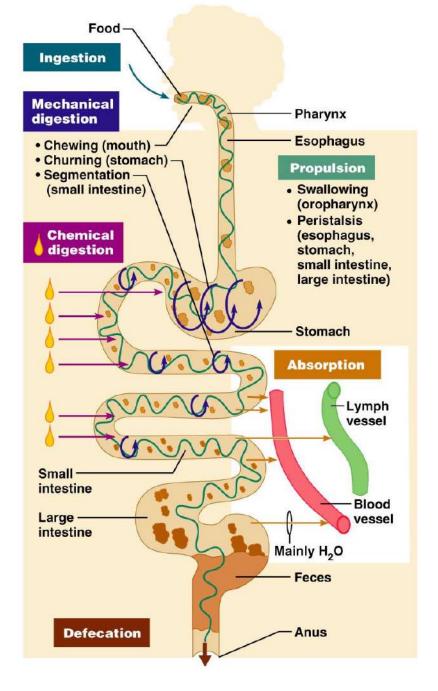
Digestive System: Overview

- The alimentary canal or gastrointestinal (GI) tract digests and absorbs food
- Alimentary canal mouth, pharynx, esophagus, stomach, small intestine, and large intestine
- Accessory digestive organs teeth, tongue,
 gallbladder, salivary glands, liver, and pancreas



Digestive Process

- The GI tract is a "disassembly" line
 - Nutrients become more available to the body in each step
- There are six essential activities:
 - Ingestion, propulsion, and mechanical digestion
 - Chemical digestion, absorption, and defecation

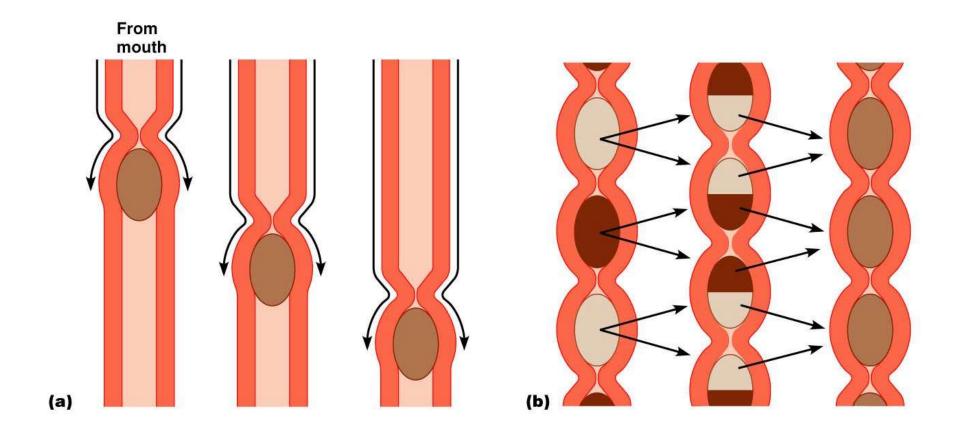


Gastrointestinal Tract Activities

- Ingestion taking food into the digestive tract
- Propulsion swallowing and peristalsis
 - Peristalsis waves of contraction and relaxation of muscles in the organ walls
- Mechanical digestion chewing, mixing, and churning food



Peristalsis and Segmentation



Gastrointestinal Tract Activities

- Chemical digestion catabolic breakdown of food
- Absorption movement of nutrients from the GI tract to the blood or lymph
- Defecation elimination of indigestible solid wastes

GI Tract

- External environment for the digestive process
- Regulation of digestion involves:
 - Mechanical and chemical stimuli stretch receptors, osmolarity, and presence of substrate in the lumen
 - Extrinsic control by CNS centers
 - Intrinsic control by (ENS) local centers

Receptors of the GI Tract

- Mechano- and chemoreceptors respond to:
 - Stretch, osmolarity, and pH
 - Presence of substrate, and end products of digestion
- They initiate reflexes that:
 - Activate or inhibit digestive glands
 - Mix lumen contents and move them along

Nervous Control of the GI Tract

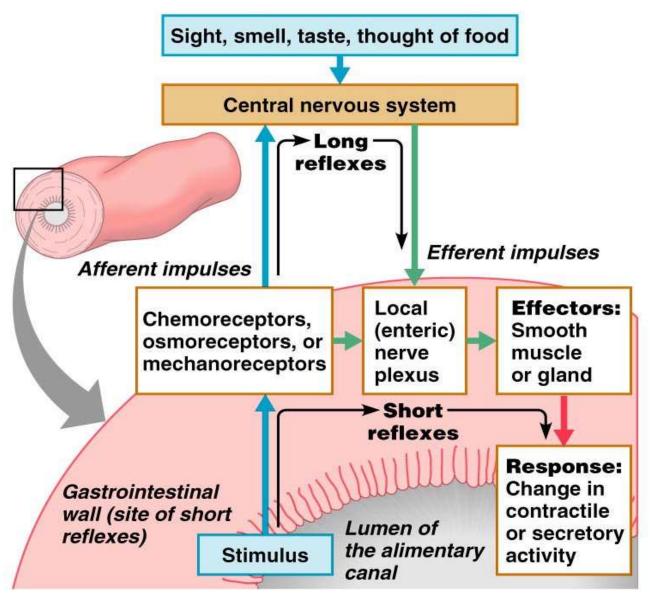
Intrinsic controls

- Nerve plexuses near the GI tract (ENS) initiate short reflexes
- Short reflexes are mediated by local enteric plexuses (gut brain)

Extrinsic controls

- Long reflexes arising outside the GI tract
- CNS centers and extrinsic autonomic nerves

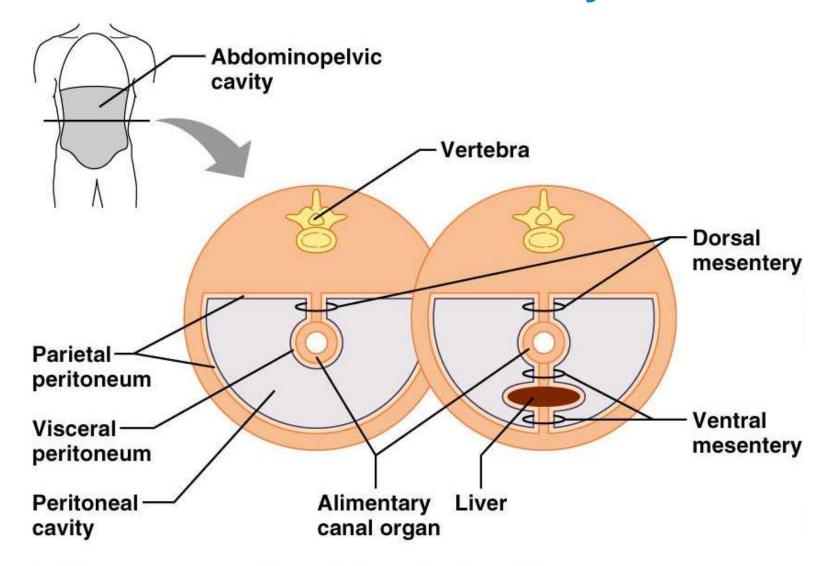
Nervous Control of the GI Tract



Peritoneum and Peritoneal Cavity

- Peritoneum serous membrane of the abdominal cavity
 - Visceral covers external surface of most digestive organs
 - Parietal lines the body wall
- Peritoneal cavity
 - Lubricates digestive organs
 - Allows them to slide across one another

Peritoneum and Peritoneal Cavity



(a) Transverse section of abdominal cavity

Peritoneum and Peritoneal Cavity

- Mesentery double layer of peritoneum that provides:
 - Vascular and nerve supplies to the viscera
 - Hold digestive organs in place and store fat
- Retroperitoneal organs organs outside the peritoneum
- Peritoneal organs (intraperitoneal) organs surrounded by peritoneum

Blood Supply: Splanchnic Circulation

- Arteries and the organs they serve include
 - The hepatic, splenic, and left gastric: liver, spleen, and stomach
 - Inferior and superior mesenteric: small and large intestines

Blood Supply: Splanchnic Circulation

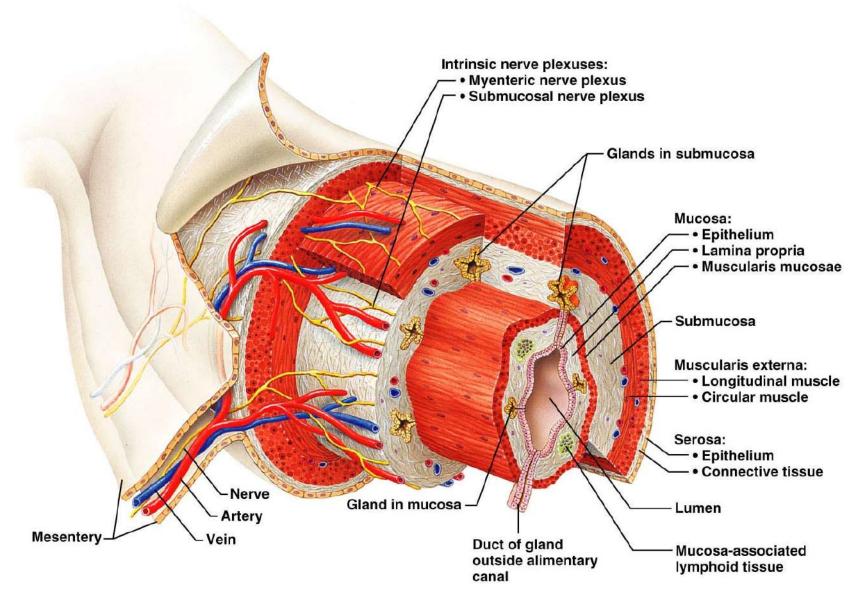
Hepatic portal circulation:

- Collects nutrient-rich venous blood from the digestive viscera
- Delivers this blood to the liver for metabolic processing and storage

Histology of the Alimentary Canal

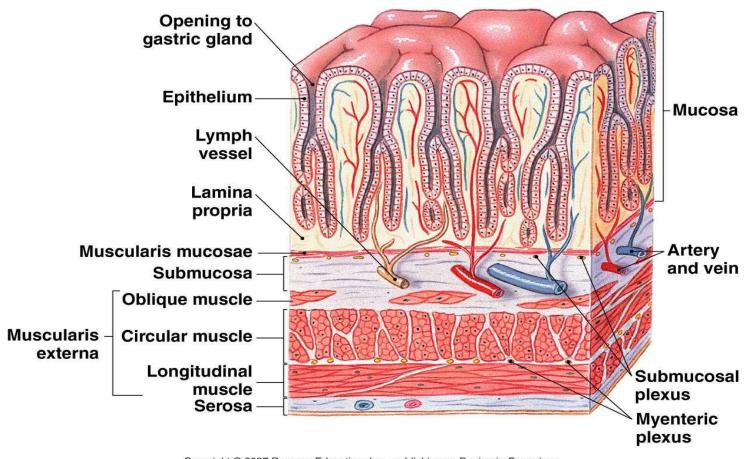
- From esophagus to the anal canal the walls of the
 GI tract have the same four tunics
 - From the lumen outward they are the mucosa, submucosa, muscularis externa, and serosa
- Each tunic has a predominant tissue type and a specific digestive function

Histology of the Alimentary Canal



Layers of GIT

(c) In the stomach, surface area is increased by invaginations called gastric glands.



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Mucosa

- Moist epithelial layer that lines the lumen of the alimentary canal
- Three major functions:
 - Secretion of mucus
 - Absorption of end products of digestion
 - Protection against infectious disease
- Consists of three layers: a lining epithelium, lamina propria, and muscularis mucosae

Mucosa: Epithelial Lining

- Simple columnar epithelium and mucus-secreting goblet cells
- Mucus secretions:
 - Protect digestive organs from digesting themselves
 - Ease food along the tract
- Stomach and small intestine mucosa contain:
 - Enzyme-secreting cells
 - Hormone-secreting cells (making them endocrine and digestive organs)

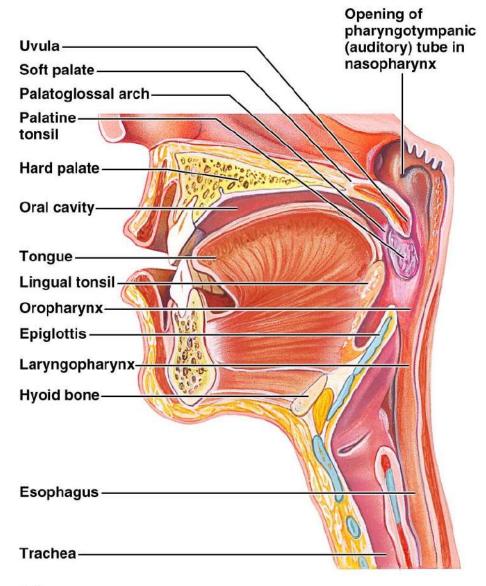
Other Sublayers

- Submucosa dense connective tissue containing elastic fibers, blood and lymphatic vessels, lymph nodes, and nerves
- Muscularis externa responsible for segmentation and peristalsis
- Serosa the protective visceral peritoneum
 - Replaced by the fibrous adventitia in the esophagus
 - Retroperitoneal organs have both an adventitia and serosa

Enteric Nervous System

- Composed of two major intrinsic nerve plexuses:
 - Submucosal nerve plexus regulates glands and smooth muscle in the mucosa
 - Myenteric nerve plexus Major nerve supply that controls GI tract mobility
- Segmentation and peristalsis are largely automatic involving local reflex arcs
- Linked to the CNS via long autonomic reflex arc

Anatomy of the Oral Cavity: Mouth



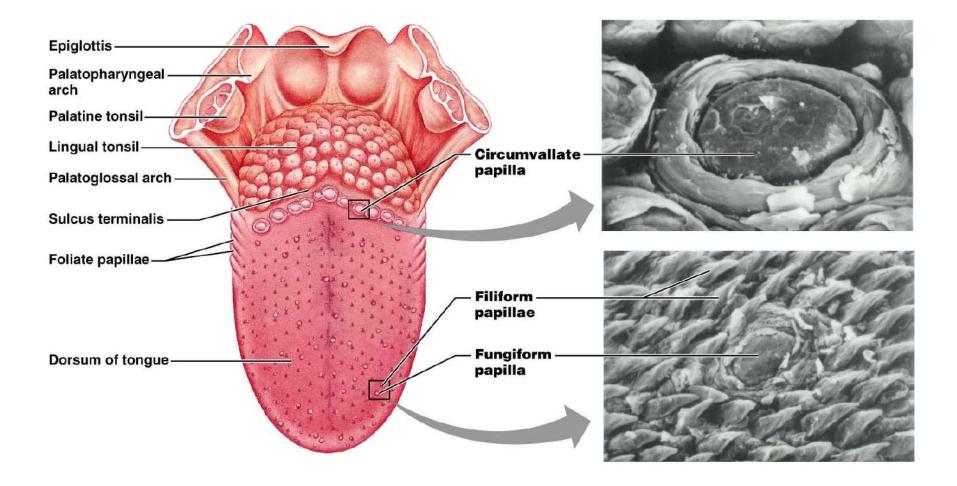
Palate

- Hard palate underlain by palatine bones and palatine processes of the maxillae
 - Assists the tongue in chewing
 - Slightly corrugated on either side of the raphe (midline ridge)
- Soft palate mobile fold formed mostly of skeletal muscle
 - Closes off the nasopharynx during swallowing
 - Uvula projects downward from its free edge
- Palatoglossal and palatopharyngeal arches form the borders of the fauces

Tongue

- Occupies the floor of the mouth and fills the oral cavity when mouth is closed
- Functions include:
 - Gripping and repositioning food during chewing
 - Mixing food with saliva and forming the bolus
 - Initiation of swallowing, and speech
- Intrinsic muscles change the shape of the tongue
- Extrinsic muscles alter the tongue's position
- Lingual frenulum secures the tongue to the floor of the mouth

Tongue



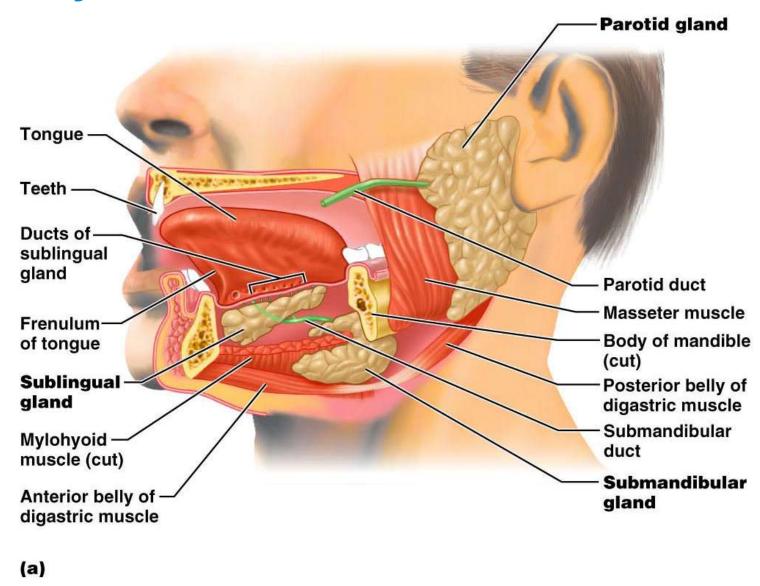
Tongue

- Superior surface bears three types of papillae
 - Filiform give the tongue roughness and provide friction
 - Fungiform scattered widely over the tongue and give it a reddish hue
 - Circumvallate V-shaped row in back of tongue

Salivary Glands

- Three pairs of extrinsic glands parotid, submandibular, and sublingual
- Intrinsic salivary glands (buccal glands) –
 scattered throughout the oral mucosa
- Function of Saliva:
 - Cleanses the mouth
 - Moistens and dissolves food chemicals
 - Aids in bolus formation
 - Contains enzymes that break down starch

Salivary Glands



Saliva: Source and Composition

- Secreted from serous and mucous cells of salivary glands
- 97-99.5% water, hypo-osmotic, slightly acidic solution containing
 - Electrolytes Na⁺, K⁺, Cl⁻, PO₄²⁻, HCO₃⁻
 - Digestive enzyme salivary amylase
 - Proteins mucin, lysozyme, defensins, and IgA
 - Metabolic wastes urea and uric acid

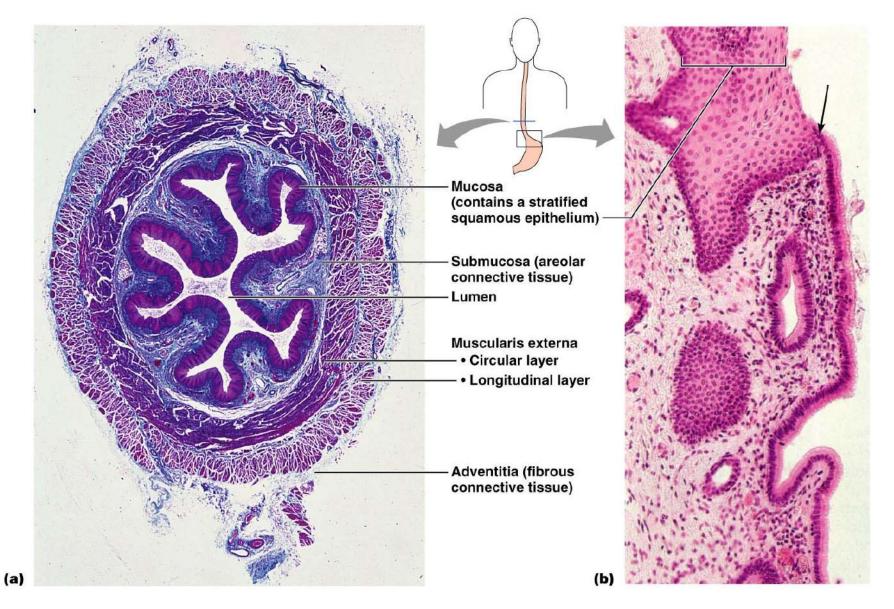
Control of Salivation

- Intrinsic salivary glands keep the mouth moist
- Extrinsic salivary glands secrete serous, enzymerich saliva in response to:
 - Ingested food which stimulates chemoreceptors and pressoreceptors
 - The thought of food
- Strong sympathetic stimulation inhibits salivation and results in dry mouth

Pharynx

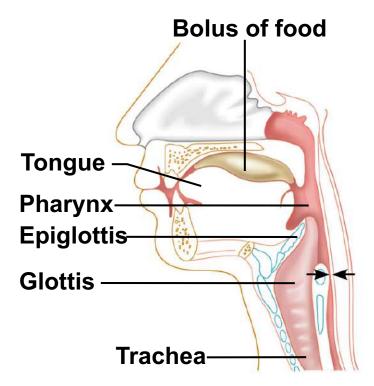
- From the mouth, the oro- and laryngopharynx allow passage of:
 - Food and fluids to the esophagus
 - Air to the trachea
- Lined with stratified squamous epithelium and mucus glands
- Has two skeletal muscle layers
 - Inner longitudinal
 - Outer pharyngeal constrictors

Esophagus

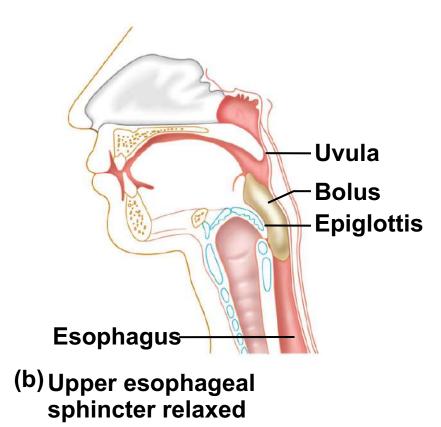


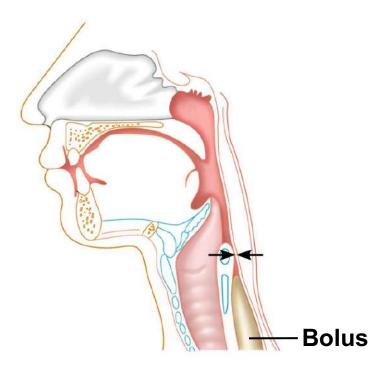
Digestive Processes in the Mouth

- Food is ingested
- Mechanical digestion begins (chewing)
- Propulsion is initiated by swallowing
- Salivary amylase begins chemical breakdown of starch
- The pharynx and esophagus serve as conduits to pass food from the mouth to the stomach

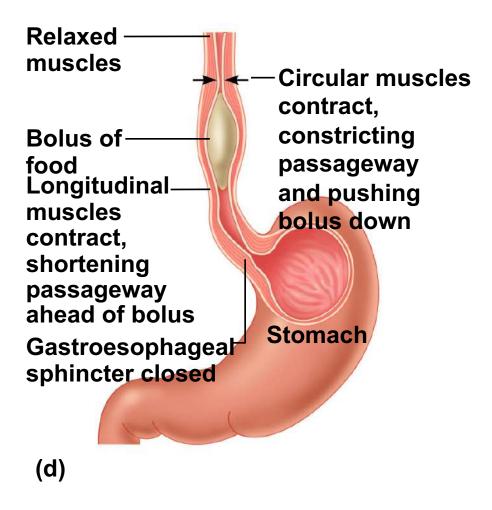


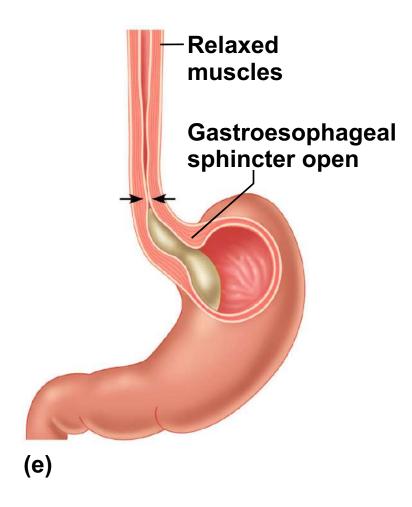
(a) Upper esophagea sphincter contracted





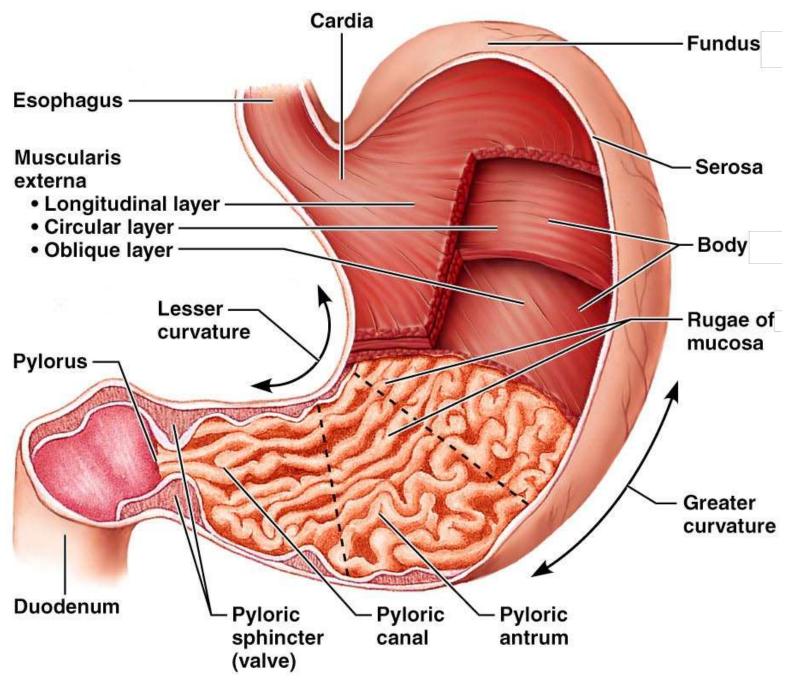
(c) Upper esophageal sphincter contracted



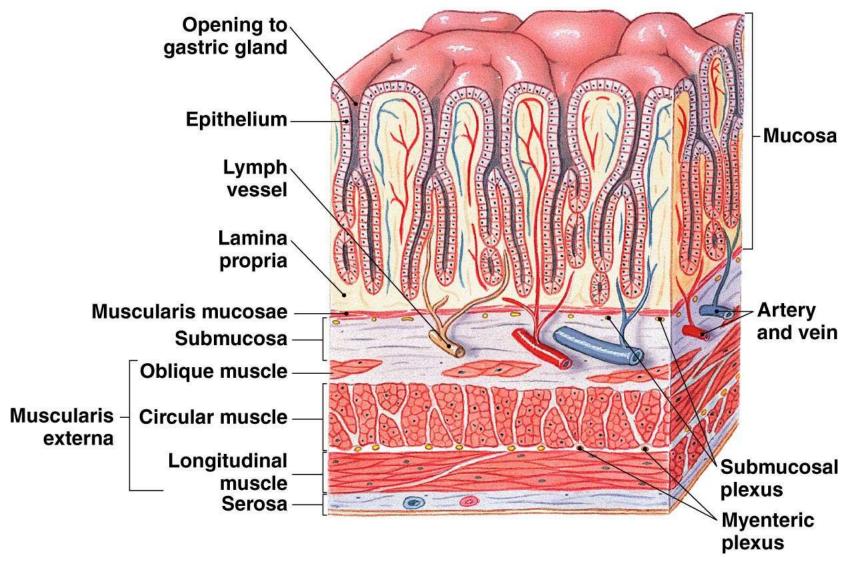


Stomach

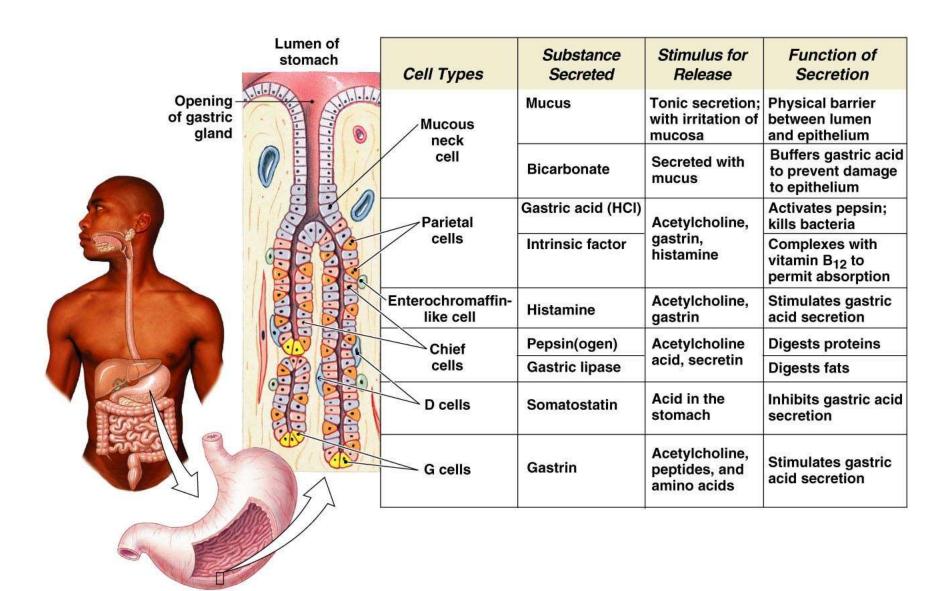
- Chemical breakdown of proteins begins and food is converted to chyme
- Cardiac region surrounds the cardiac orifice
- Fundus dome-shaped region beneath the diaphragm
- Body mid-portion of the stomach
- Pyloric region made up of the antrum and canal which terminates at the pylorus
- The pylorus is continuous with the duodenum through the pyloric sphincter



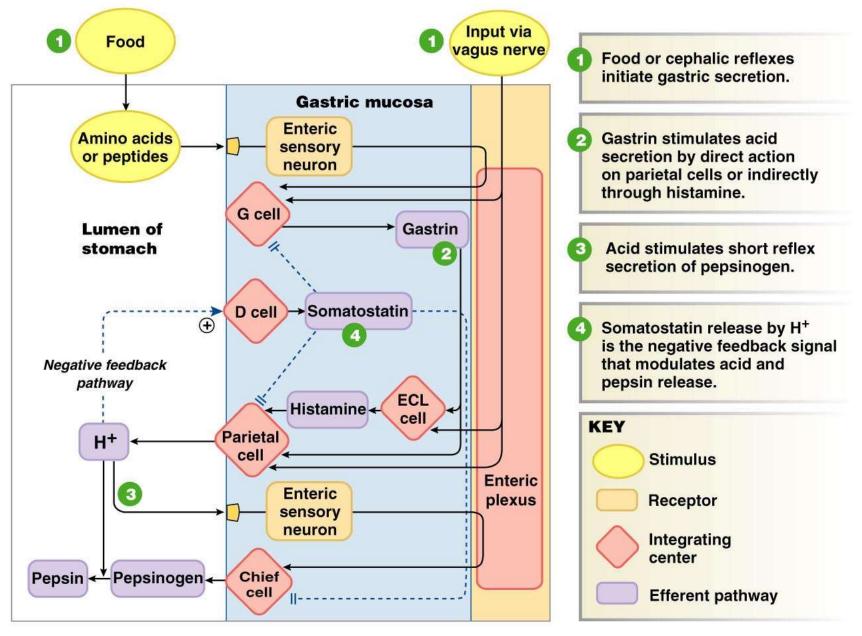
(c) In the stomach, surface area is increased by invaginations called gastric glands.



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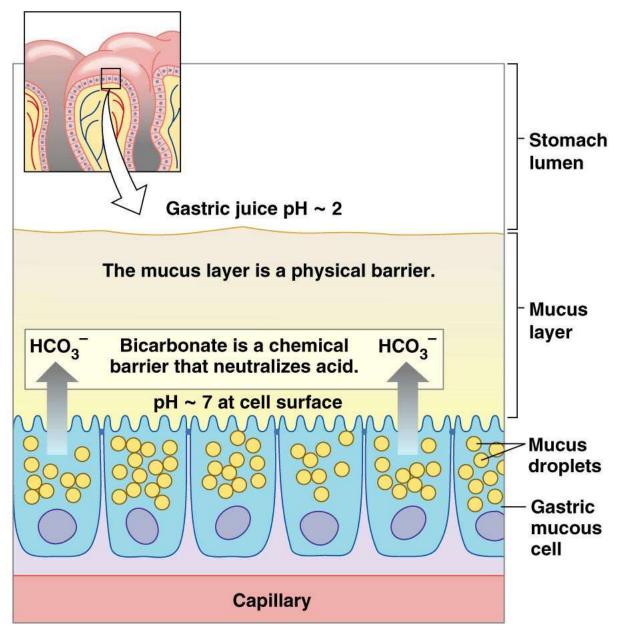


Glands of the Stomach Fundus and Body

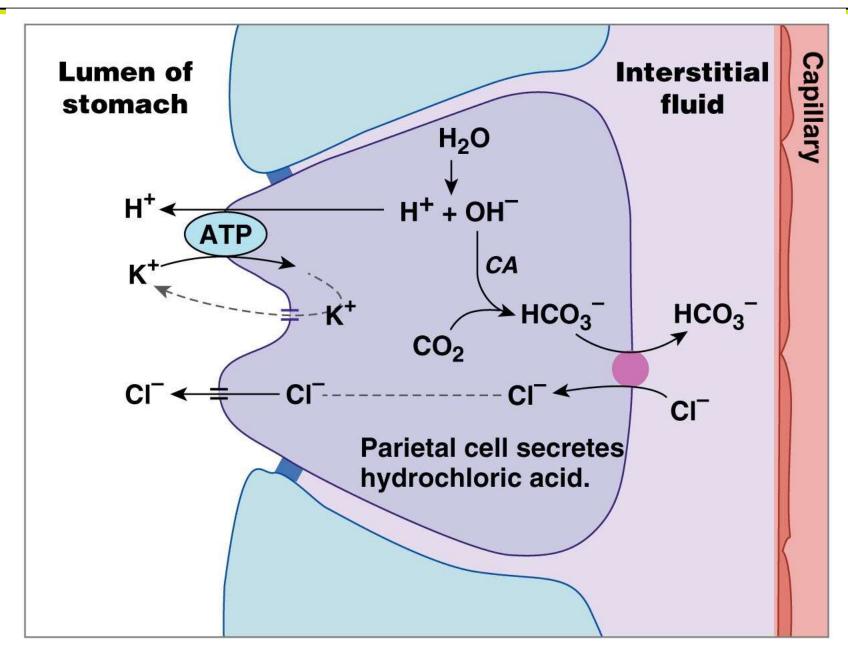
- Gastric glands of the fundus and body have a variety of secretory cells
 - Mucous neck cells secrete acid mucus
 - Parietal cells secrete HCl and intrinsic factor
 - Chief cells produce pepsinogen
 - Pepsinogen is activated to pepsin by:
 - HCl in the stomach
 - Pepsin itself via a positive feedback mechanism
 - Enteroendocrine cells (ECC) secrete gastrin, histamine, endorphins, serotonin, cholecystokinin (CCK), and somatostatin into the lamina propria

Stomach Lining

- The stomach is exposed to the harshest conditions in the digestive tract
- To keep from digesting itself, the stomach has a mucosal barrier with:
 - A thick coat of bicarbonate-rich mucus on the stomach wall
 - Epithelial cells that are joined by tight junctions
 - Gastric glands that have cells impermeable to HCl
- Damaged epithelial cells are quickly replaced



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Digestion in the Stomach

- The stomach:
 - Holds ingested food
 - Degrades this food both physically and chemically
 - Delivers chyme to the small intestine
 - Enzymatically digests proteins with pepsin
 - Secretes intrinsic factor required for absorption of vitamin B₁₂

Regulation of Gastric Secretion

- Neural and hormonal mechanisms regulate the release of gastric juice
- Stimulatory and inhibitory events occur in three phases
 - Cephalic (reflex) phase: prior to food entry
 - Gastric phase: once food enters the stomach
 - Intestinal phase: as partially digested food enters the duodenum

Cephalic Phase

- Excitatory events include:
 - Sight or thought of food
 - Stimulation of taste or smell receptors
- Inhibitory events include:
 - Loss of appetite or depression
 - Decrease in stimulation of the parasympathetic division

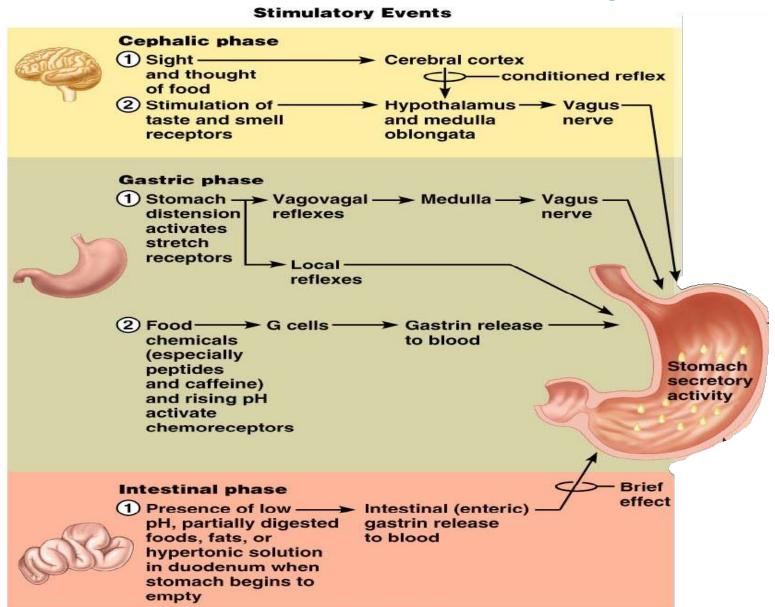
Gastric Phase

- Excitatory events include:
 - Stomach distension
 - Activation of stretch receptors (neural activation)
 - Activation of chemoreceptors by peptides, caffeine, and rising pH
 - Release of gastrin to the blood
- Inhibitory events include:
 - A pH lower than 2
 - Emotional upset that overrides the parasympathetic division

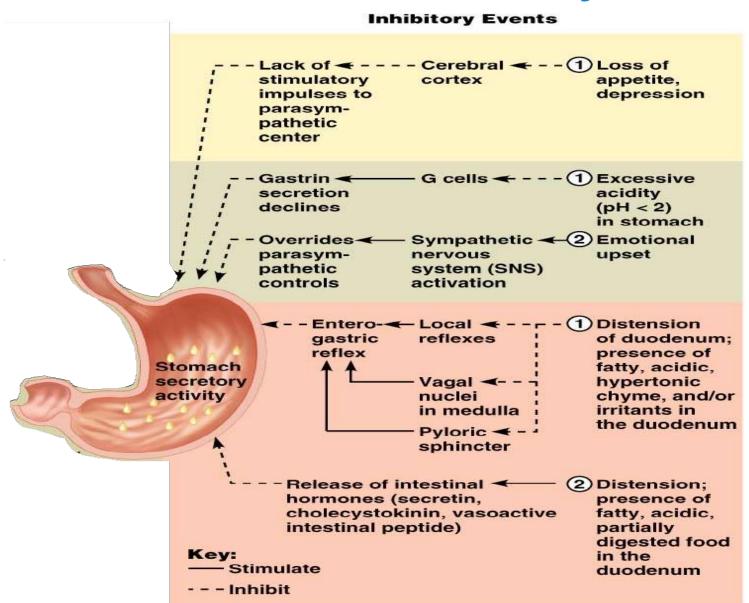
Intestinal Phase

- Excitatory phase low pH; partially digested food enters the duodenum and encourages gastric gland activity
- Inhibitory phase distension of duodenum, presence of fatty, acidic, or hypertonic chyme, and/or irritants in the duodenum
 - Initiates inhibition of local reflexes and vagal nuclei
 - Closes the pyloric sphincter

Release of Gastric Juice: Stimulatory Events

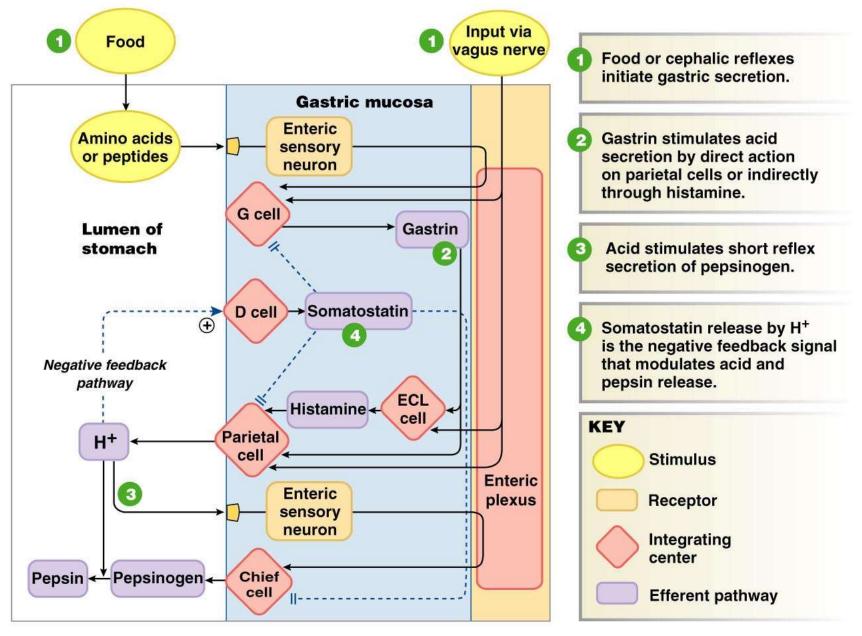


Release of Gastric Juice: Inhibitory Events



Regulation and Mechanism of HCI Secretion

- HCl secretion is stimulated by ACh, histamine, and gastrin through second-messenger systems
- Release of hydrochloric acid:
 - Is low if only one ligand binds to parietal cells
 - Is high if all three ligands bind to parietal cells
- Antihistamines block H₂ receptors and decrease HCl release



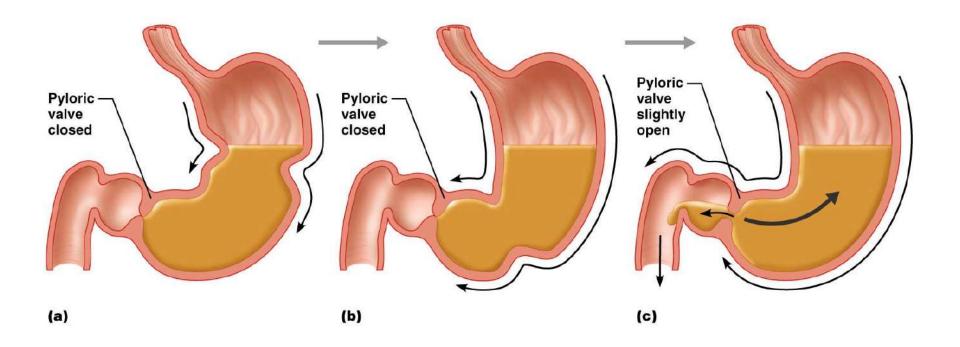
Response of the Stomach to Filling

- Stomach pressure remains constant until about 1L of food is ingested
- Relative unchanging pressure results from reflex-mediated relaxation and plasticity
- Reflex-mediated events include:
 - Receptive relaxation as food travels in the esophagus, stomach muscles relax
 - Adaptive relaxation the stomach dilates in response to gastric filling
- Plasticity intrinsic ability of smooth muscle to exhibit the stress-relaxation response

Gastric Contractile Activity

- Peristaltic waves move toward the pylorus at the rate of 3 contracxtions per minute
- This basic electrical rhythm (BER) is initiated by pacemaker cells (cells of Cajal)
- Most vigorous peristalsis and mixing occurs near the pylorus
- Chyme is either:
 - Delivered in small amounts to the duodenum or
 - Forced backward into the stomach for further mixing

Gastric Contractile Activity



- Gastric emptying is regulated by:
 - The neural enterogastric reflex:

A nervous reflex whereby stretching of the wall of the duodenum results in inhibition of gastric motility and reduced rate of emptying of the stomach.

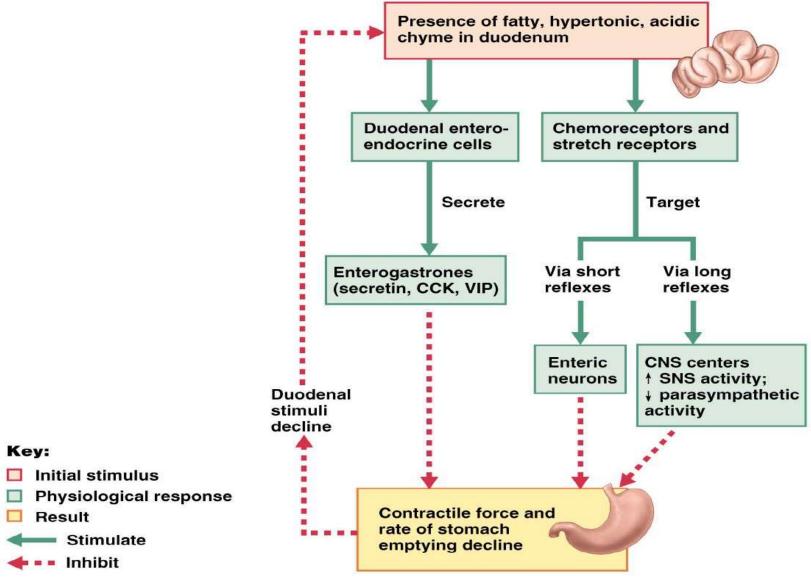
It is a feedback mechanism to regulate the rate at which partially digested food (chyme) leaves the stomach and enters the small intestine.

Hormonal (enterogastrone) mechanisms:

An enterogastrone hormones secreted by the mucosa of the duodenum in the lower gastrointestinal tract in response to dietary lipids that inhibits the forward motion of the contents of chyme.

These mechanisms inhibit gastric secretion and duodenal filling

- Carbohydrate-rich chyme quickly moves through the duodenum
- Fat-laden chyme is digested more slowly causing food to remain in the stomach longer



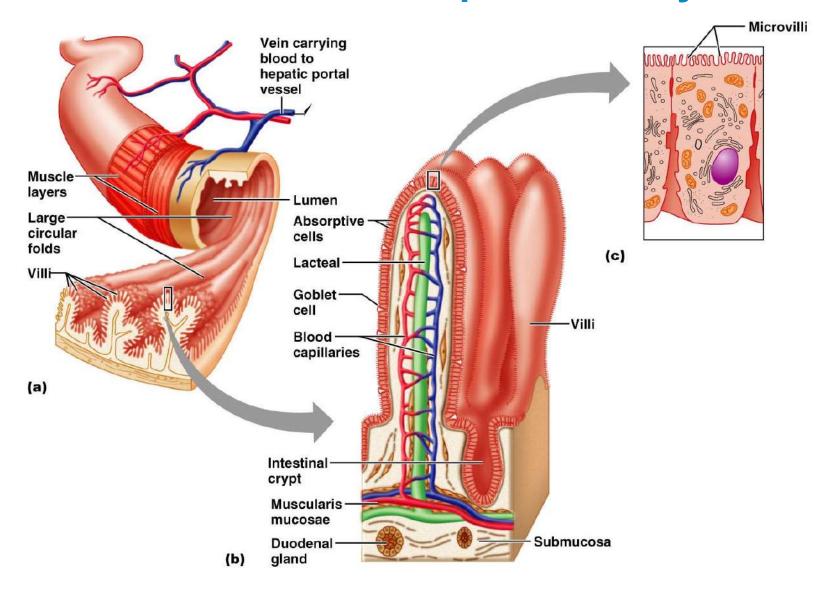
Small Intestine: Gross Anatomy

- Runs from pyloric sphincter to the ileocecal valve
- Has three subdivisions: duodenum, jejunum, and ileum
- The bile duct and main pancreatic duct:
 - Join the duodenum at the hepatopancreatic ampulla
 - Are controlled by the sphincter of Oddi
- The jejunum extends from the duodenum to the ileum
- The ileum joins the large intestine at the ileocecal valve

Small Intestine: Microscopic Anatomy

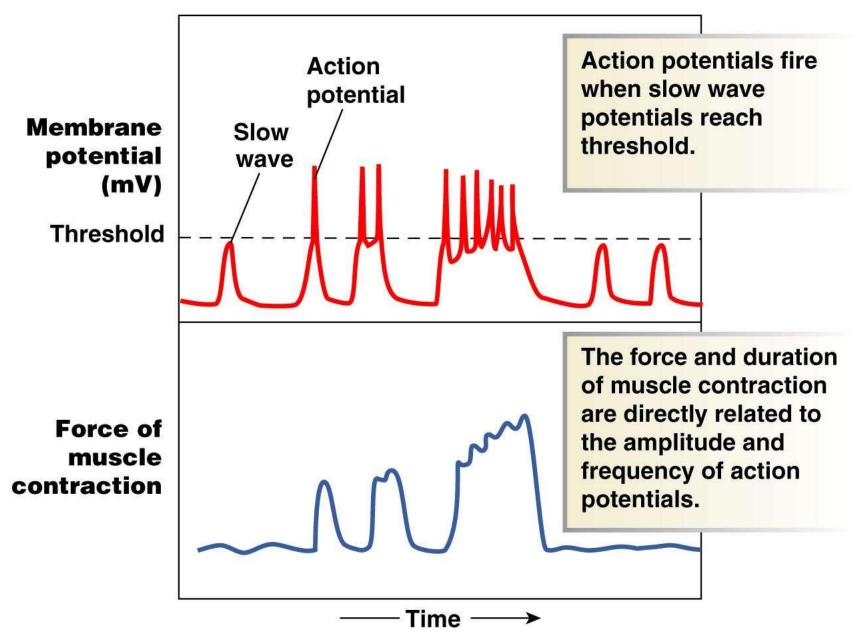
- Structural modifications of the small intestine wall increase surface area
 - Plicae circulares: deep circular folds of the mucosa and submucosa
 - Villi fingerlike extensions of the mucosa
 - Microvilli tiny projections of absorptive mucosal cells' plasma membranes

Small Intestine: Microscopic Anatomy



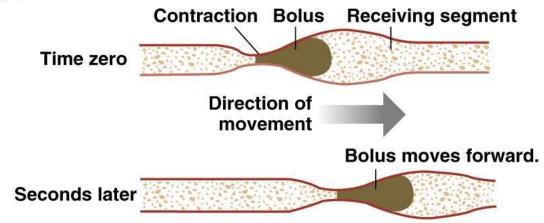
Motility in the Small Intestine

- The most common motion of the small intestine is segmentation
 - It is initiated by intrinsic pacemaker cells (Cajal cells)
 - Moves contents steadily toward the ileocecal valve
- After nutrients have been absorbed:
 - Peristalsis begins with each wave starting distal to the previous
 - Meal remnants, bacteria, mucosal cells, and debris are moved into the large intestine

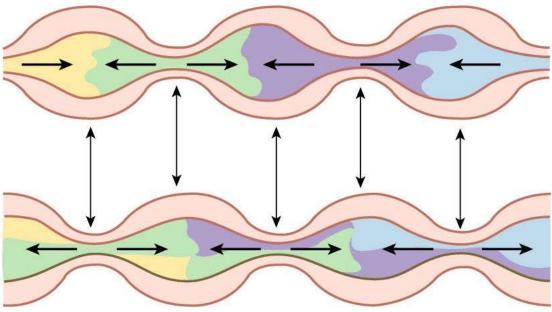


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(a) Peristaltic contractions create forward movement.



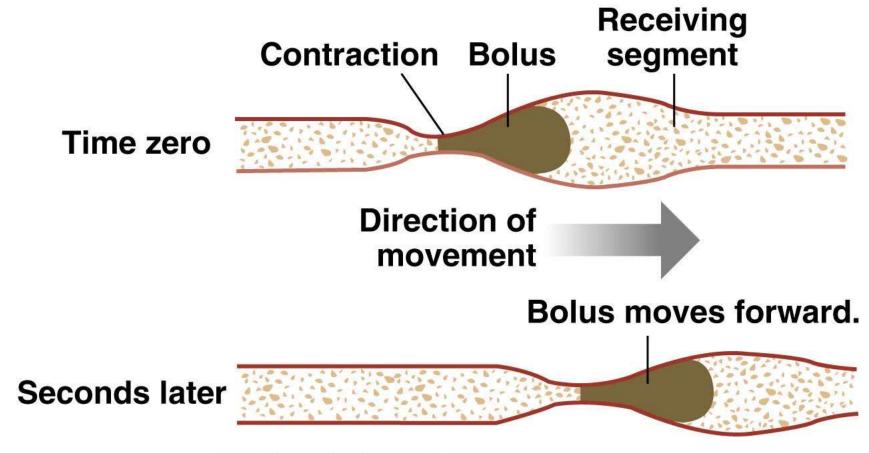
(b) Segmental contractions are responsible for mixing.



No net forward movement

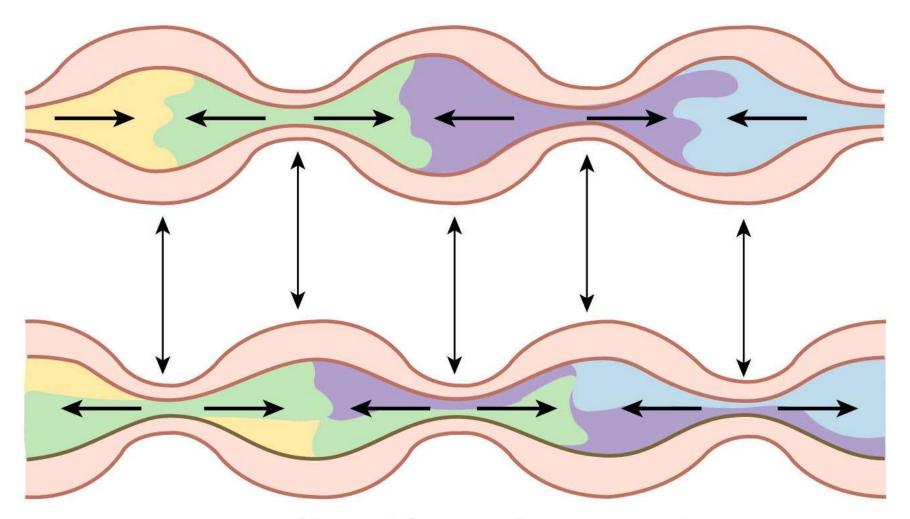
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(a) Peristaltic contractions create forward movement.



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(b) Segmental contractions are responsible for mixing.



No net forward movement

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Control of Motility

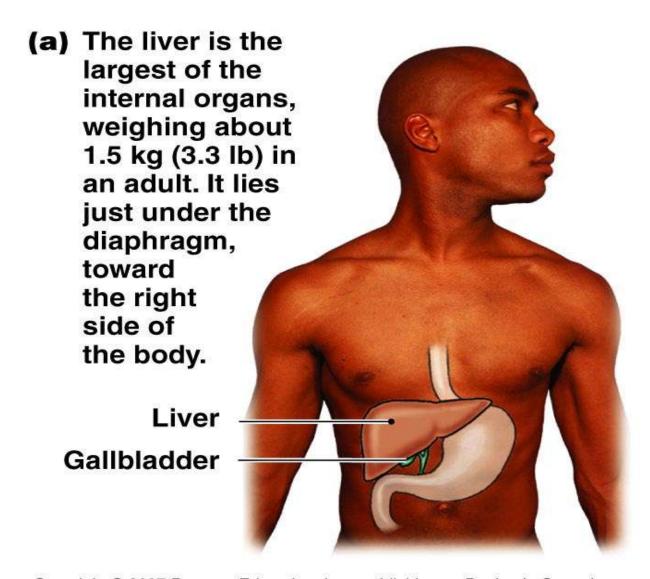
- Local enteric neurons of the GI tract coordinate intestinal motility
- Cholinergic neurons cause:
 - Contraction and shortening of the circular muscle layer
 - Shortening of longitudinal muscle
 - Distension of the intestine

Control of Motility

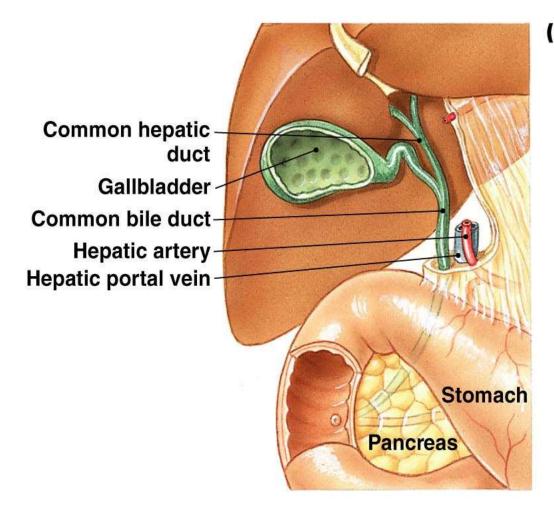
- Other impulses relax the circular muscle
- The gastroileal reflex and gastrin:
 - Relax the ileocecal sphincter
 - Allow chyme to pass into the large intestine

Liver

- The largest gland in the body
- Superficially has four lobes right, left, caudate, and quadrate
- The falciform ligament:
 - Separates the right and left lobes anteriorly
 - Suspends the liver from the diaphragm and anterior abdominal wall



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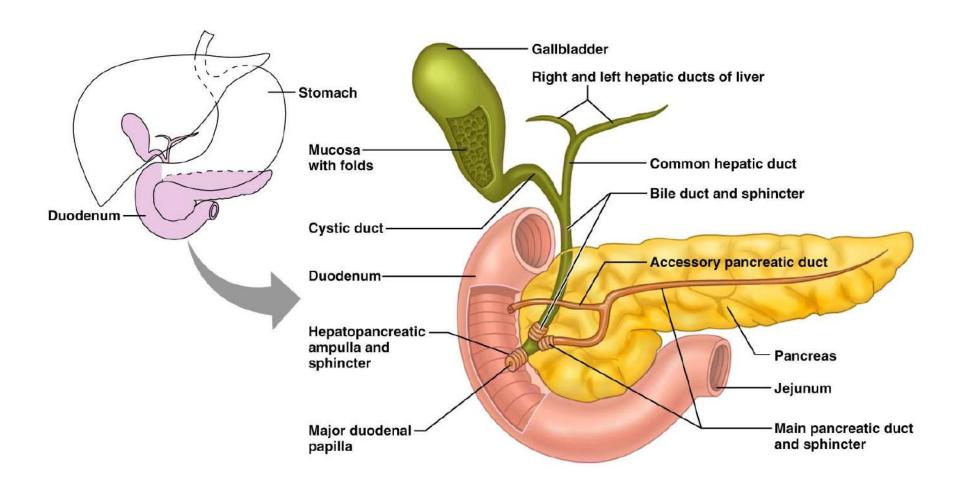
(b) Blood flow to the liver comes from two sources. Oxygenated blood containing metabolites from peripheral tissues reaches the liver via the hepatic artery. Blood to the liver via the hepatic portal vein is rich in absorbed nutrients from the gastrointestinal tract (Fig. 21-30) and contains hemoglobin breakdown products from the spleen. Blood leaves the liver in the hepatic vein (not shown). Bile synthesized in the liver is secreted into the common hepatic duct for storage in the gallbladder. From there, it is secreted into the lumen of the intestine through the common bile duct.

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Liver: Associated Structures

- Bile leaves the liver via:
 - Bile ducts, which fuse into the common hepatic duct
 - The common hepatic duct, which fuses with the cystic duct
 - These two ducts form the bile duct

Gallbladder and Associated Ducts



Liver: Microscopic Anatomy

- Hexagonal-shaped liver lobules are the structural and functional units of the liver
 - Composed of hepatocyte (liver cell) plates radiating outward from a central vein
 - **Portal triads** are found at each of the six corners of each liver lobule

Liver: Microscopic Anatomy

- Hepatocytes' functions include:
 - Production of bile
 - Processing blood-borne nutrients
 - Storage of fat-soluble vitamins
 - Detoxification
- Secreted bile flows between hepatocytes toward the bile ducts in the portal triads

Composition of Bile

- A yellow-green, alkaline solution containing bile salts, bile pigments, cholesterol, neutral fats, phospholipids, and electrolytes
- Bile salts are cholesterol derivatives that:
 - Emulsify fat
 - Facilitate fat and cholesterol absorption
 - Help solubilize cholesterol
- Enterohepatic circulation recycles bile salts
- The chief bile pigment is **bilirubin**, a waste product of heme

The Gallbladder

- Thin-walled, green muscular sac on the ventral surface of the liver
- Stores and concentrates bile by absorbing its water and ions
- Releases bile via the cystic duct, which flows into the bile duct

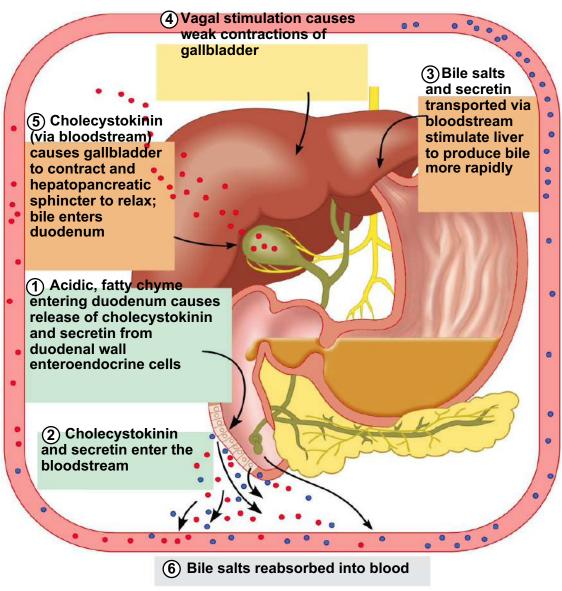
Regulation of Bile Release

- Acidic, fatty chyme causes the duodenum to release:
 - Cholecystokinin (CCK) and secretin into the bloodstream
- CCK and secretin transported in blood stimulate liver to produce bile
- Vagal stimulation causes weak contractions of the gallbladder

Regulation of Bile Release

- Cholecystokinin (CCK) causes:
 - The gallbladder to contract
 - The hepato-pancreatic sphincter to relax
- As a result, bile enters the duodenum

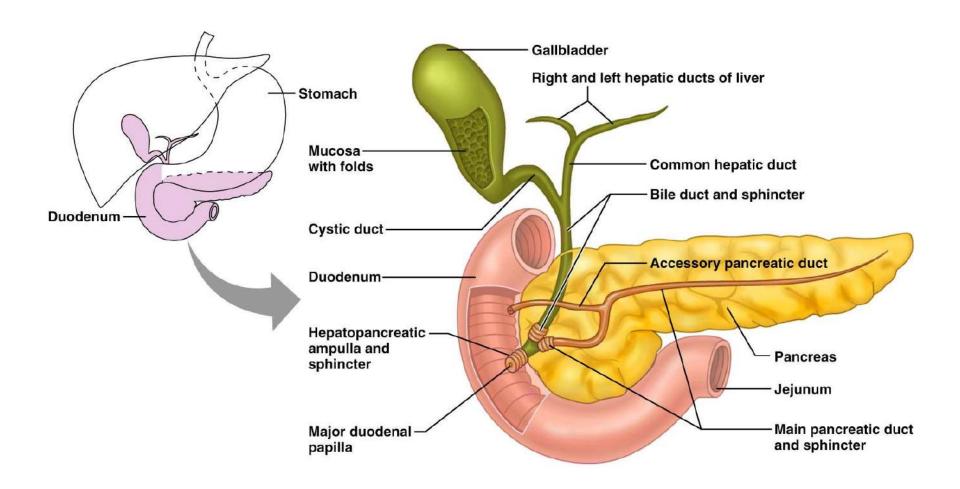
Regulation of Bile Release



Pancreas

- Location
 - Lies deep to the greater curvature of the stomach
 - The head is encircled by the duodenum and the tail abuts the spleen

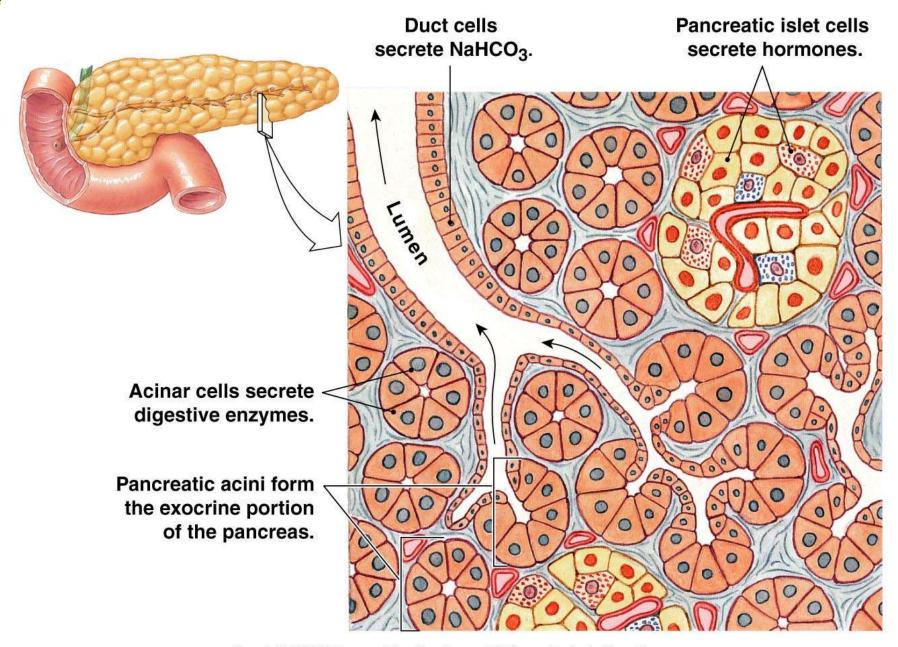
Duodenum and Related Organs



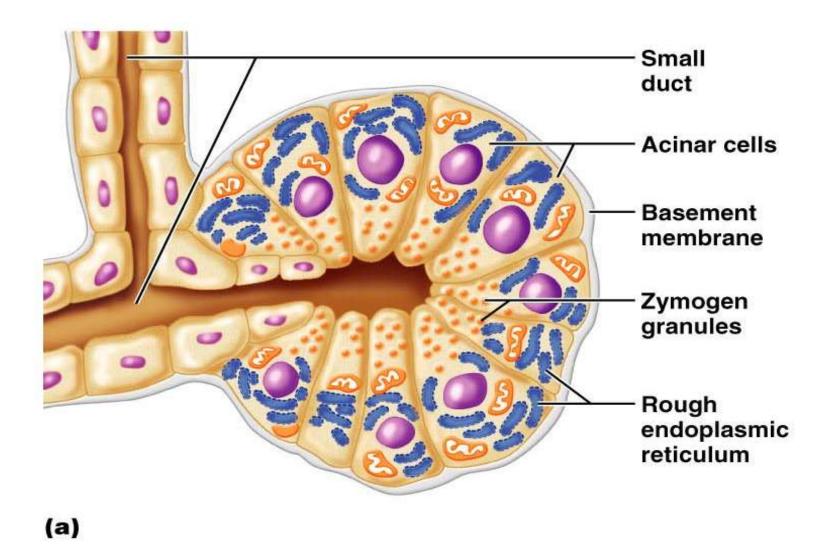
Pancreas

Exocrine function

- Secretes pancreatic juice which breaks down all categories of foodstuff
- Acini (clusters of secretory cells) contain zymogen granules with digestive enzymes
- The pancreas also has an endocrine function release of insulin and glucagon



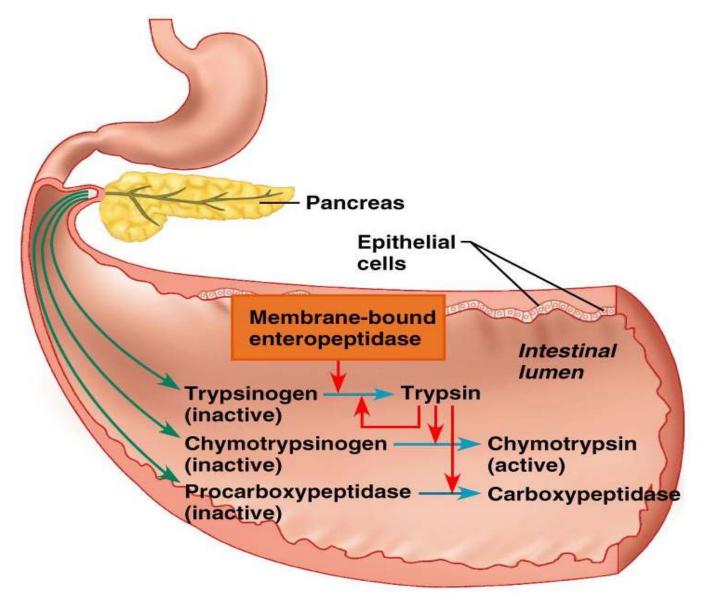
Acinus of the Pancreas



Composition and Function of Pancreatic Juice

- Water solution of enzymes and electrolytes (primarily HCO₃⁻)
 - Neutralizes acid chyme
 - Provides optimal environment for pancreatic enzymes
- Enzymes are released in inactive form and activated in the duodenum

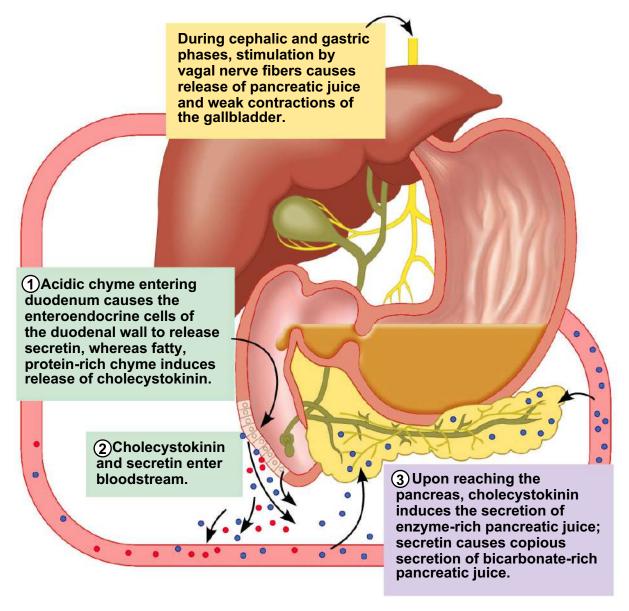
Pancreatic Enzymes' Activation



Regulation of Pancreatic Secretion

- Secretin and CCK are released when fatty or acidic chyme enters the duodenum
- CCK and secretin enter the bloodstream
- Upon reaching the pancreas:
 - CCK induces the secretion of enzyme-rich pancreatic juice
 - Secretin causes secretion of bicarbonate-rich pancreatic juice
- Vagal stimulation also causes release of pancreatic juice

Regulation of Pancreatic Secretion



The Digestive Hormones

TABLE 21-1	The Digestive Hormones			
	STIMULUS FOR RELEASE	PRIMARY TARGET(S)	PRIMARY EFFECT(S)	OTHER INFORMATION
STOMACH				
Gastrin	Peptides and amino acids; neural reflexes	ECL cells and parietal cells	Stimulates gastric acid secretion and mucosal growth.	Somatostatin inhibits release.
INTESTINE				
Cholecystokinin (CCK)	Fatty acids and some amino acids	Gallbladder, pancreas, stomach	Stimulates gallbladder contraction and pancreatic enzyme secretion.	Promotes satiety.
				Some effects may be due to CCK as a neuro-
			Inhibits gastric emptying and acid secretion.	transmitter.
Secretin	Acid in small intestine	Pancreas, stomach	Stimulates bicarbonate secretion.	
			Inhibits gastric emptying and acid secretion.	
Motilin	Fasting: periodic release every 1.5–2 hours	Gastric and intestinal smooth muscle	Stimulates migrating motor complex.	Inhibited by eating a meal.
Gastric inhibitory peptide (GIP)	Glucose, fatty acids, and amino acids in small intestine	Beta cells of pancreas	Stimulates insulin release (feedforward mechanism).	
			Inhibits gastric emptying and acid secretion.	
Glucagon-like peptide 1 (GLP-1)	Mixed meal that in- dudes carbohydrates or fats in the lumen	Endocrine pancreas	Stimulates insulin release.	Promotes satiety.
			Inhibits glucagon release and gastric function.	

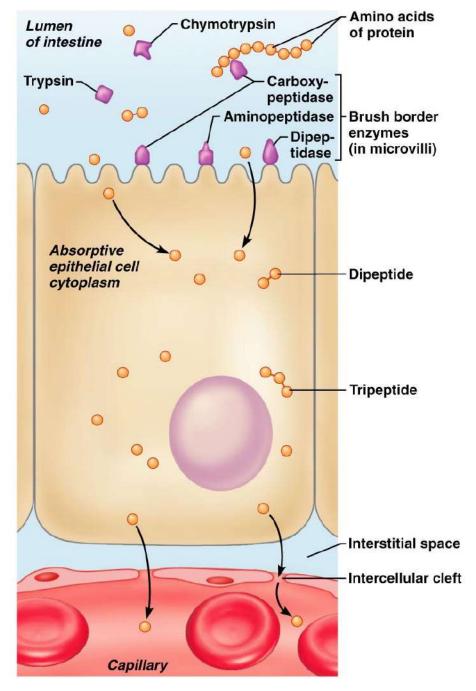
Chemical Digestion: Carbohydrates

- Absorption: via cotransport with Na⁺, and facilitated diffusion
 - Enter the capillary bed in the villi
 - Transported to the liver via the hepatic portal vein
- Enzymes used: salivary amylase, pancreatic amylase, and brush border enzymes

Chemical Digestion: Proteins

- Absorption: similar to carbohydrates
- Enzymes used: pepsin in the stomach
- Enzymes acting in the small intestine
 - Pancreatic enzymes trypsin, chymotrypsin, and carboxypeptidase
 - Brush border enzymes aminopeptidases, carboxypeptidases, and dipeptidases

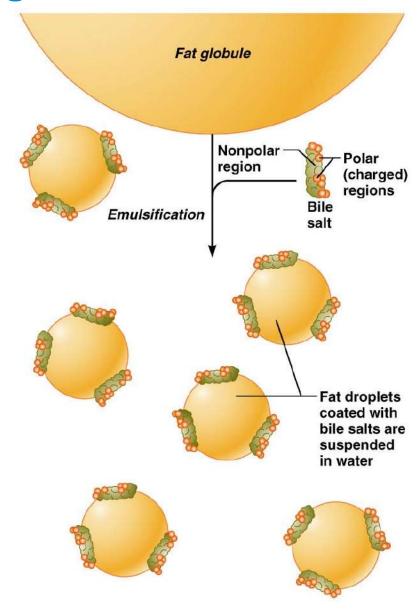




Chemical Digestion: Fats

- Absorption: Diffusion into intestinal cells where they:
 - Combine with proteins and extrude chylomicrons
 - Enter lacteals and are transported to systemic circulation via lymph
- Glycerol and short chain fatty acids are:
 - Absorbed into the capillary blood in villi
 - Transported via the hepatic portal vein
- Enzymes/chemicals used: bile salts and pancreatic lipase

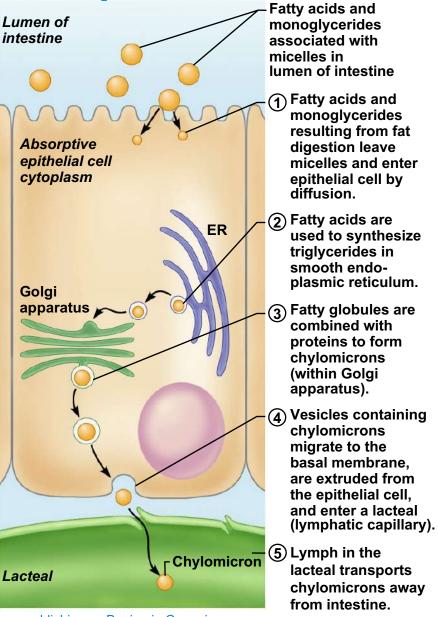
Chemical Digestion: Fats



Fatty Acid Absorption

- Fatty acids and monoglycerides enter intestinal cells via diffusion
- They are combined with proteins within the cells
- Resulting chylomicrons are extruded
- They enter lacteals and are transported to the circulation via lymph

Fatty Acid Absorption



Chemical Digestion: Nucleic Acids

- Absorption: active transport via membrane carriers
- Absorbed in villi and transported to liver via hepatic portal vein
- Enzymes used: pancreatic ribonucleases and deoxyribonuclease in the small intestines

Electrolyte Absorption

- Most ions are actively absorbed along the length of small intestine
 - Na⁺ is coupled with absorption of glucose and amino acids
 - Ionic iron is transported into mucosal cells where it binds to ferritin
- Anions passively follow the electrical potential established by Na⁺

Electrolyte Absorption

- K⁺ diffuses across the intestinal mucosa in response to osmotic gradients
- Ca²⁺ absorption:
 - Is related to blood levels of ionic calcium
 - Is regulated by vitamin D and parathyroid hormone (PTH)

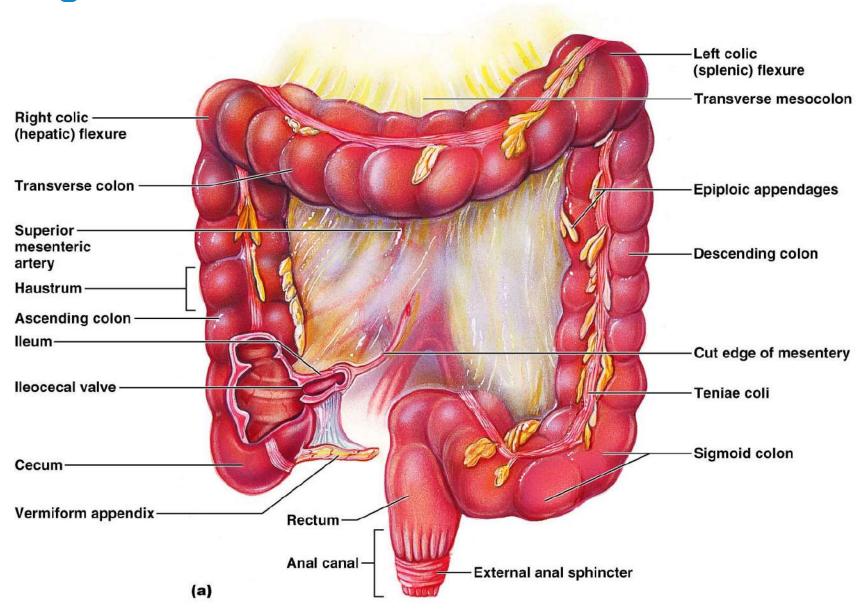
Water Absorption

- 95% of water is absorbed in the small intestines by osmosis
- Water moves in both directions across intestinal mucosa
- Net osmosis occurs whenever a concentration gradient is established by active transport of solutes into the mucosal cells
- Water uptake is coupled with solute uptake, and as water moves into mucosal cells, substances follow along their concentration gradients

Large Intestine

- Has three unique features:
 - Teniae coli three bands of longitudinal smooth muscle in its muscularis
 - Haustra pocketlike sacs caused by the tone of the teniae coli
 - Epiploic appendages fat-filled pouches of visceral peritoneum

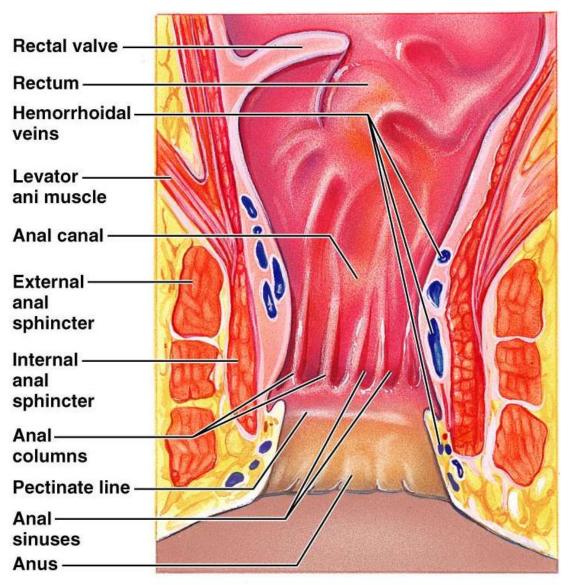
Large Intestine



Valves and Sphincters of the Rectum and Anus

- Three valves of the rectum stop feces from being passed with gas
- The anus has two sphincters:
 - Internal anal sphincter composed of smooth muscle
 - External anal sphincter composed of skeletal muscle
- These sphincters are closed except during defecation

Structure of the Anal Canal



Bacterial Flora

- The bacterial flora of the large intestine consist of:
 - Bacteria surviving the small intestine that enter the cecum and
 - Those entering via the anus
- These bacteria:
 - Colonize the colon
 - Ferment indigestible carbohydrates
 - Release irritating acids and gases (flatus)
 - Synthesize B complex vitamins and vitamin K

Functions of the Large Intestine

- Other than digestion of enteric bacteria, no further digestion takes place
- Vitamins, water, and electrolytes are reclaimed
- Its major function is propulsion of fecal material toward the anus
- Though essential for comfort, the colon is not essential for life

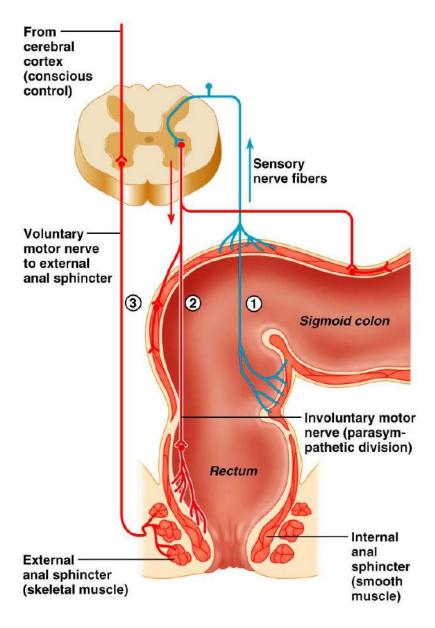
Motility of the Large Intestine

- Haustral contractions
 - Slow segmenting movements that move the contents of the colon
 - Haustra sequentially contract as they are stimulated by distension
- Presence of food in the stomach:
 - Activates the gastrocolic reflex
 - Initiates peristalsis that forces contents toward the rectum

Defecation

- Distension of rectal walls caused by feces:
 - Stimulates contraction of the rectal walls
 - Relaxes the internal anal sphincter
- Voluntary signals stimulate relaxation of the external anal sphincter and defecation occurs

Defecation



Malabsorption of Nutrients

- Results from anything that interferes with delivery of bile or pancreatic juice
- Factors that damage the intestinal mucosa (e.g., bacterial infection)
- Gluten enteropathy (adult celiac disease) gluten damages the intestinal villi and reduces the length of microvilli
 - Treated by eliminating gluten from the diet (all grains but rice and corn)

Cancer

- Stomach and colon cancers rarely have early signs or symptoms
- Metastasized colon cancers frequently cause secondary liver cancer
- Prevention is by regular dental and medical examinations

Cancer

- Colon cancer is the 2nd largest cause of cancer deaths in males (lung cancer is 1st)
- Forms from benign mucosal tumors called polyps whose formation increases with age
- Regular colon examination should be done for all those over 50