AXIAL/APPENDICULAR SKELETOW

CN: Use light but contrasting colors for A and B.

(1) Color the axial skeleton (A) in all three views.

Do not color the spaces between the ribs (intercostal).

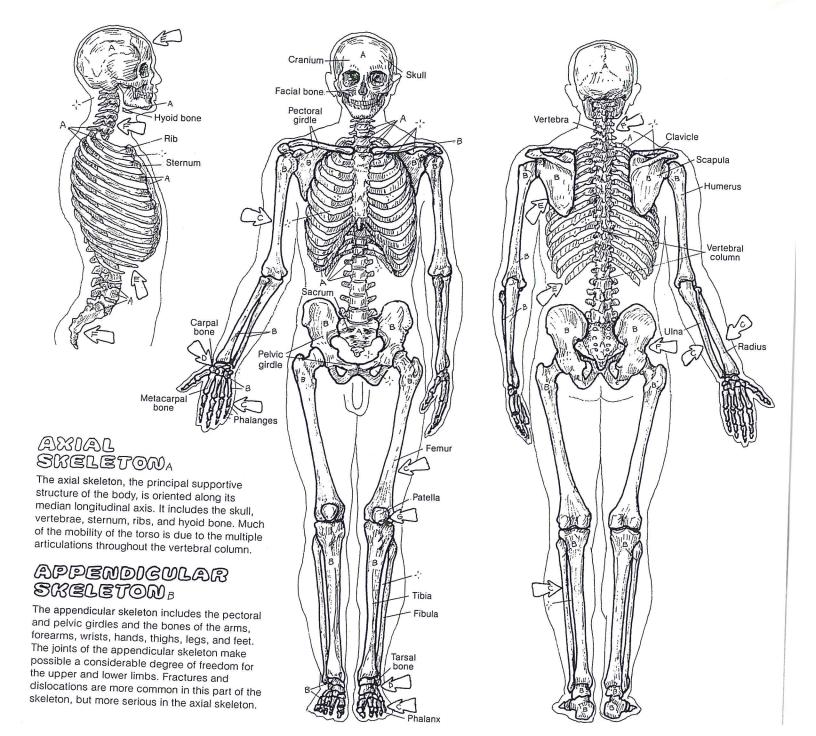
(2) Color the darker, outlined appendicular skeleton (B).

(3) Color the arrows identifying bone shape/classification.

CLASSIFICATION OF BONES:

LONG: SHORT, FLAT_E IRREGULAR; SESAMOID:

Bones have a variety of shapes and defy classification by shape; yet such a classification historically exists. Long bones are clearly longer in one axis than in another; they are characterized by a medullary cavity, a hollow diaphysis of compact bone, and at least two epiphyses—e.g., femur, phalanx. Short bones are roughly cube-shaped; they are predominantly cancellous bone with a thin cortex of compact bone and have no cavity—e.g., carpal and tarsal bones. Flat bones (cranial bones, scapulae, ribs) are generally more flat than round, and irregular bones (vertebrae) have two or more different shapes. Bones not specifically long or short fit this latter category. Sesamoid bones are developed in tendons (e.g., patellar tendon); they are mostly bone, often mixed with fibrous tissue and cartilage. They have a cartilaginous articular surface facing an articular surface of an adjacent bone; they may be part of a synovial joint ensheathed within the fibrous joint capsule. The structures are generally pea-sized and are most commonly found in certain tendons/joint capsules in hands and feet, and occasionally in other articular sites of the upper and lower limbs. The largest is the patella, integrated in the tendon of quadriceps femoris. Sesamoid bones resist friction and compression, enhance joint movement, and may assist local circulation.



BONES OF THE SKULL (1)

8 CRAWIAL +

OGGIPITALA 2 PARIETAL: FRONTAL:

2 TEMPORAL, ETHMOID: SPHENOID:

14 FACIAL+

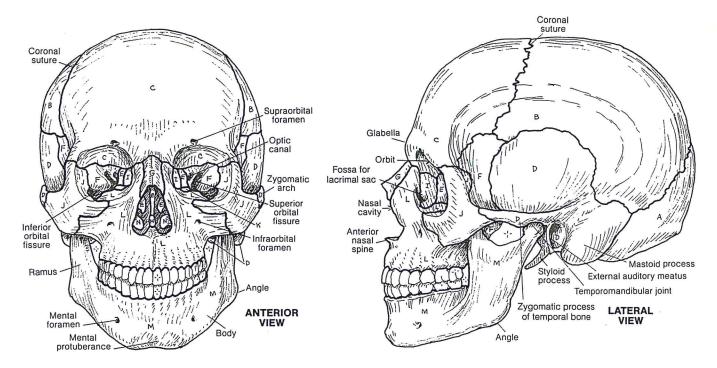
2 MASAL. VOMER, 2 LACRIMALI

2 ZYGOMATIC, 2 PALATINER 2 MAXILLAL

MANDIBLE M 2 INFERIOR WASAL CONCHAN

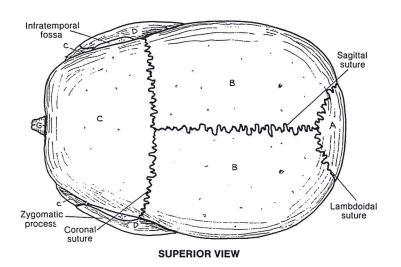
CN: Save the brightest colors for the smallest bones and the lightest colors for the largest. (1) Color one bone in as many views as it appears before going on to the next. (2) There are some very small bones to color in the

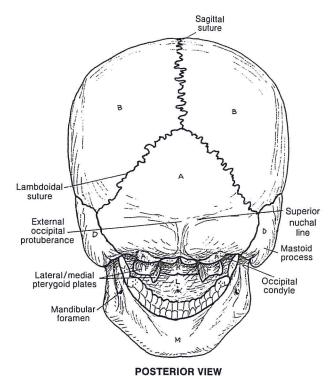
orbits and in the lower part of the posterior view of the skull. Study these areas carefully before coloring to determine the color boundaries. (3) Do not color the darkened areas in the orbits and nasal cavity in the anterior view.



The skull is composed of *cranial bones* (forming a vault for the brain) and *facial bones* (giving origin to the muscles of facial expression and providing buttresses protecting the brain). Except for the temporomandibular joint (a synovial joint), all bones are connected by generally immovable fibrous sutures.

The orbit is composed of seven bones, has three significant fissures/canals, and is home to the eye and related muscles, nerves, and vessels. The most delicate of the skull bones is at the medial orbital wall. The external nose is largely cartilaginous and is therefore not part of the bony skull.





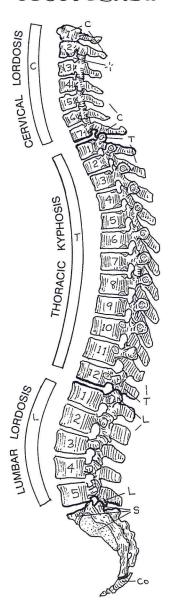
VERTEBRAL COLUMN

* color vertebral regions & disorders only & colors are used on future plates (28,29)

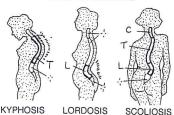
CN: Use gray for D, yellow for H, and light colors for the rest, especially C, T, L, S, and Co. L4 and L5 represent the lumbar vertebrae most involved in motion. (1) Begin with regions of the column and the three examples of vertebral disorders at lower left. (2) Golor the motion segment and its role in flexion and extension. (3) Color the vertebral foramina and canal. (4) Color the example of a protruding intervertebral disc pressing on a spinal nerve.

REGIONS:

CERVICAL: THORACIC+ LUMBARL SACRAL: COCCYGEAL:



VERTEBRAL DISORDERS

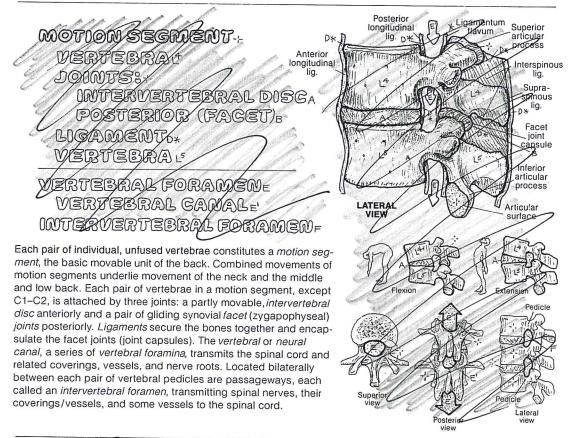


The vertebral column has 24 individual vertebrae arranged in *cervical*, *thoracic*, and *lumbar* regions; the *sacral* and *coccygeal* vertebrae are fused (sacrum/coccyx). Numbers of vertebrae in each region are remarkably constant; rarely S1 may be free or L5 may be fused to the sacrum (transitional vertebrae). The seven mobile cervical vertebrae support the neck and the 3–4 kg (6–8 lb) head. The cervical spine is normally curved (*cervical lordosis*) secondary to the development of postural reflexes about three months after birth. The 12 thoracic vertebrae support the thorax, head, and neck. They articulate with 12 ribs bilaterally. The thoracic spine is congenitally curved (*kyphosis*) as shown.

The five lumbar vertebrae support the upper body,

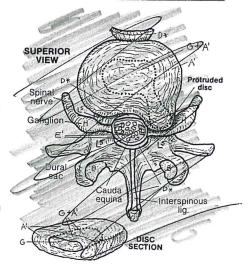
torso, and low back. The column of these vertebrae becomes curved (*lumbar lordosis*) at the onset of walking at 1–2 years of age. The sacrum is the keystone of a weightbearing arch involving the hip bones. The sacral/coccygeal curve is congenital. The variably numbered 1–5 coccygeal vertebrae are usually fused, although the first vertebra may be movable.

Vertebral curvatures may be affected (usually exaggerated) by posture, activity, obesity, pregnancy, trauma, and/or disease; these conditions are given the same names as the normal curves. A slight lateral curvature to the spine often reflects dominant handedness; a significant, possibly disabling, lateral curve (scoliosis) may occur for many reasons.



ONTERVERTEBRAL DISCA AMNULUS FIBROSUS A MUCLEUS PULPOSUS STINAL WERVE

The intervertebral disc consists of the *annulus fibrosus* (concentric, interwoven collagenous fibers integrated with cartilage cells) attached to the vertebral bodies above and below, and the more central *nucleus pulposus* (a mass of degenerated collagen, proteoglycans, and water). The discs make possible movement between vertebral bodies. With aging, the discs dehydrate and thin, resulting in a loss of height. The cervical and lumbar discs, particularly, are subject to early degeneration from one or more of a number of causes. Weakening and/or tearing of the annulus can result in a broad-based bulge or a localized (focal) protrusion of the nucleus and adjacent annulus; such an event can compress a *spinal nerve* root as shown.



CN: Use red for M and use the same colors as were used on Plate of C and T. Use dark colors for N, O, and R. (1) Begin with the parts of a cervical vertebra. Color the atlas and axis and note they have been given separate colors to distinguish them from other cervical vertebrae. (2) Color the parts of a thoracic vertebra and then the thoracic portion of the vertebral column. Note the three different facet/demifacet colors.

CERVICAL VERTEBRA:

BODY:

PEDICLE

TRANSVERSE PROCESS: ARTICULAR PROCESS:

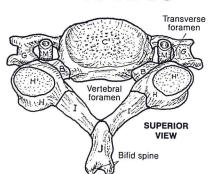
FACETH

LAMOMAI

SPINOUS PROCESS.

LATERAL VIEW

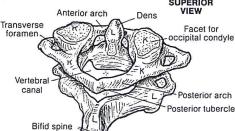
T 3

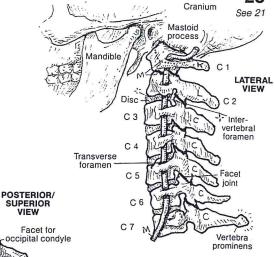


TYPICAL CERVICAL (C4) VERTEBRA



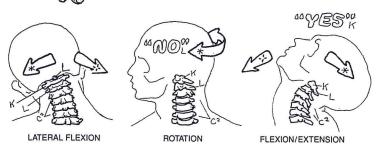
ATLAS AXIS





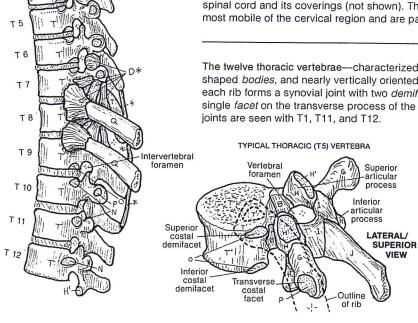
VERTEBRAL ARTERY

28



The small seven cervical vertebrae support and move the head and neck, supported by ligaments and strap-like paracervical (paraspinal) muscles. The ring-shaped atlas (C1) has no body; thus there are no weight-bearing discs between the occiput and C1, and between C1 and C2 (the axis). Head weight is transferred to C3 by the large articular processes and facets of C1 and C2. The atlantooccipital joints, in conjunction with the C3-C7 facet joints, permit a remarkable degree of flexion/extension ("yes" movements). The dens of C2 projects into the anterior part of the C1 ring, forming a pivot joint, enabling the head and C1 to rotate up to 80° ("no" movements). Such rotational capacity is permitted by the relatively horizontal orientation of the cervical facets. The C3-C6 vertebrae are similar; C7 is remarkable for its prominent spinous process, easily palpated. The anteriorly directed cervical curve and the extensive paracervical musculature preclude palpation of the other cervical spinous processes. The vertebral arteries, enroute to the brain stem, pass through foramina of the transverse processes of the upper six cervical vertebrae. These vessels are subject to stretching injuries with extreme cervical rotation of the hyperextended neck. The cervical vertebral canal conducts the cervical spinal cord and its coverings (not shown). The C4-C5 and C5-C6 motion segments are the most mobile of the cervical region and are particularly prone to disc/facet degeneration.

The twelve thoracic vertebrae—characterized by long, slender spinous processes, heart-shaped *bodies*, and nearly vertically oriented *facets*—articulate with *ribs* bilaterally. In general, each rib forms a synovial joint with two *demifacets* on the bodies of adjacent vertebrae and a single *facet* on the transverse process of the lower vertebra. Variations of these costovertebral joints are seen with T1, T11, and T12.



THORACIC VERTEBRAT

BODYTI FACETI DEMIFACETO TRANSVERSE FACETO RIBO

LICAMEMT P*

LUMBAR, SACRAL & COCCYCEAL VERTEBRAE

CN: Use the same colors as were used on the previous two plates for C, T, L, E, F, A, S, and Co. (1) Begin with the three large views of lumbar vertebrae. (2) Color the different planes of articular facets. (3) Color the four views of the sacrum and coccyx. Note that the central portion of the median section receives the vertebral canal color (E¹).

LUMBAR VERTEBRAL

VERTEBRAL FORAMEN = VERTEBRAL CAMAL =' INTERVERTEBRAL FORAMEN =

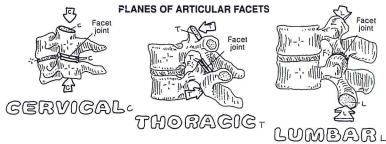
Body

Transverse

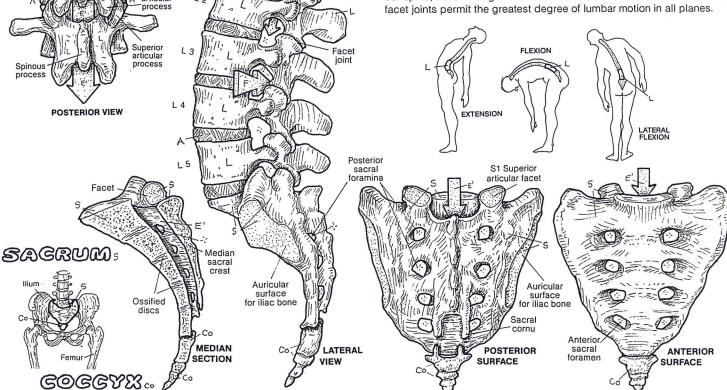
Superior

INTERVERTEBRAL DISCA

The five lumbar vertebrae are the most massive of all the individual vertebrae, their thick processes securing the attachments of numerous ligaments and muscles/tendons. Significant flexion and extension of the lumbar and lumbosacral motion segments, particularly at L4-L5 and L5-S1, are possible. At about L1, the spinal cord terminates and the cauda equina (bundle of lumbar, sacral, and coccygeal nerve roots; see Plate 70) begins. The lumbar *intervertebral foramina* are large. Transiting nerve roots/sheaths take up only about 50% of the volume of these foramina. Disc and facet degeneration is common in the L4-L5 and L5-S1 segments; reduction of space for the nerve roots increases the risk of nerve root irritation/compression. Occasionally, the L5 vertebra is partially or completely fused to the sacrum (sacralized L5). The S1 vertebra may be partially or wholly non-fused (lumbarized S1), resulting in essentially six lumbar vertebrae and a sacrum of four fused vertebrae.



SUPERIOR VIEW The planes (orientation) of the articular facets determine the direction and Superior L1 articular influence the degree of motion segment movement. The plane of the cer-Superior Inferior articular vical facets is angled coronally off the horizontal plane about 30°. Consid-Transverse erable freedom of movement of the cervical spine is permitted in all planes (sagittal, coronal, horizontal). The thoracic facets lie more vertically in the coronal plane and are virtually non-weightbearing. The range of motion here is significantly limited in all planes, less so in rotation. The plane of the lumbar facets is largely sagittal, resisting rotation of the lumbar spine, transitioning to a more coronal orientation at L5-S1. The L4-L5 articular facet joints permit the greatest degree of lumbar motion in all planes. Superior 13



The sacrum consists of five fused vertebrae; the intervertebral discs are largely replaced by bone. The sacral (vertebral) canal contains the terminal sac of the dura mater (dural sac, thecal sac) to S2 and the sacral nerve roots, which transit the sacral foramina. The sacrum joins with the ilium of the hip bone at the auricular surface, forming the sacroiliac joint.

The sacrum and the ilia of the hip bones form an arch for the transmission and distribution of weightbearing forces to the heads of the femora. It is a strong arch, and the sacrum is its keystone. The coccyx consists of 2–4 tiny individual or partly fused, rudimentary vertebrae. The first coccygeal vertebra is the most completely developed.