

I. Unit 14: The Digestive System and Body Metabolism

A. The Digestive System Functions

- 1. Ingestion - taking in food
- 2. Digestion - breaking food down both physically and chemically
 - a) mechanical
 - b) chemical
- 3. Absorption - movement of nutrients into the bloodstream
- 4. Propulsion
 - a) deglutition
 - b) peristalsis
- 5. Defecation - rids the body of indigestible waste

B. Organs of the Digestive System

- 1. Two main groups
 - a) Alimentary canal (gastrointestinal or GI tract) - continuous coiled
 - b) Accessory digestive organs
- 2. Organs of the Alimentary Canal
 - a) Mouth
 - (1) Lips (labia) - protect the anterior opening
 - (2) Cheeks - form the lateral walls
 - (3) Hard palate - forms the anterior roof
 - (4) Soft palate - forms the posterior roof
 - (5) Uvula - fleshy projection of the soft palate
 - (6) Vestibule - space between lips externally and teeth and gums internally
 - (7) Oral cavity proper - area contained by the teeth
 - (8) Tongue - attached at hyoid bone and styloid processes of the skull, and by the lingual frenulum to the floor of the mouth
 - (9) Tonsils
 - (a) Palatine
 - (b) Lingual
 - (10) Mouth Physiology

- (a) Mastication (chewing) of food
 - (b) Mixing masticated food with saliva
 - (c) Initiation of swallowing by the tongue
 - (d) Allows for the sense of taste
- b) Pharynx
- (1) Nasopharynx - not part of the digestive system
 - (2) Oropharynx - posterior to oral cavity
 - (3) Laryngopharynx - below the oropharynx and connected to
 - (4) Pharynx Physiology
 - (a) Serves as a passageway for air and food
 - (b) Food is propelled to the esophagus by two muscle layers
 - (i) Longitudinal inner layer
 - (ii) Circular outer layer
 - (c) Food movement is by alternating contractions of the muscle layers (peristalsis)
- c) Esophagus
- (1) Anatomy
 - (a) About 10 inches long
 - (b) Runs from pharynx to stomach through the diaphragm
 - (2) Physiology
 - (a) Conducts food by peristalsis (slow rhythmic squeezing)
 - (b) Passageway for food only (respiratory system branches off after the pharynx)
- d) Stomach
- (1) Stomach Anatomy
 - (a) Located on the left side of the abdominal cavity
 - (b) Food enters at the cardioesophageal sphincter
 - (c) Food empties into the small intestine at the pyloric sphincter (valve)
 - (d) Regions of the stomach
 - (i) Cardiac region - near the heart

- (ii) Fundus - expanded portion lateral to the cardiac region
- (iii) Body - midportion
- (iv) Pylorus - funnel-shaped terminal end
- (e) Rugae - internal folds of the mucosa
- (f) External regions
 - (i) Lesser curvature - concave medial surface
 - (ii) Greater curvature - convex lateral surface
- (g) Layers of peritoneum attached to the stomach
 - (i) Lesser omentum - attaches the liver to the lesser curvature
 - (ii) Greater omentum - attaches the greater curvature to the posterior body wall
 - (a) Contains fat to insulate, cushion, and protect
 - (b) Has lymph nodules containing macrophages
- (2) Stomach Physiology
 - (a) Temporary storage tank for food
 - (b) Site of food breakdown
 - (c) Chemical breakdown of protein begins
 - (d) Delivers chyme (processed food) to the small intestine
- (3) Structure of the Stomach Mucosa
 - (a) Mucosa is simple columnar epithelium
 - (b) Mucous neck cells - produce a sticky alkaline mucus
 - (c) Gastric glands - situated in gastric pits and secrete gastric juice
 - (d) Chief cells - produce protein-digesting enzymes (pepsinogens)
 - (e) Parietal cells - produce hydrochloric acid
 - (f) Enteroendocrine cells - produce gastrin
- e) Small intestine
 - (1) The body's major digestive organ
 - (2) Site of nutrient absorption into the blood
 - (3) Muscular tube extending from the pyloric sphincter to the
 - (4) Suspended from the posterior abdominal wall by the mesentery

- (5) Subdivisions of the Small Intestine
 - (a) Duodenum
 - (i) Attached to the stomach
 - (ii) Curves around the head of the pancreas
 - (b) Jejunum
 - (i) Attaches anteriorly to the duodenum
 - (c) Ileum
 - (i) Extends from jejunum to large intestine
- (6) Chemical Digestion in the Small Intestine
 - (a) Chemical digestion begins in the small intestine
 - (i) Enzymes are produced by
 - (a) Intestinal cells
 - (b) Pancreas
 - (i) Pancreatic ducts carry enzymes to the small intestine
 - (b) Bile, formed by the liver, enters via the bile duct
 - (7) Small Intestine Anatomy
 - (a) Three structural modifications that increase surface area
 - (i) Microvilli - tiny projections of the plasma membrane (create a brush border appearance)
 - (ii) Villi - fingerlike structures formed by the mucosa
 - (iii) Circular folds (plicae circulares) - deep folds of mucosa and submucosa
- f) Large intestine
 - (1) Larger in diameter, but shorter in length, than the small intestine
 - (2) Frames the internal abdomen
 - (3) Large Intestine Anatomy
 - (a) Cecum - saclike first part of the large intestine
 - (b) Appendix
 - (i) Accumulation of lymphatic tissue that sometimes becomes inflamed (appendicitis)
 - (ii) Hangs from the cecum

- (ii) Hangs from the cecum
- (c) Colon
 - (i) Ascending - travels up right side of abdomen
 - (ii) Transverse - travels across the abdominal cavity
 - (iii) Descending - travels down the left side
 - (iv) Sigmoid - enters the pelvis
 - (a) Rectum and anal canal - also in pelvis
- (4) No villi present
- (5) Goblet cells produce alkaline mucus which lubricates the passage
- (6) Muscularis externa layer is reduced to three bands of muscle called teniae coli
- (7) These bands cause the wall to pucker into haustra (pocketlike sacs)
- g) Anus
 - (1) Anus - opening of the large intestine
 - (a) External anal sphincter - formed by skeletal muscle and under voluntary control
 - (b) Internal involuntary sphincter - formed by smooth muscle
 - (c) These sphincters are normally closed except during defecation
- 3. Layers of Alimentary Canal Organs
 - a) Four layers
 - (1) Mucosa
 - (a) Innermost, moist membrane consisting of
 - (i) Surface epithelium
 - (ii) Small amount of connective tissue (lamina propria)
 - (iii) Small smooth muscle layer
 - (2) Submucosa
 - (a) Just beneath the mucosa
 - (b) Soft connective tissue with blood vessels, nerve endings, and lymphatics
 - (3) Muscularis externa - smooth muscle

- (a) Inner circular layer
- (b) Outer longitudinal layer
- (4) Serosa - outermost layer of the wall contains fluid-producing cells
 - (a) Visceral peritoneum - outermost layer that is continuous with the innermost layer
 - (b) Parietal peritoneum - innermost layer that lines the abdominopelvic cavity
- 4. Alimentary Canal Nerve Plexuses
 - a) Two important nerve plexuses serve the alimentary canal
 - b) Both are part of the autonomic nervous system
 - (1) Submucosal nerve plexus
 - (2) Myenteric nerve plexus
 - c) Function is to regulate mobility and secretory activity of the GI tract organs
- 5. Accessory Digestive Organs
 - a) Teeth
 - (1) Function is to masticate (chew) food
 - (2) Humans have two sets of teeth
 - (a) Deciduous (baby or "milk") teeth
 - (b) 20 teeth are fully formed by age two
 - (3) Permanent teeth
 - (a) Replace deciduous teeth between the ages of 6 and 12
 - (b) A full set is 32 teeth, but some people do not have wisdom teeth (third molars)
 - (c) If they do emerge, the wisdom teeth appear between ages of 17 and 25
 - (4) Classification of Teeth
 - (a) Incisors - cutting
 - (b) Canines - tearing or piercing
 - (c) Premolars - grinding
 - (d) Molars - grinding
 - (5) Regions of a Tooth

- (a) Crown - exposed part
 - (i) Enamel - hardest substance in the body
 - (ii) Dentin - found deep to the enamel and forms the bulk of
 - (iii) Pulp cavity - contains connective tissue, blood vessels, and nerve fibers
 - (iv) Root canal - where the pulp cavity extends into the root
- (b) Neck
 - (i) Region in contact with the gum
 - (ii) Connects crown to root
- (c) Root
 - (i) Cementum - covers outer surface and attaches the tooth to the periodontal membrane
- b) Salivary glands
 - (1) Three pairs of salivary glands empty secretions into the mouth
 - (a) Parotid glands
 - (b) Submandibular glands
 - (c) Sublingual glands
 - (2) Saliva
 - (a) Mixture of mucus and serous fluids
 - (b) Helps to form a food bolus
 - (c) Contains salivary amylase to begin starch digestion
 - (d) Dissolves chemicals so they can be tasted
- c) Pancreas
 - (1) Found posterior to the parietal peritoneum
 - (2) Extends across the abdomen from spleen to duodenum
 - (3) Produces a wide spectrum of digestive enzymes that break down all categories of food
 - (4) Enzymes are secreted into the duodenum
 - (5) Alkaline fluid introduced with enzymes neutralizes acidic chyme coming from stomach
 - (6) Hormones produced by the pancreas

- (a) Insulin
 - (b) Glucagon
 - d) Liver
 - (1) Largest gland in the body
 - (2) Located on the right side of the body under the diaphragm
 - (3) Consists of four lobes suspended from the diaphragm and abdominal wall by the falciform ligament
 - (4) Connected to the gallbladder via the common hepatic duct
 - (5) Bile
 - (a) Produced by cells in the liver
 - (b) Composition is
 - (i) Bile salts
 - (ii) Bile pigments (mostly bilirubin from the breakdown of
 - (iii) Cholesterol
 - (iv) Phospholipids
 - (v) Electrolytes
 - (c) Function - emulsify fats by physically breaking large fat globules into smaller ones
 - e) Gallbladder
 - (1) Sac found in hollow fossa of liver
 - (2) When no digestion is occurring, bile backs up the cystic duct for storage in the gallbladder
 - (3) When digestion of fatty food is occurring, bile is introduced into the duodenum from the gallbladder
 - (4) Gallstones are crystallized cholesterol which can cause blockages
6. Functions of the Digestive System
 - a) Ingestion - getting food into the mouth
 - b) Propulsion - moving foods from one region of the digestive system
 - (1) Peristalsis - alternating waves of contraction and relaxation that squeezes food along the GI tract

- (2) Segmentation - moving materials back and forth to aid with mixing in the small intestine
- c) Food breakdown as mechanical digestion
 - (1) Examples:
 - (a) Mixing food in the mouth by the tongue
 - (b) Churning food in the stomach
 - (c) Segmentation in the small intestine
 - (2) Mechanical digestion prepares food for further degradation by enzymes
- d) Food breakdown as chemical digestion
 - (1) Enzymes break down food molecules into their building blocks
 - (2) Each major food group uses different enzymes
 - (a) Carbohydrates are broken to simple sugars
 - (b) Proteins are broken to amino acids
 - (c) Fats are broken to fatty acids and alcohols
- e) Absorption
 - (1) End products of digestion are absorbed in the blood or lymph
 - (2) Food must enter mucosal cells and then into blood or lymph capillaries
- f) Defecation
 - (1) Elimination of indigestible substances from the GI tract in the form
- 7. Control of Digestive Activity
 - a) Mostly controlled by reflexes via the parasympathetic division
 - b) Chemical and mechanical receptors are located in organ walls that trigger reflexes
 - c) Stimuli include
 - (1) Stretch of the organ
 - (2) pH of the contents
 - (3) Presence of breakdown products
 - d) Reflexes include
 - (1) Activation or inhibition of glandular secretions
 - (2) Smooth muscle activity

- 8. Digestive Activities of the Mouth
 - a) Mechanical breakdown
 - (1) Food is physically broken down by chewing
 - b) Chemical digestion
 - (1) Food is mixed with saliva
 - (2) Starch is broken down into maltose by salivary amylase
- 9. Activities of the Pharynx and Esophagus
 - a) These organs have no digestive function
 - b) Serve as passageways to the stomach
- 10. Deglutition (Swallowing)
 - a) Buccal phase
 - (1) Voluntary
 - (2) Occurs in the mouth
 - (3) Food is formed into a bolus
 - (4) The bolus is forced into the pharynx by the tongue
 - b) Pharyngeal-esophageal phase
 - (1) Involuntary transport of the bolus
 - (2) All passageways except to the stomach are blocked
 - (a) Tongue blocks off the mouth
 - (b) Soft palate (uvula) blocks the nasopharynx
 - (c) Epiglottis blocks the larynx
 - (3) Peristalsis moves the bolus toward the stomach
 - (4) The cardioesophageal sphincter is opened when food presses against it
- 11. Food Breakdown in the Stomach
 - a) Gastric juice is regulated by neural and hormonal factors
 - b) Presence of food or rising pH causes the release of the hormone gastrin
 - c) Gastrin causes stomach glands to produce
 - (1) Protein-digesting enzymes
 - (2) Mucus
 - (3) Hydrochloric acid

- d) Hydrochloric acid makes the stomach contents very acidic
 - (1) Acidic pH
 - (a) Activates pepsinogen to pepsin for protein digestion
 - (b) Provides a hostile environment for microorganisms
- 12. Digestion and Absorption in the Stomach
 - a) Protein digestion enzymes
 - (1) Pepsin - an active protein-digesting enzyme
 - (2) Rennin - works on digesting milk protein in infants, not adults
 - b) Alcohol and aspirin are the only items absorbed in the stomach
- 13. Propulsion in the Stomach
 - a) Food must first be well mixed
 - b) Rippling peristalsis occurs in the lower stomach
 - c) The pylorus meters out chyme into the small intestine (30 mL at a time)
 - d) The stomach empties in 4–6 hours
- 14. Digestion in the Small Intestine
 - a) Enzymes from the brush border function to
 - (1) Break double sugars into simple sugars
 - (2) Complete some protein digestion
 - b) Pancreatic enzymes play the major digestive function
 - (1) Help complete digestion of starch (pancreatic amylase)
 - (2) Carry out about half of all protein digestion
 - (3) Digest fats using lipases from the pancreas
 - (4) Digest nucleic acids using nucleases
 - c) Alkaline content neutralizes acidic chyme
- 15. Regulation of Pancreatic Juice Secretion
 - a) Release of pancreatic juice into the duodenum is stimulated by
 - (1) Vagus nerve
 - (2) Local hormones
 - (a) Hormones travel the blood to stimulate the pancreas to release enzyme and bicarbonate-rich product

- (b) Secretin
 - (i) Secretin causes the liver to increase bile output
- (c) Cholecystokinin (CCK)
 - (i) CCK causes the gallbladder to release stored bile
 - (a) Bile is necessary for fat absorption and absorption of fat-soluble vitamins (K, D, A)
- 16. Absorption in the Small Intestine
 - a) Water is absorbed along the length of the small intestine
 - b) End products of digestion
 - (1) Most substances are absorbed by active transport through cell membranes
 - (2) Lipids are absorbed by diffusion
 - c) Substances are transported to the liver by the hepatic portal vein or lymph
- 17. Propulsion in the Small Intestine
 - a) Peristalsis is the major means of moving food
 - b) Segmental movements
 - (1) Mix chyme with digestive juices
 - (2) Aid in propelling food
- 18. Food Breakdown and Absorption in the Large Intestine
 - a) No digestive enzymes are produced
 - b) Resident bacteria digest remaining nutrients
 - (1) Produce some vitamin K and B
 - (2) Release gases
 - c) Water and vitamins K and B are absorbed
 - d) Remaining materials are eliminated via feces
 - e) Feces contains
 - (1) Undigested food residues
 - (2) Mucus
 - (3) Bacteria
 - (4) Water

- 19. Propulsion in the Large Intestine
 - a) Sluggish peristalsis
 - b) Mass movements
 - (1) Slow, powerful movements
 - (2) Occur three to four times per day
 - c) Presence of feces in the rectum causes a defecation reflex
 - (1) Internal anal sphincter is relaxed
 - (2) Defecation occurs with relaxation of the voluntary (external)
- C. Nutrition
 - 1. Nutrient - substance used by the body for growth, maintenance, and repair
 - 2. Major nutrients
 - a) Carbohydrates
 - b) Lipids
 - c) Proteins
 - d) Water
 - 3. Minor nutrients
 - a) Minerals
 - b) Vitamins
 - 4. Five Basic Food Groups and Some of Their Major Nutrients
 - a) Dietary Sources of Major Nutrients
 - (1) Carbohydrates
 - (a) Most are derived from plants
 - (b) Exceptions: lactose from milk and small amounts of glycogens from meats
 - (2) Lipids
 - (a) Saturated fats from animal products
 - (b) Unsaturated fats from nuts, seeds, and vegetable oils
 - (c) Cholesterol from egg yolk, meats, and milk products
 - (3) Proteins
 - (a) Complete proteins - contain all essential amino acids

- (i) Most are from animal products
- (b) Legumes and beans also have proteins, but are incomplete
- (4) Vitamins
 - (a) Most vitamins are used as coenzymes
 - (b) Found in all major food groups
- (5) Minerals
 - (a) Play many roles in the body
 - (b) Most mineral-rich foods are vegetables, legumes, milk, and some meats
- D. Metabolism
 - 1. Chemical reactions necessary to maintain life
 - a) Catabolism - substances are broken down to simpler substances; energy is released
 - b) Anabolism - larger molecules are built from smaller ones
 - 2. Carbohydrate Metabolism
 - a) Carbohydrates are the body's preferred source to produce cellular energy (ATP)
 - b) Glucose (blood sugar) is the major breakdown product and fuel to
 - 3. Cellular Respiration
 - a) Oxygen-using events take place within the cell to create ATP from ADP
 - b) Carbon leaves cells as carbon dioxide (CO₂)
 - c) Hydrogen atoms are combined with oxygen to form water
 - d) Energy produced by these reactions adds a phosphorus to ADP to produce ATP
 - e) ATP can be broken down to release energy for cellular use
 - 4. Metabolic Pathways Involved in Cellular Respiration
 - a) Glycolysis - energizes a glucose molecule so it can be split into two pyruvic acid molecules and yield ATP
 - b) Krebs cycle
 - (1) Produces virtually all the carbon dioxide and water resulting from cell respiration

- (2) Yields a small amount of ATP
- c) Electron transport chain
 - (1) Hydrogen atoms removed during glycolysis and the Krebs cycle are delivered to protein carriers
 - (2) Hydrogen is split into hydrogen ions and electrons in the mitochondria
 - (3) Electrons give off energy in a series of steps to enable the production of ATP
- 5. Metabolism of Carbohydrates
 - a) Hyperglycemia - excessively high levels of glucose in the blood
 - (1) Excess glucose is stored in body cells as glycogen
 - (2) If blood glucose levels are still too high, excesses are converted to fat
 - b) Hypoglycemia - low levels of glucose in the blood
 - (1) Liver breaks down stored glycogen and releases glucose into the blood
- 6. Fat Metabolism
 - a) Handled mostly by the liver
 - (1) Uses some fats to make ATP
 - (2) Synthesizes lipoproteins, thromboplastin, and cholesterol
 - (3) Releases breakdown products to the blood
 - b) Body cells remove fat and cholesterol to build membranes and steroid hormones
 - c) Fats must first be broken down to acetic acid
 - d) Within mitochondria, acetic acid is completely oxidized to produce water, carbon dioxide, and ATP
 - e) Acidosis (ketoacidosis) results from incomplete fat oxidation in which acetoacetic acid and acetone accumulate in the blood
 - (1) Breath has a fruity odor
 - (2) Common with
 - (a) "No carbohydrate" diets
 - (b) Uncontrolled diabetes mellitus
 - (c) Starvation
- 7. Protein Metabolism

- a) Proteins are conserved by body cells because they are used for most cellular structures
- b) Ingested proteins are broken down to amino acids
- c) Cells remove amino acids to build proteins
 - (1) Synthesized proteins are actively transported across cell membranes
- d) Amino acids are used to make ATP only when proteins are overabundant or there is a shortage of other sources
- e) Production of ATP from Protein
 - (1) Amine groups are removed from proteins as ammonia
 - (2) The rest of the protein molecule enters the Krebs cycle in mitochondria
 - (3) The liver converts harmful ammonia to urea which can be eliminated in urine
- 8. Role of the Liver in Metabolism
 - a) Several roles in digestion
 - (1) Manufactures bile
 - (2) Detoxifies drugs and alcohol
 - (3) Degrades hormones
 - (4) Produces cholesterol, blood proteins (albumin and clotting proteins)
 - (5) Plays a central role in metabolism
 - b) Can regenerate if part of it is damaged or removed
 - c) Metabolic Functions of the Liver
 - (1) Glycogenesis - "glycogen formation"
 - (a) Glucose molecules are converted to glycogen
 - (b) Glycogen molecules are stored in the liver
 - (2) Glycogenolysis - "glucose splitting"
 - (a) Glucose is released from the liver after conversion from glycogen
 - (3) Gluconeogenesis - "formation of new sugar"
 - (a) Glucose is produced from fats and proteins
 - (4) Fats and fatty acids are picked up by the liver
 - (a) Some are oxidized to provide energy for liver cells

- (b) The rest are broken down into simpler compounds and released into the blood
- (5) Cholesterol Metabolism
 - (a) Cholesterol is not used to make ATP
 - (b) Functions of cholesterol
 - (i) Serves as a structural basis of steroid hormones and vitamin D
 - (ii) Is a major building block of plasma membranes
 - (c) Most cholesterol is produced in the liver (85%) and is not from diet (15%)
- (6) Cholesterol Transport
 - (a) Cholesterol and fatty acids cannot freely circulate in the
 - (b) They are transported by lipoproteins (lipid-protein complexes)
 - (c) Low-density lipoproteins (LDLs) transport to body cells
 - (d) Rated “bad lipoproteins” since they can lead to atherosclerosis
 - (e) High-density lipoproteins (HDLs) transport from body cells to
- 9. Body Energy Balance
 - a) Energy intake = total energy output
 - (1) (heat + work + energy storage)
 - b) Energy intake is liberated during food oxidation
 - c) Energy output
 - (1) Heat is usually about 60%
 - (2) Storage energy is in the form of fat or glycogen
- 10. Regulation of Food Intake
 - a) Body weight is usually relatively stable
 - (1) Energy intake and output remain about equal
 - b) Mechanisms that may regulate food intake
 - (1) Levels of nutrients in the blood
 - (2) Hormones
 - (3) Body temperature
 - (4) Psychological factors

- 11. Metabolic Rate and Body Heat Production
 - a) Basic metabolic rate (BMR) - amount of heat produced by the body per unit of time at rest
 - b) Average BMR is about 60 to 72 kcal/hour
 - c) Kilocalorie (kcal) is the unit of measure for the energy value of foods and the amount of energy used by the body
- 12. Metabolic Rate and Body Heat Production
 - a) Factors that influence BMR
 - (1) Surface area - a small body usually has a higher BMR
 - (2) Gender - males tend to have higher BMRs
 - (3) Age - children and adolescents have higher BMRs
 - (4) The amount of thyroxine produced is the most important control factor
 - (a) More thyroxine means a higher metabolic rate
 - b) Factors Determining BMR
 - c) Total Metabolic Rate (TMR)
 - (1) Total amount of kilocalories the body must consume to fuel ongoing activities
 - (2) TMR increases with an increase in body activity
 - (3) TMR must equal calories consumed to maintain homeostasis and maintain a constant weight
- 13. Body Temperature Regulation
 - a) Most energy is released as foods are oxidized
 - b) Most energy escapes as heat
 - c) The body has a narrow range of homeostatic temperature
 - (1) Must remain between 35.6°C to 37.8°C (96°F to 100°F)
 - (2) The body's thermostat is in the hypothalamus
 - (a) Initiates heat-loss or heat-promoting mechanisms
 - d) Heat-promoting mechanisms
 - (1) Vasoconstriction of blood vessels
 - (a) Blood is rerouted to deeper, more vital body organs

- (2) Shivering - contraction of muscles produces heat
- e) Heat-loss mechanisms
 - (1) Heat loss from the skin via radiation and evaporation
 - (a) Skin blood vessels and capillaries are flushed with warm blood
 - (b) Evaporation of perspiration cools the skin
 - f) Fever - controlled hyperthermia
 - (1) Results from infection, cancer, allergic reactions, CNS injuries
 - (2) If the body thermostat is set too high, body proteins may be denatured and permanent brain damage may occur
- 14. Developmental Aspects of the Digestive System
 - a) The alimentary canal is a continuous tube by the fifth week of development
 - b) Digestive glands bud from the mucosa of the alimentary tube
 - c) The developing fetus receives all nutrients through the placenta
 - d) In newborns, feeding must be frequent, peristalsis is inefficient, and vomiting is common
- E. Developmental Aspects of the Digestive System
 - 1. Newborn reflexes
 - a) Rooting reflex helps the infant find the nipple
 - b) Sucking reflex helps the infant hold on to the nipple and swallow
 - 2. Teething begins around age six months
 - 3. Problems of the digestive system
 - a) Gastroenteritis - inflammation of the gastrointestinal tract
 - b) Appendicitis - inflammation of the appendix
 - 4. Metabolism decreases with old age
 - 5. Middle-age digestive problems
 - a) Ulcers
 - b) Gallbladder problems
 - 6. Activity of the digestive tract in old age
 - a) Fewer digestive juices
 - b) Peristalsis slows

- c) Diverticulosis and cancer are more common