Vol. 124, n. 3: 329-332, 2019

Research Article - History of Anatomy and Embryology

# Erasistratus of Chios: a pioneer of human anatomy and physiology

Theodoros Mariolis-Sapsakos<sup>1</sup>, Maria Zarokosta<sup>1,\*</sup>, Menelaos Zoulamoglou<sup>1</sup>, Theodoros Piperos<sup>1</sup>, Euthumios Nikou<sup>1</sup>, Anastasios Katsourakis<sup>2</sup>, George Noussios<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Anatomy and Histology Laboratory, Nursing School, University of Athens, Greece

<sup>2</sup> Department of Anatomy, School of Physical Education and Sport Sciences, Serres, Aristotles University of Thessaloniki, Greece

## Abstract

Erasistratus of Chios (310-250 BC) was one of the great Greek physicians of antiquity. Historical investigation reveals that he was an innovative anatomist, neuroanatomist and a pioneer of human physiology. His accurate discoveries formed the basis of positive sciences and ameliorated medicine.

# Keywords

Erasistratus, Herophilus, ancient Greek physicians, history of medicine.

# Introduction

Erasistratus of Chios (310-250 BC) was one of the great Greek scientists whose prominent discoveries concerning the human body composed the basis of positive sciences and medicine (Wiltse and Pait, 1998; Acar et al., 2005). Indeed, Erasistratus in addition to Herophilus of Chalcedon (335-280 BC) were pioneers of scientific anatomy, since deploying for the first time the method of human body dissection (Dobson, 1927; Bay and Bay, 2010). Hence, it is quite reasonable that Erasistratus is considered as a great anatomist and a master of experimental physiology (Acar et al., 2005). Unfortunately though, the studies of Erasistratus have been lost entirely and only a few details of his marvelous work may be recovered from the writings of Galen (Rocca, 1997, 2003). The present manuscript aims to underline the impact of ancient Greek heritage in current medicine and emphasizes to the remarkable discoveries of Erasistratus referring to human anatomy and physiology.

# Background

Erasistratus was a Greek physician, born in the island of Chios (310-250 BC) that has been taught by Theophrastus (Mavrodi and Paraskevas, 2014). As well as Herophilus, who is considered as the "father" of scientific anatomy (Wiltse and Pait, 1998; Acar et al., 2005; Bay and Bay, 2010) Erasistratus belonged in the scientific Alexan-

\* Corresponding author. E-mail: mzarokosta@gmail.com / mzarokos@nurs.uoa.gr

drian mileu and worked at the Herophilean Medical School in Egypt during the Hellenistic period (Durant, 1934; Wiltse and Pait, 1998; Crivellato and Ribatti, 2007). Through this period, Ptolemies achieved to transform Alexandria to the intellectual and scientific center of the Western World (Persaud, 1984). In fact, it was Ptolemy I who permitted for the first time, in approximately 300 BC, the human body cadaveric dissection in medicine (Wiltse and Pait, 1998).

Both Herophilus and his younger contemporary Erasistratus dissected an abundance of human cadavers and subsequently provided astonishing descriptions of the brain, the nerves and the cardiovascular system in addition to descriptions of physiological mechanisms (Castiglioni, 1958; Wiltse and Pait, 1998; Crivellato and Ribatti, 2007). That was a great moment in medicine that actually formed the basis of scientific and clinical anatomy plus physiology (Wiltse and Pait, 1998) and almost eliminated the improbabilities into which Aristotle has fallen due to the religious "fear of the corpse" (Durant, 1934; Gordon, 1949).

This sole opportunity to dissect, although short-lived, accounts for marvelous advances in the knowledge of human anatomy and physiology (Potter, 1976; Wiltse and Pait, 1998).

## Erasistratus' eminent contributions

#### a. Nervous System

Erasistratus in addition to Herophilus is also credited with one of the first detailful descriptions of the cerebrum and cerebellum (Wiltse and Pait, 1998). Erasistratus was the first to describe the nerves as anatomical structures originating from the substance of the human brain (Crivellato and Ribatti, 2007). He and Herophilus suggested that there are two kind of nerves: a) the sensory nerves (ἀισθητικά νεύǫα) and the b) motor nerves (κινητικά νεύǫα) and that the nerves "that make voluntary motion" originate from the cerebrum and the spinal marrow (Garofalo, 1988; Crivellato and Ribatti, 2007).

Furthermore, he emphasized to dura mater ( $\pi \alpha \chi \epsilon i \alpha \mu \eta \nu \iota \nu \xi$ ) (Galen, edited 1962), which he long considered as the command seat of cognitive, motor and sensory functions of the human (Crivellato and Ribatti, 2007; Bhogal et al.2015). As so, he used to claim that the cause of delirium was a disorder of the meninx activity and that lethargy arose from a malfunction of the psychic faculty in the meninx as well (Garofalo, 1997).

#### b. Cardiovascular System

Erasistratus was the first physician who recognized the heart's activity as a "pump" contracting perpetually, due to its "intrinsic force" (Bestetti et al., 2014). The heart's construction and activity may be compared with the ingenious mechanism known as the Ctesibius pump. That pump was invented by Ctesibius of Alexandria in approximately 250 BC. The pump consists of two identical cylinders, just like the two heart chambers, each with a piston, that converge in a chamber with valves that open and close alternately in order the water to pass through without interruption, just like the blood in the heart (Shapiro, 1964).

Another great innovation of Erasistratus, was the meticulous description of all four heart valves. In particular, he observed the presence of two and three cusps respectively in the bicuspid and tricuspid valve, in addition to the sigmoid shape of the valves of the pulmonary artery and the aorta (Mavrodi and Paraskevas, 2014).

Additionally, Erasistratus approached the anatomical description of blood movement, considering the heart as the common origin of both arteries and veins (French, 1978; Mavrodi and Paraskevas, 2014). Although Erasistratus recognized that arteries connected with the left ventricle and veins with the right one, he wrongly believed that arteries transported the pneuma, since they remained empty at dissection (Cockle, 1860) and consequently he could not observe the functional continuity between veins and arteries (Bestetti et al., 2014).

Nevertheless, regarding the vascular system he discovered the progressive subdivision of vessels till the point that, due to their minor diameter, it was no longer efficient to make the distinction between arteries and veins. (Androutsos et al. 2013) Erasistratus observed that such small vessels were always filled with blood and named them "synanastomoses". After a long period, they were denominated as "capillaries" (Dobson, 1928).

## c. Other contributions

Erasistratus is the first physician that may be credited with abandoning the ancient humoral theory of Hippocratis. Unfortunately though, Galen returned to that ancient theory four centuries later (Wiltse and Pait, 1998).

Moreover, Erasistratus and Herophilus opposed to the theory of Aristotle who suggested that the human heart is the center of both intellect and emotions. In fact, Herophilus claimed that Aristotle's theory is an error (Peck, 1965) and in addition to Erasistratus attemped to prove that the brain is the center of consciousness (Wiltse and Pait, 1998). However, due to the great influence of Aristotle it has been extremely difficult to break utterly with the idea that the human heart is the command seat of emotions.

In collaboration with Herophilus, Erasistratus also improved on the understanding of respiration. In particular, he was the first who recognized an essential relation between the respiratory and vascular system (Von Staden, 1989. 1992). Finally, both of them improved our knowledge concerning the heart beat (Wiltse and Pait, 1998).

# Conclusion

Conclusively, a meticulous historical investigation reveals that Erasistratus was an eminent, skilled anatomist, neuroanatomist (Wiltse and Pait, 1998; Crivellato and Ribatti, 2007) and an innovator in human physiology (Acar et al. 2005). Without his astonishing, accurate observations medical knowledge would not have progressed that rapidly.

# References

- Acar F., Naderi S., Guvencer M., Ture U., Arda M.N. (2005) Herophilus of Chalcedon: a pioneer in neuroscience. Neurosurgery 56: 861-867.
- Androutsos G., Karamanou M., Stefanadis C. (2013) The contribution of Alexandrian physicians to cardiology. Hellenic J. Cardiol. 54: 15-17.
- Bay Noel S.-Y., Bay B.-H. (2010) Greek anatomist Herophilus: the father of anatomy. Anat. Cell Biol. 43: 280-283.
- Bestetti R.B., Restini C.B.A., Couto L.B. (2014) Development of anatamophysiologic knowledge regarding the cardiovascular system: From Egyptians to Harvey. Arq. Bras. Cardiol. 103: 538-545.
- Bhogal P., Makalanda H.L., Brouwer P.A., Gontu V., Rodesch G., Mercier P., Söderman M. (2015) Normal pio-dural arterial connections. Interv. Neuroradiol. 21: 750-758.
- Castiglioni A. (1958) A History of Medicine. Krumbhaar E.B., Ed. 2<sup>nd</sup> edn. New York, Alfred A. Knopf.
- Cockle, J. (1860) Lectures on the historic literature of the pathology of the heart and great vessels. Br. Med. J. 1: 81-84.
- Crivellato E., Ribatti D. (2007) Soul, mind, brain: Greek philosophy and the birth of neuroscience. Brain Res. Bull. 71: 327-336.
- Dobson J.F. (1927) Erasistratus. Proc. R. Soc. Med. 20: 825-832.
- Durant W. (1939) The Life of Greece. Vol 2. The Story of Civilization. New York, Simon and Schuster. Pp. 337-671.
- French R.K. (1978) The thorax in history 2. Hellenistic experiment and human dissection. Thorax 33: 153-166.
- Galen in: Duckworth W.L.H. (Transl.) (1962) Anatomical Procedures the Later Books. London, The Syndics of the Cambridge University Press.
- Garofalo I. (1988) Erasistrati Fragmenta. Collegit et Digessit. Pisa: Giardini.
- Garofalo I. (1997) Anonimi Medici. De morbis Acutis et Chronicis. Leiden, E.J. Brill.
- Gordon G.L. (1949) Medicine throughout antiquity. Philadelphia, F.A. Davis Publishers. Pp. 589-608.
- Mavrodi A., Paraskevas G. (2014) Morphology of the heart associated with its function as conceived by ancient Greeks. Int. J. Cardiol. 172: 23-28.
- Peck A.L. (1965) Historia Animalium by Aristotle. Cambridge, Harvard University Press.
- Persaud T. (1984) Early History of Human Anatomy. Springfield. C.C. Thomas. Pp. 44-49.
- Potter P. (1976) Herophilus of Chalcedon: An assessment of his place in the history of anatomy. Bull. Hist. Med. 50: 45-60.
- Rocca J. (1997) Galen and the ventricular system. J. Hist. Neurosci. 6: 227-239.
- Rocca J. (2003) Galen on the brain. Anatomical knowledge and physiological speculation in the 2<sup>nd</sup> century AD. Stud. Anc. Med. 26: 1-313.
- Shapiro S. (1964) The origin of the suction pump. Technology and Culture 5: 566-574.
- Von Staden H. (1989) Herophilus: the Art of Medicine in Alexandria. 1<sup>st</sup> ed. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press. Pp. 1-666.
- Von Staden H. (1992) The discovery of the body. Human dissection and its cultural contexts in Ancient Greece. Yale J. Biol. Med. 65: 223-241.
- Wiltse L., Pait T.G. (1998) Herophilus of Alexandria (325-255 BC): The father of anatomy. Spine 23: 1904-1914.