



THE SPECIAL SENSES


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The Senses

- ▶ taste, smell, sight and hearing
 - four traditional senses
- ▶ touch (*studied in Chapter 13*)
 - fifth traditional sense
 - reflects the activity of the general senses
- ▶ special senses
 - the four traditional senses
 - smell, taste, sight and hearing
 - referred to as the special senses
 - fifth special sense
 - equilibrium


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Special Sensory Receptors

- ▶ distinct receptor cells
- ▶ confined to the head region
- ▶ highly localized
 - housed within complex sensory organs
 - eyes and ears
 - housed within distinct epithelial structures
 - taste buds and olfactory epithelium


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The Chemical Senses

- ▶ taste (gustation)
- ▶ smell (olfaction)
- ▶ receptors are classified as chemoreceptors
 - respond to chemicals in an aqueous solution


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The Chemical Senses

- ▶ smell receptors
 - excited by airborne chemicals
 - dissolve in fluids coating nasal membranes
- ▶ taste receptors
 - excited by food chemicals
 - dissolved in saliva


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Chemical Receptors

- ▶ receptors for taste and smell complement each other
- ▶ respond to many of the same stimuli


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Sense of Taste

- ▶ Tasting:
 - ▶ the intimate testing or judging of our environment
 - ▶ one of the most pleasurable of the special senses

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Taste Buds

- ▶ receptor organs of taste
- ▶ located primarily in the oral cavity
- ▶ approximately, 10,000 of them
- ▶ location
 - few are scattered
 - soft palate
 - inner surface of the cheeks
 - pharynx
 - epiglottis of the larynx


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Taste Buds

- ▶ location
 - most are on the tongue
 - found in papillae
 - peglike projections of the tongue mucosa
 - give the tongue surface a slightly abrasive feel
 - contain taste buds
 - openings in the surface known as taste pores
 - allow chemicals to reach the taste buds


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Taste Bud Cells

- ▶ each taste bud consists of 40 -100 epithelial cells
- ▶ three major types
 - supporting cells
 - receptor cells
 - basal cells


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Supporting Cells

- ▶ form the bulk of the taste bud
- ▶ insulate the receptor cells
 - from each other
 - from the surrounding tongue epithelium
- ▶ have gustatory hairs
- ▶ keep the gustatory cells healthy

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Receptor Cells

- ▶ AKA gustatory cells or taste cells
- ▶ sensory dendrites coil around the cells
 - initial part of the gustatory pathway to the brain

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Receptor Cells

- ▶ have long microvilli
 - AKA gustatory hairs
 - modified dendrites of gustatory cells
 - project from the tips and extend through a taste pore to the surface of the epithelium
 - where they are bathed by saliva
 - sensitive portions (receptor membranes) of the gustatory cells

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Basal Cells

- ▶ act as stem cells
- ▶ divide and differentiate into supporting cells
 - give rise to new gustatory cells

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Taste Buds (fig 16.1)

The diagram illustrates the structure of the tongue and taste buds. Part (a) shows the tongue with various papillae: Epiglottis, Palatine tonsil, Lingual tonsil, Circumvallate papilla, Fungiform papillae, and Taste buds. It also labels taste qualities: Bitter, Sour, Salty, and Sweet. Part (b) shows a cross-section of a papilla with gustatory hairs (microvilli) emerging from a taste pore. Part (c) shows a detailed view of a taste bud, which is an invagination of the epithelium of the tongue. It contains gustatory (taste) cells, supporting cells, and basal cells. Sensory nerve fibers are shown entering the taste bud.


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Basic Taste Sensations

- ▶ four basic qualities
 - sweet
 - sour
 - salty
 - bitter


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Basic Taste Sensations

- ▶ sweet
 - elicited by organic substances
 - sugars
 - saccharides
 - alcohols
 - some amino acids
 - some lead salts
- ▶ SOUR
 - produced by acids
 - specifically their hydrogen ions in solution

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Basic Taste Sensations

- ▶ salty
 - produced by metal ions (inorganic salts)
- ▶ bitter
 - elicited by alkaloids
 - nicotine
 - caffeine
 - elicited by nonalkaloid substances
 - aspirin

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Taste Bud Sensitive Areas

- ▶ sensed best at different regions on the tongue
- ▶ sides of the tongue
 - most sensitive to sour substances
- ▶ back of the tongue (near its root)
 - most sensitive to bitter substances
- ▶ tip of the tongue
 - most sensitive to sweet and salty substances

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Taste Buds (fig 16.1)

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Taste Sensations

- ▶ most taste buds respond to two, three or all four taste qualities
- ▶ many substances produce a mixture of the basic taste sensations
- ▶ some substances change in flavor as they move through the mouth


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Physiology of Taste

- ▶ Series of events for a chemical to be tasted:
 - ▶ 1) the chemical must dissolve in saliva
 - ▶ 2) the chemical must diffuse into the taste pore
 - ▶ 3) the chemical must bind to and stimulate the gustatory hairs
 - ▶ 4) generation of APs in the gustatory cells
 - ▶ 5) impulse transfer to the sensory neuron
 - ▶ 6) impulse transmission of the taste sensation to cranial nerves in the brain


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Example of the Mechanism of Taste

- ▶ Eating Chocolate Ice-cream
 - ▶ within your mouth, the ice-cream melts releasing chemicals
 - ▶ chemicals enter taste pores and bind to and stimulate gustatory hairs
 - ▶ the generation of APs in the gustatory cells
 - by the chemical stimulation of the gustatory hairs
 - ▶ the impulse transferred to the sensory neurons
 - which transmits the taste sensation of chocolate ice-cream in the cranial nerves to the brain

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Sense of Smell

- ▶ Organ of smell
 - yellow-tinged patch of pseudostratified epithelium
 - AKA olfactory epithelium
 - location
 - roof of the nasal cavity
 - not ideal
 - air entering the nasal cavity must make a hairpin turn
 - to stimulate the olfactory receptors
 - before entering the respiratory passageway below

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Sense of Smell

- ▶ Organ of smell
 - nasal conchae
 - direct inhaled air upward
 - to bring the inhaled molecules closer to the olfactory epithelium
 - sniffing
 - also brings the air superiorly
 - across the olfactory epithelium
 - intensifies the smell

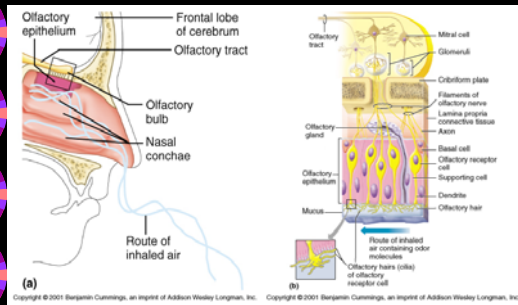
Olfactory Epithelium

- ▶ covers the superior nasal concha
 - on each side of the nasal septum
- ▶ contains millions of modified neurons
 - function as the sensory receptors
 - known as olfactory receptor cells
- ▶ surrounded and cushioned by supporting cells
 - make up the bulk of the epithelial membrane

Olfactory Cells

- ▶ dendrites of each olfactory cell
 - called olfactory cilia
 - extend into the nasal cavity
- ▶ olfactory axons
 - project upward through the foramina in the cribriform plate of the ethmoid bone of the skull
 - synapse on neurons within the olfactory nerve

Olfactory Epithelium (fig 16.2)



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Physiology of Smell

- ▶ Series of events
- ▶ 1) the chemical must be volatile
 - it must be in the gaseous state as it enters the nasal cavity
- ▶ 2) the chemical must be water soluble
 - so that it can dissolve in the fluid containing the olfactory epithelium
- ▶ 3) the dissolved chemicals stimulate the olfactory receptors by binding to protein receptors in olfactory cilium membranes
- ▶ 4) the generation of APs in the olfactory cells
- ▶ 5) an impulse travels through the olfactory cell axons to the olfactory nerve where the smell sensation is transmitted to the brain


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Example of the Mechanism of Smell

▶ Smelling coffee

- ▶ coffee is brewing
- ▶ chemicals from the coffee enter your nose as part of the inhaled air
- ▶ the nasal conchae move the incoming air superiorly toward the olfactory epithelium
- ▶ the coffee chemicals bind to the olfactory cilia resulting in their stimulation
- ▶ generation of APs in the olfactory cells
- ▶ an impulse travels through the olfactory cell axons to the olfactory nerve
 - where the smell sensation of coffee is transmitted to the brain


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Homeostatic Imbalances of the Chemical Senses

- ▶ most dysfunctions are olfactory disorders or anosmias
 - one-third of all disorders is due to zinc deficiency
 - zinc is a growth factor (GF) for the receptors of the chemical senses
 - trt
 - zinc supplement


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Accessory Structures of the Eye

- ▶ eyebrows
- ▶ eyelids
- ▶ conjunctiva*
- ▶ lacrimal apparatus*
- ▶ extrinsic eye muscle

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Conjunctiva

- ▶ transparent mucous membrane
- ▶ lines the eyelids
- ▶ functions
 - major
 - produce a lubricating mucus
 - prevents the eyes from drying out
 - other
 - protection
 - prevents foreign objects from penetrating beyond the confines of its sac

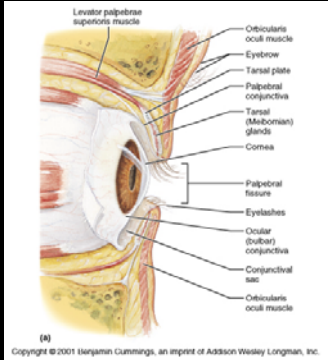
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Conjunctiva

- ▶ conjunctival sac
 - slit-like space
 - located between eyeball & eyes

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Anterior Portion of Eye (fig 16.5)




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Conjunctivitis

- ▶ inflammation of the conjunctiva
- ▶ results in reddened, irritated eyes
- ▶ pinkeye
 - conjunctival infection
 - caused by bacteria or viruses
 - highly contagious


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Lacrimal Apparatus

- 1) lacrimal gland
- 2) ducts
 - drain the excess lacrimal secretions into the nasal cavity


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Lacrimal Apparatus

- 1) the lacrimal gland
 - located superior and lateral to the eye
 - continuously releases a dilute saline solution into the superior part of conjunctival sac
 - through several excretory ducts
 - called lacrimal secretion (*tears*)

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Lacrimal Apparatus

- 2) the ducts that drain the excess lacrimal secretions into the nasal cavity
 - lacrimal canals
 - lacrimal sac
 - nasolacrimal duct

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Function of Tears

- ▶ cleanse and protect the eye surface
 - as it moistens and lubricates it
- ▶ increased tears spill over the eyelids
 - fill the nasal cavities
 - causes congestion and the sniffles
 - happens when the eyes are irritated and when we are emotionally upset


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Function of Tears

- ▶ enhanced tearing during eye irritation
 - to wash away or dilute the irritating substance
- ▶ enhanced tearing during emotional upset
 - is not clearly understood

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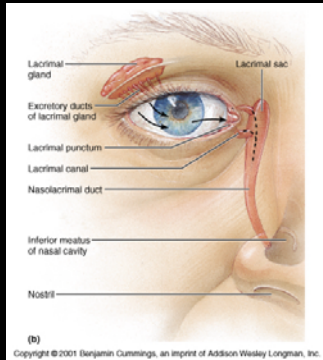


Movement of Tears

- ▶ *through the lacrimal apparatus*
- ▶ tears are released through excretory ducts
- ▶ blinking spreads the tears downward and across the eyeball to the medial commissure where they enter the paired lacrimal canals (canaliculi) via two tiny openings called lacrimal puncta
- ▶ from the canals, the tears drain into the lacrimal sac and then into the nasolacrimal duct which empties into the nasal cavity at the inferior nasal meatus

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Lacrimal Apparatus (fig 16.5)



Vision

- ▶ dominant sense
- ▶ 70% of all sensory receptors are in the eyes
- ▶ nearly half of the cerebral cortex is involved in the processing of visual information
- ▶ visual receptor cells (photoreceptors) sense and encode patterns of light that enter the eye
- ▶ brain uses these signals to give us images

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Eye

- ▶ complex structure
- ▶ spherical with a diameter of approximately 1 inch
- ▶ only the anterior 1/6th of the eye surface is visible
 - rest is enclosed and protected by a cushion of fat and the walls of the bony orbit
 - fat pad occupies most of the orbit

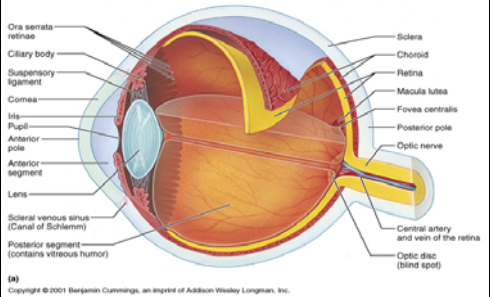
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Structure of the Eyeball

- ▶ slightly irregular hollow sphere
- ▶ shaped roughly like the globe of the earth
 - poles
 - most anterior point – anterior pole
 - most posterior point – posterior pole
- ▶ walls are composed of three coats (tunics)
 - fibrous (outer)
 - vascular (middle)
 - sensory (inner)
- ▶ the internal cavity is filled with fluids that help it maintain its shape
 - known as humors
- ▶ lens is the adjustable focusing apparatus
 - supported vertically within the internal cavity
 - dividing it into anterior and posterior segments

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Structure of the Eyeball (fig 16.7)




The diagram shows a cross-section of the human eye. Labels on the left side include: Ora serrata retinae, Ciliary body, Suspensory ligament, Cornea, Iris, Pupil, Anterior pole, Anterior segment, Lens, Scleral venous sinus (Canal of Schlemm), and Posterior segment (contains vitreous humor). Labels on the right side include: Sclera, Choroid, Retina, Macula lutea, Fovea centralis, Posterior pole, Optic nerve, Central artery and vein of the retina, and Optic disc (blind spot). A copyright notice at the bottom left reads: (A) Copyright © 2001 Benjamin Cummings, an imprint of Addison-Wesley Longman, Inc.

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Wall of Eyeball

- ▶ consists of tunics
 - outermost
 - fibrous tunic
 - sclera
 - cornea
 - middle
 - vascular tunic
 - choroid
 - ciliary body
 - iris
 - innermost
 - sensory tunic
 - retina


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Outermost Coat (Fibrous Tunic)

- consists of the two regions - sclera & cornea
- sclera
 - forms the posterior portion and the bulk of the coat
 - glistening white and opaque
 - seen anteriorly as the “white of the eye”


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Outermost Coat (Fibrous Tunic)

- sclera
 - tough and hard
 - protects and shapes the eyeball and provides a sturdy anchoring site for the extrinsic eye muscles
 - continuous with the dura mater posteriorly where it is pierced by the optic nerve


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Outermost Coat (Fibrous Tunic)

- cornea
 - transparent
 - bulges anteriorly from its junction with the sclera
 - crystal clear due to the arrangement of its collagen fibers
 - part of the light-bending apparatus of the eye


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Outermost Coat (Fibrous Tunic)

- cornea
 - allows light to enter the eye
 - covered with epithelial sheets that help protect the cornea from abrasion
 - capable of regeneration and repair
 - well-supplied with nerve endings (*mostly pain receptors*)


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Cornea

- only tissue in the body that can be transplanted from one person to another with little or no possibility of rejection
 - has no blood vessels
 - beyond the reach of the immune system


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Middle coat (tunic)

- pigmented vascular coat
- also called the uvea
- consists of three regions
 - choroid
 - ciliary body
 - iris


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Middle coat (tunic)

- choroid
 - highly-vascular dark brown membrane
 - blood vessels provide nutrients to the entire eye
 - prevents light scattering within the eye
 - anteriorly
 - it becomes the ciliary body
 - posteriorly
 - incomplete where the optic nerve leaves the eye


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Middle coat (tunic)

- ciliary body
 - consists primarily of interlacing smooth muscle bundles
 - ciliary muscles control the lens shape
 - contains folds (ciliary processes) posteriorly that contain capillaries


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Middle coat (tunic)

- ciliary body
 - secretes the fluid that fills the cavity of the anterior segment
 - suspensory ligament (zonule) extends from the ciliary processes to the lens
 - helps hold the lens in an upright position


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Middle coat (tunic)

- iris
 - most anterior portion of the uvea
 - visible, colored part of the eye
 - shaped like a flattened doughnut
 - lies between the cornea and the lens


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Middle coat (tunic)

- iris
 - continuous with the ciliary body posteriorly
 - round, opening (pupil) allows light to enter the eye
 - muscle fibers allow it to vary pupil size
 - dependent
 - distance and amount of light
 - our interests
 - emotional reactions
 - (boring or appealing)

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Middle coat (tunic)

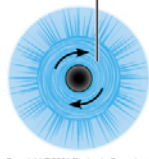
- iris
 - different colors
 - contains only one pigment (brown)
 - presence of a lot of pigment
 - eyes appear brown or black
 - presence of a small amount of pigment
 - restricted to the posterior surface
 - eyes appear blue, green or gray
 - scattering of light on the unpigmented parts
 - newborn babies eyes are slate gray
 - iris pigment is not yet developed

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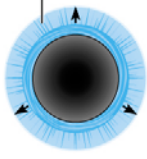
Iris

- In close vision and bright light - contraction of circular muscles (*pupil constriction*) - *parasympathetic effect*
- In distant vision and dim light - contraction of radial muscles (*pupil dilation*) - *sympathetic effect*

Parasympathetic stimulation causes circular muscles to contract



Sympathetic stimulation causes radial muscles to contract



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Inner Coat (Tunic)

- delicate, two-layered retina
 - outer, pigmented layer
 - inner, transparent neural layer

Inner Coat (Tunic)

- outer, pigmented layer
 - pigmented epithelial cells
 - absorb light
 - prevent it from scattering in the eye
 - act as phagocytes
 - store vitamin A
 - needed by the photoreceptor cells

Inner Coat (Tunic)

- ▶ inner, transparent neural layer
 - only this layer plays a direct role in vision
 - composed of three main types of neurons
 - either transduce light energy or process light stimuli
 - 1) photoreceptors (rods and cones)
 - 2) bipolar cells
 - 3) ganglion cells

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Photoreceptors

- ▶ modified neurons
- ▶ rods
 - more numerous
 - dim light and peripheral vision receptors
 - more sensitive to light
 - do not provide sharp images or color vision
 - in dim light colors are indistinct
- ▶ cones
 - operate in bright light
 - provide high acuity color vision

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Photoreceptors (fig. 16.9a)

The diagram illustrates the layers of the retina. From top to bottom, the layers are: the pigmented layer of the retina, the layer containing rods and cones, the layer of bipolar cells, and the layer of ganglion cells. A yellow arrow labeled 'Pathway of light' points from the pigmented layer through the rods and cones, then through the bipolar cells, and finally through the ganglion cells. Other labeled cells include horizontal cells and amacrine cells.

(a)

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Physiology of Vision

- light
 - packets of energy (photons)
 - travel in wavelike patterns at various speeds
 - vibration of pure energy


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Physiology of Vision

- when visible light passes through an object
 - each of its waves bends to a different degree
 - beam of light is dispersed
 - a band of colors
 - (visible spectrum)
 - progresses from red to violet
 - varying wavelengths

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Physiology of Vision

- objects have color
 - they absorb some wavelengths
 - they reflect some wavelengths
 - things that look white reflect all wavelengths
 - black objects absorb all wavelengths
 - a red apple reflects mostly red light
 - grass reflects more of the green

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Physiology of Vision

- ▶ three types of cones
 - red
 - blue
 - green
- ▶ each cone type responds maximally (more strongly) to one color of light
- ▶ most light stimulates more than one cone type
 - allows us to see a full range of colors

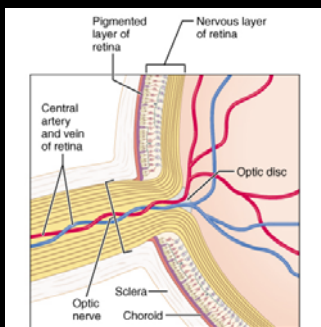
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Ganglion Cells

- ▶ ganglion cell axons form the optic nerve
 - exit via the optic disc
- ▶ optic disc ~ blind spot
 - weak spot in the posterior wall
 - not reinforced by the sclera
 - lacks photoreceptors
 - light focused on it cannot be seen
 - the brain utilizes a process called “filling in” so we do not realize gaps in our vision

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Retina Anatomy (fig 16.9b)



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Generation and Transmission of a Visual Message

- ▶ 1) light passes through the retina
 - passes two layers of neurons
 - ganglion and bipolar cells
- ▶ 2) light stimulates the photoreceptors (rods & cones)
 - located near the choroid
 - absorb light
- ▶ 3) light-sensitive pigments within the photoreceptors change shape

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Generation and Transmission of a Visual Message

- ▶ 4) shape change initiates a series of chemical reactions
 - result in the generation of an action potential
- ▶ 5) the impulse travels from the rods and cones to the bipolar neurons and then through the ganglion neurons
- ▶ 6) ganglion neurons conduct the impulse to the brain via the optic nerve (*make right angle turns*)

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Pathway of Light (fig 16.9)

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Light-Sensitive Pigment & Vitamin A

- ▶ photoreceptors contain light-sensitive pigment molecules
- ▶ vitamin A is a component of this pigment in both rods and cones
- ▶ vitamin A can be obtained from foods
 - carrots, spinach and eggs
- ▶ **the pigmented layer of the retina stores vitamin A*


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Color Blindness

- ▶ congenital lack of cone types
 - one or more
- ▶ sex-linked ds
- ▶ more common in males
 - 8-10 %
- ▶ most common type
 - red-green
 - deficit or absence of red or green cones
 - seen as same color
 - either red or green


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Internal Chambers and Fluids

- ▶ suspensory ligaments
 - divide eye into anterior and posterior segments (lens)


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Internal Chambers and Fluids

- posterior segment
 - vitreous humor (*clear gel*)
 - forms in embryo
 - lasts a lifetime
 - fine collagen fibrils in viscous ground substance
 - transmits light
 - supports posterior surface
 - holds the neural retina firmly against the pigmented layer
 - helps maintain IOP


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Internal Chambers and Fluids

- anterior segment
 - subdivided into anterior and posterior chambers (iris)
 - anterior chamber
 - between cornea and iris
 - posterior chamber
 - between the iris and lens

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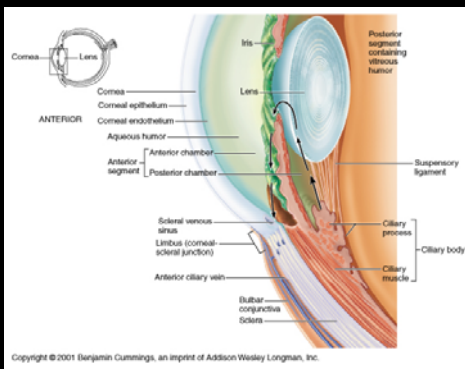


Internal Chambers and Fluids

- aqueous humor (*clear fluid*)
 - composition ~ blood plasma
 - forms and drains continually
 - supplies nutrients and O₂
 - lens, cornea, ~ retinal cells
 - removes metabolic wastes
 - helps maintain IOP
 - supports the eyeball

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Internal Chambers (fig 16.11)



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Retinal Detachment

- ▶ pigmented and nervous retinal layer separation (detachment)
 - results in vitreous humor between the layers
- ▶ nutrient deprivation to neural layer
- ▶ permanent blindness
- ▶ causes
 - torn retina
 - traumatic blow to head
 - jerk in opposite direction

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Retinal Detachment

- ▶ symptoms
 - spots
 - flashes
 - curtain drawn
- ▶ trt (early dx)
 - before permanent photoreceptor damage
 - reattachment
 - laser
 - cryosurgery

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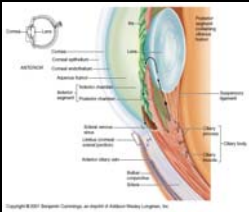
Glaucoma

- ▶ compression of retina and optic nerve
- ▶ aqueous humor blockage
- ▶ increased IOP
- ▶ can result in blindness
- ▶ signs
 - halos around lights
 - blurred vision
- ▶ trt
 - eye drops
 - decrease IOP
 - surgery

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Lens (fig 16.11)

- ▶ biconvex
- ▶ transparent
- ▶ flexible
- ▶ curved (*at both surfaces*)
- ▶ changes shape for precise focusing of light on the retina
- ▶ held in place
 - suspensory ligaments
- ▶ avascular (*like cornea*)



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Cataract

- ▶ cloudy lens
 - distorted view
- ▶ inadequate nutrient delivery to deeper lens fibers
- ▶ causes
 - congenital
 - age-related hardening, thickening of lens*
 - secondary result of DM
- ▶ risk factors
 - heavy smoking
 - frequent exposure to intense sunlight

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Refraction

- ▶ bending of a light ray
 - when it meets the surface of different medium
- ▶ light reflects or bounces off surfaces
- ▶ light travels in straight lines
 - easily blocked by any nontransparent object

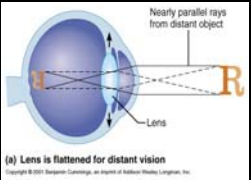
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Refraction

- ▶ speed is constant
 - when traveling in a given medium
- ▶ speed changes
 - when passing from one medium to different one
 - less dense medium
 - speeds up
 - more dense medium
 - slows down

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Refraction of Light Rays



- ▶ convex lens surface is thicker in the center
- ▶ light rays bend
 - converge or intersect at a single point (focal point)
- ▶ image formed
 - real image
 - upside down
 - reversed from left to right

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Refraction of Light Rays

- ▶ refraction of light rays
 - three times
- ▶ moves sequentially from:
 - air to cornea to aqueous humor to lens to vitreous humor to entire thickness of neural retinal layer to excite photoreceptor cells
- ▶ light falls on retina:
 - as an upside-down, left-right-reversed image
- ▶ brain interprets image as:
 - right-side-up, correctly oriented left to right

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Focusing for Distant Vision

- ▶ lens
 - focusing of different distances
- ▶ cornea
 - most refraction
- ▶ lens are best adapted
 - distant vision
 - aim and fixate at a spot
- ▶ far point of vision
 - distance requires no change in lens shape (*accommodation*)
 - normal (*emmetropic*) ~ 20 ft
- ▶ near point of vision
 - closest clearly focusing point ~ 4 in
 - maximum lens bulge

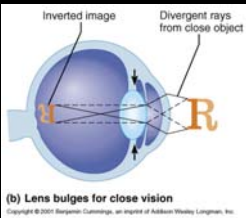
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Focusing for Distant Vision

- ▶ light rays travel in almost parallel paths
- ▶ eye remains relaxed
- ▶ light focuses precisely on the retina
- ▶ focusing requires no special movements of the eye structures
- ▶ natural state

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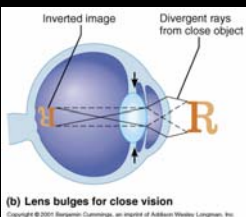
Focusing for Close Vision



- ▶ light rays travel in divergent (bent) paths
- ▶ eye unrelaxed
- ▶ cannot focus unparallel rays on the retina

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Focusing for Close Vision




- ▶ focusing requires special movements of the eye structures (*simultaneously*)
 - accommodation of lenses
 - constriction of pupils
 - convergence of eyeballs

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Special Movements for Close Vision

- accommodation of lenses
 - bulging of lens
 - to increase refraction of the light rays
- constriction of pupils ~ 2 mm
 - act like a pinhole camera
 - to increase clarity and depth of focus
- convergence of eyeballs
 - medial rotation
 - to keep object on retinal foveae


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Focusing Experiment

- ▶ look at your handout at your normal reading distance
- ▶ bring the handout closer to your eyes by half
- ▶ try to read the print
- ▶ notice your eyes tiring
 - work to focus the image on the retina


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Homeostatic Imbalances of Refraction

- ▶ myopia (*nearsightedness*)
 - affects 1 in 4 Americans
 - image focused in front of retina
 - lens bends light rays inward too much
 - difficulty focusing on distant, parallel light rays
 - eyeball is too long
 - corrected
 - concave lens
 - bends light rays out to focus farther back and on retina
 - radial keratotomy or laser surgery

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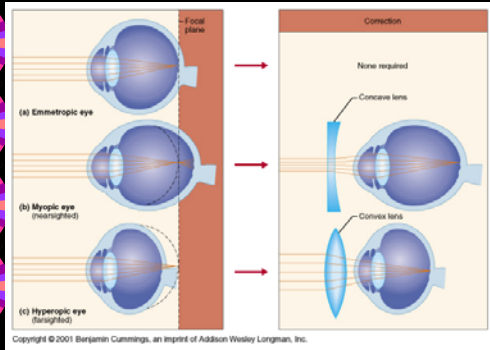


Homeostatic Imbalances of Refraction

- ▶ hyperopia (*farsightedness*)
 - image focused behind the retina
 - lens bends light rays too short
 - difficulty focusing on close, divergent light rays
 - corrected
 - convex lens
 - bends light rays in to focus forward and directly on retina

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Homeostatic Imbalances of Refraction (fig 16.17)



Homeostatic Imbalances of Refraction


- astigmatism
 - unequal curvatures
 - cornea or lens
 - individual light rays refracted in different amounts
 - each focused differently as lines (*not points*) on retina
 - some just right, some near-sighted, some far-sighted
 - neither near nor far objects are focused
 - corrected
 - special lenses with uneven curvature
 - compensates for eye's asymmetry
 - allows the image to focus evenly on retina
 - laser

101

Light and Dark Adaptation

- photoreceptor pigment molecule
 - active form (*stimulated by light*)
 - undergoes a chemical change (*bright light*)
 - bleaching of photoreceptors (process)
 - decreases amount of active pigment in photoreceptors
 - decreases eye's sensitivity to light
 - inactivation of photoreceptor molecule (*light adaptation*)


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Light and Dark Adaptation

- ▶ photoreceptor pigment molecule
 - inactive form (*stimulated by darkness*)
 - resynthesis of inactive from
 - active form
 - reverse of light adaptation
 - increases amount of active pigment in photoreceptors
 - increases eye's sensitivity to light
 - activation of photoreceptor molecule (*dark adaptation*)


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Dark Adaptation Example

- ▶ dark theatre in the afternoon
- ▶ bright afternoon sun has bleached (*inactivated*) many photoreceptors
- ▶ eyes (*due to light adaptation*) are desensitized to handle bright sunlight
 - not effectively stimulated by low light
- ▶ after a few minutes you begin to see
 - because the darkness has activated the pigment molecules
- ▶ dark adaptation made eyes sensitive enough to be stimulated by low light


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Dark Adaptation Example

- ▶ when you leave the dark theatre
- ▶ bright sunlight hurts your eyes
- ▶ everything appears too white
- ▶ dark adaptation
 - eyes have lots of active pigment
 - too sensitive to sunlight

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Night Blindness ~ Nyctalopia

- ▶ condition in which rod function is impaired
 - hampers one's ability to drive safely at night
- ▶ most common cause
 - prolonged vitamin A deficiency
 - leads to rod degeneration
- ▶ trt
 - vitamin A supplements
 - restore function
 - if administered before degenerative changes occur


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Ear: Hearing and Balance

- ▶ hearing apparatus
 - hear range of sounds
- ▶ equilibrium receptors
 - inform NS of head movements and position
- ▶ sound vibrations move fluid
 - stimulate hearing receptors

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Ear: Hearing and Balance

- ▶ gross head movements
 - disturb fluids surrounding balance organs
- ▶ organs serving senses interconnected within ear
 - receptors respond different stimuli
 - activated independently

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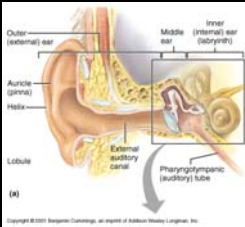
Structure of the Ear

- ▶ three major areas
- ▶ outer ear
 - hearing only
- ▶ middle ear
 - hearing only
- ▶ inner ear
 - equilibrium and hearing

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Structure of the Ear (fig 16.24)

- ▶ outer (external) ear
 - auricle (pinna)
 - external auditory canal (meatus)
- ▶ tympanic membrane (ear drum)
 - boundary between outer and middle ears

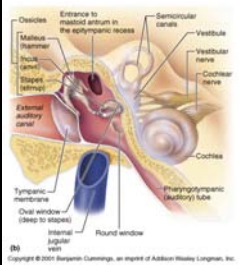


110


Structure of Ear (fig 16.24)

▶ middle ear (tympanic cavity)

- small chamber in temporal bone
- connected by pharyngotympanic (auditory) tube to nasopharynx
- ossicles
 - help amplify sound
 - three small bones
 - malleus (hammer)
 - incus (anvil)
 - stapes (stirrup)




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Otitis Media

- ▶ middle ear inflammation
- ▶ common result of sore throat
 - especially children
 - shorter and more horizontal auditory tube
 - links middle ear cavity with nasopharynx (superiormost part of throat)
- ▶ most frequent cause of hearing loss (*children*)
- ▶ acute
 - infectious bacteria present
 - eardrum bulges, inflammed
 - trt (most cases)
 - antibiotics


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Mechanics of Hearing

- ▶ sounds set up vibrations in air
- ▶ beat against the eardrum
- ▶ push a chain of tiny bones
- ▶ press fluid in inner ear against membranes
- ▶ set up forces that pull on hair cells
- ▶ stimulate neurons that send impulses to brain
- ▶ interpretation impulses
 - hearing

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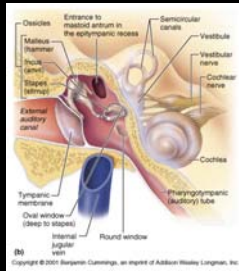
Properties of Sound

- ▶ pressure disturbance
 - originates from a vibrating object
 - propagated by molecules in medium
- ▶ transmitted through an elastic medium
- ▶ travels more slowly than light
- ▶ speed is constant in a given medium
 - greatest in solids
 - lowest in gases (air)

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Structure of Ear (fig 16.24)

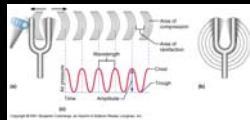
- ▶ inner ear (labyrinth)
 - deep within temporal bone behind eye socket
 - three unique regions
 - vestibule
 - two sacs: utricle, saccule
 - cochlea
 - duct houses the organ of Corti (receptor organ for hearing)
 - semicircular canals



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Vibrating Tuning Fork (fig 16.28)

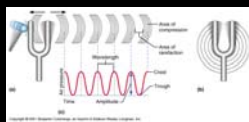
- ▶ tuning fork struck on left
- ▶ prongs move first to right
 - creates an area of high pressure
 - compression of air molecules
- ▶ prongs rebound to left
- ▶ air on left becomes compressed
- ▶ area on right - rarefied (low pressure) area
- ▶ fork vibrates alternately from R to L
- ▶ produces series of compressions and rarefactions
 - *sound waves*
 - moves outward in all directions



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Vibrating Tuning Fork

- ▶ individual air molecules
 - vibrate back and forth
 - short distances
 - bump other molecules and rebound
 - give up kinetic energy
 - energy is transferred in the direction sound wave is traveling
 - energy of the wave dies
 - with time and distance
 - sound dies

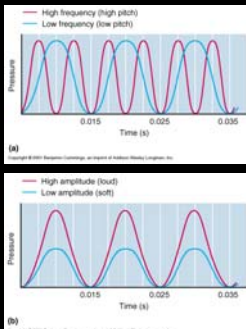


Sound wave is an S-shaped curve (*sine wave*) in which the compressed areas are crests and the rarefied areas are troughs

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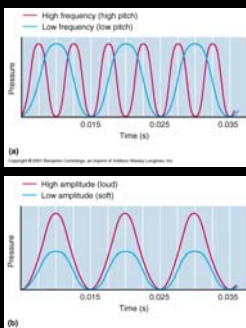
Physical Properties of Sound (fig 16.29)

- ▶ two properties
- ▶ frequency
 - hertz
 - number of waves passing a given point in a given time
- ▶ amplitude
 - height of peaks
 - sound's intensity
 - perceived as loudness
 - decibels (dB)



Physical Properties of Sound

- ▶ wavelength
 - distance from crest to crest
 - shorter wavelength - higher frequency
- ▶ pitch
 - different sound frequencies
 - higher frequency - higher pitch



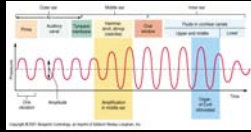
Sound Intensities

- ▶ healthy adult ear
 - differences in sound intensity
 - 0.1 dB (barely audible)
 - 120 dB (loudest sound)
 - threshold of pain - 130 dB
 - normal conversation - 50 dB
 - noisy restaurants - 70 dB
 - amplified concert - 120 dB or more
- ▶ severe hearing loss
 - frequent or prolonged exposure intensities > 90 dB

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Sound Transmission (fig 16.30)

- ▶ sound waves propagated through air, membranes, bones, and fluid to reach and stimulate receptor cells in the organ of Corti
- ▶ hearing occurs when the auditory area (temporal lobe) is stimulated



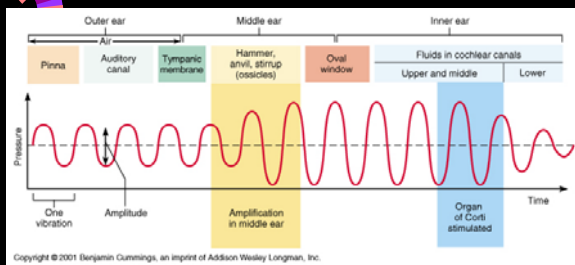
121

Sound Transmission


- ▶ sound waves propagated
 - air
 - membranes
 - bones
 - fluid
 - reach and stimulate receptor cells in the organ of Corti
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Sound Transmission (fig 16.30)




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Sound Transmission

- ▶ airborne sound entering the external auditory canal strikes the tympanic membrane
 - sets its vibrating at the same frequency
 - distance the membrane moves in its vibratory motion varies with sound intensity
 - greater the intensity, the farther the membrane is displaced
- ▶ motion of the tympanic membrane is amplified and transferred to oval window by ossicles


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Sound Transmission

- ▶ airborne sound entering the external auditory canal strikes the tympanic membrane
 - sets its vibration at the same frequency
 - distance the membrane moves in its vibratory motion varies with sound intensity
 - greater the intensity, the farther the membrane is displaced


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Sound Transmission

- ▶ motion of the tympanic membrane is amplified and transferred to oval window by ossicles
- ▶ pressure waves in cochlear fluids go into resonance
- ▶ hair cells are alternately depolarized and hyperpolarized by vibratory motion


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Homeostatic Imbalances

- deafness
 - any hearing loss
 - inability to hear sound or a certain pitch or intensity to a complete inability to detect sound
 - conduction or sensorineural

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Conduction Deafness

- conduction deafness
 - interference with conduction of sound vibrations to fluids of the inner ear
 - impacted earwax
 - blocks the auditory canal
 - hinders vibration of the eardrum
 - perforated or ruptured eardrum
 - prevents sound conduction from eardrum to ossicles

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Conduction Deafness

- most common causes
 - otitis media (middle ear)
 - otosclerosis (ossicles)
 - age-related ds
 - overgrowth of bony tissue


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Sensorineural Deafness

- ▶ damage to neural structures
 - any point from cochlear hair cells to and including auditory cells
 - partial or complete deafness
 - gradual loss of hearing receptors


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Sensorineural Deafness

- ▶ causes
 - single explosively loud noise (early age)
 - prolonged exposure to high-intensity sounds
 - music band
 - airport
 - stiffens or tears cilia
 - cochlear nerve degeneration
 - cerebral infarcts
 - tumors (auditory cortex)


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Equilibrium Sense

- ▶ responds to various head movements
- ▶ dependent on inputs
 - inner ear
 - vision
 - stretch receptors (muscles, tendons)


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Equilibrium Sense

- ▶ equilibrium receptors
 - vestibular apparatus
 - send signals to brain
 - initiate reflexes
 - changes in body position


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Equilibrium Sense

- ▶ damage to vestibular apparatus
 - system adaptation
- ▶ two functional sets of receptors
 - vestibule
 - semicircular canals


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Functional Receptors

- ▶ vestibule
 - monitors straight line changes in speed direction (static equilibrium)
 - receptors are maculae of the saccule and utricle
 - monitor position of head in space - control posture
- ▶ semicircular canals
 - located in all three planes
 - monitor rotary and angular movements (dynamic equilibrium)


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Equilibrium Sense

- ▶ 1) impulses from vestibular apparatus sent via vestibular nerve fibers
- ▶ 2) impulses sent to vestibular complex of brain stem and cerebrum
- ▶ 3) brain stem and cerebrum initiate responses
- ▶ 4) responses result in eyes being fixed on objects and muscles being activated to maintain balance


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Homeostatic Imbalance

- ▶ motion sickness
 - common equilibrium disorder
 - sensory input mismatch
 - preceding signs
 - vomiting
 - nausea
 - excessive salivation
 - pallor
 - rapid deep breathing
 - profuse sweating


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Motion Sickness Example

- ▶ inside a ship during a storm
- ▶ visual inputs
 - body is fixed in a stationary environment (cabin)
- ▶ ship tosses and rocks
- ▶ vestibular apparatus
 - detects movement and send impulses that “disagree” with visual information
- ▶ brain has conflicting information
 - confusion results in motion sickness
- ▶ trt
 - removal of stimulus
 - OTC anti-motion meds
 - depress the vestibular inputs


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Age-related Homeostatic Imbalances

- age 60
 - deterioration of organ of Corti (noticeable)
 - decrease in number of hair cells
 - damaged or destroyed by loud noises, disease, drugs
 - replaced but too slowly
 - lose ability to hear high pitched sounds
 - presbycusis
 - type of sensorineural deafness
 - becoming more common in young people
 - loud noises

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Age-related Homeostatic Imbalances

- age 60
 - vasoconstriction
 - caused by loud noises
 - decreased blood delivery to ear
 - more sensitive to damaging effects

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*Happy Studying!
Have a Great Summer!
See ya again next week!*

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