

Overview: Sensing and Acting

- The star-nosed mole can catch insect prey in near total darkness in as little as 120 milliseconds
- It uses the 11 appendages protruding from its nose to locate and capture prey
- Sensory processes convey information about an animal's environment to its brain, and muscles and skeletons carry out movements as instructed by the brain

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Figure 50.1

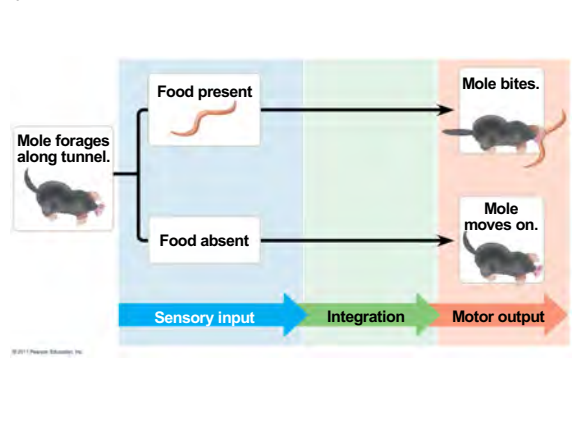


Concept 50.1: Sensory receptors transduce stimulus energy and transmit signals to the central nervous system

- All stimuli represent forms of energy
- Sensation involves converting energy into a change in the membrane potential of sensory receptors
- When a stimulus's input to the nervous system is processed a motor response may be generated
- This may involve a simple reflex or more elaborate processing

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Figure 50.2



Sensory Pathways

- Sensory pathways have four basic functions in common
 - Sensory reception
 - Transduction
 - Transmission
 - Integration

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Sensory Reception and Transduction

- Sensations and perceptions begin with **sensory reception**, detection of stimuli by sensory receptors
- **Sensory receptors** interact directly with stimuli, both inside and outside the body

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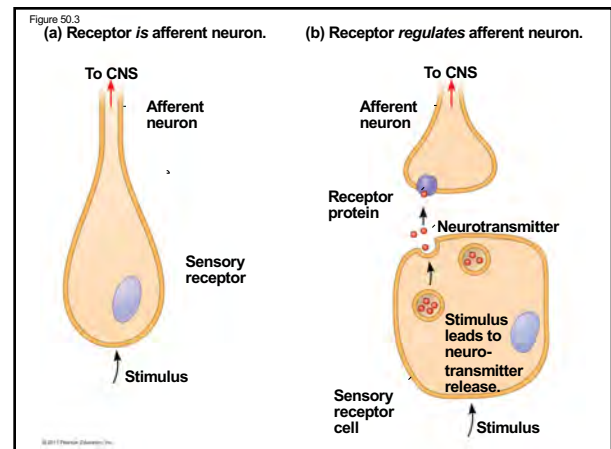
- **Sensory transduction** is the conversion of stimulus energy into a change in the membrane potential of a sensory receptor
- This change in membrane potential is called a **receptor potential**
- Receptor potentials are graded potentials; their magnitude varies with the strength of the stimulus

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Transmission

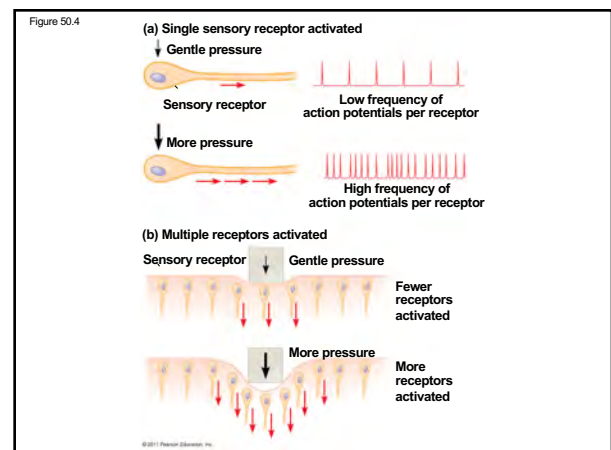
- After energy has been transduced into a receptor potential, some sensory cells generate the **transmission** of action potentials to the CNS
- Some sensory receptors are specialized neurons while others are specialized cells that regulate neurons
- Sensory neurons produce action potentials and their axons extend into the CNS

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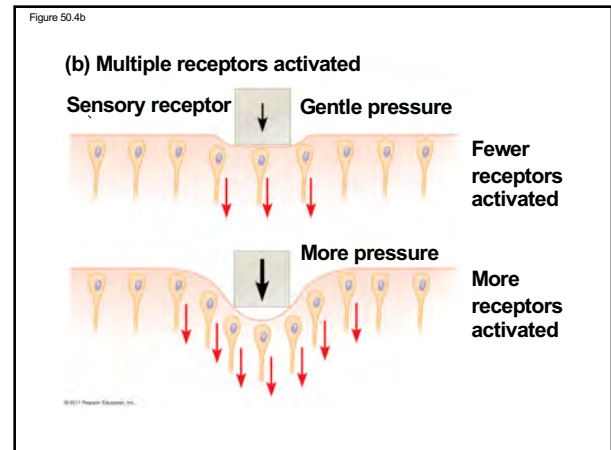
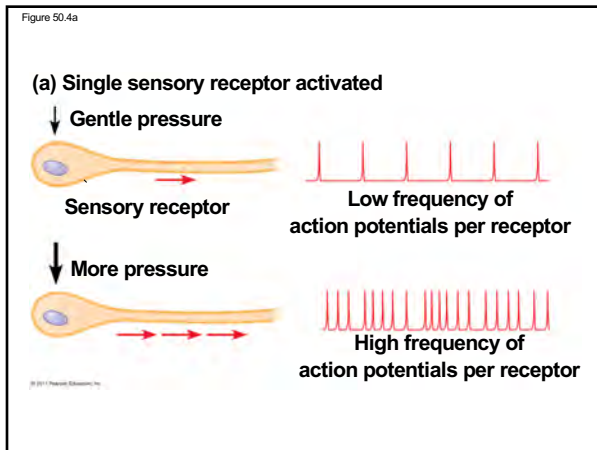


- The response of a sensory receptor varies with intensity of stimuli
- If the receptor is a neuron, a larger receptor potential results in more frequent action potentials
- If the receptor is not a neuron, a larger receptor potential causes more neurotransmitters to be released

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Perception

- **Perceptions** are the brain's construction of stimuli
- Stimuli from different sensory receptors travel as action potentials along dedicated neural pathways
- The brain distinguishes stimuli from different receptors based on the area in the brain where the action potentials arrive

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Amplification and Adaptation

- **Amplification** is the strengthening of stimulus energy by cells in sensory pathways
- **Sensory adaptation** is a decrease in responsiveness to continued stimulation

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Types of Sensory Receptors

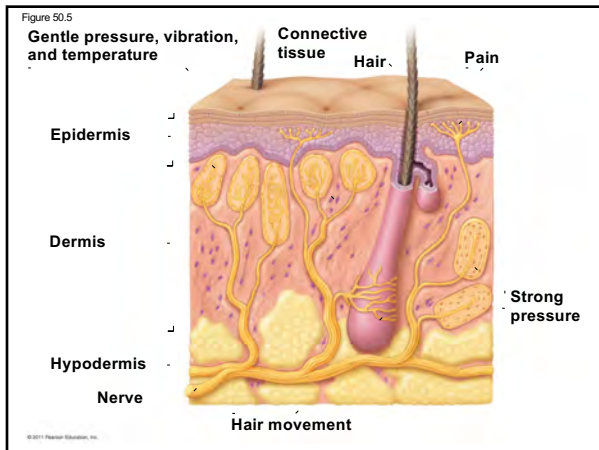
- Based on energy transduced, sensory receptors fall into five categories
 - Mechanoreceptors
 - Chemoreceptors
 - Electromagnetic receptors
 - Thermoreceptors
 - Pain receptors

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Mechanoreceptors

- **Mechanoreceptors** sense physical deformation caused by stimuli such as pressure, stretch, motion, and sound
- The knee-jerk response is triggered by the vertebrate stretch receptor, a mechanoreceptor that detects muscle movement
- The mammalian sense of touch relies on mechanoreceptors that are dendrites of sensory neurons

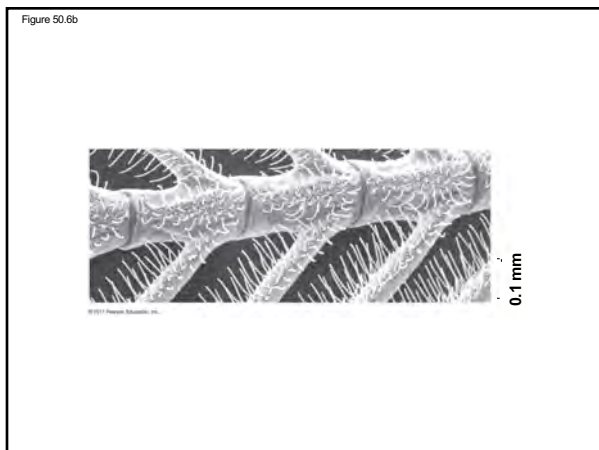
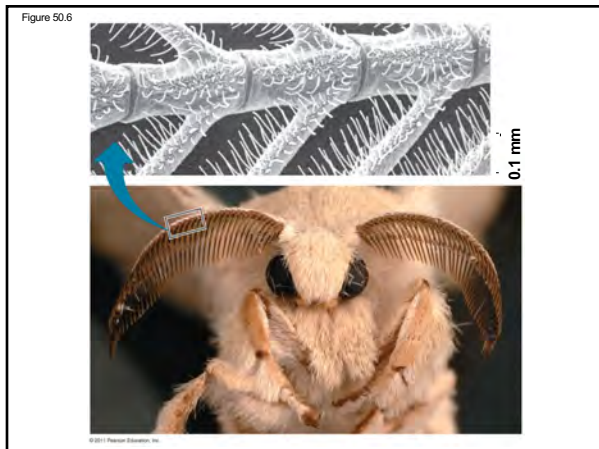
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Chemoreceptors

- General **chemoreceptors** transmit information about the total solute concentration of a solution
- Specific chemoreceptors respond to individual kinds of molecules
- When a stimulus molecule binds to a chemoreceptor, the chemoreceptor becomes more or less permeable to ions
- The antennae of the male silkworm moth have very sensitive specific chemoreceptors

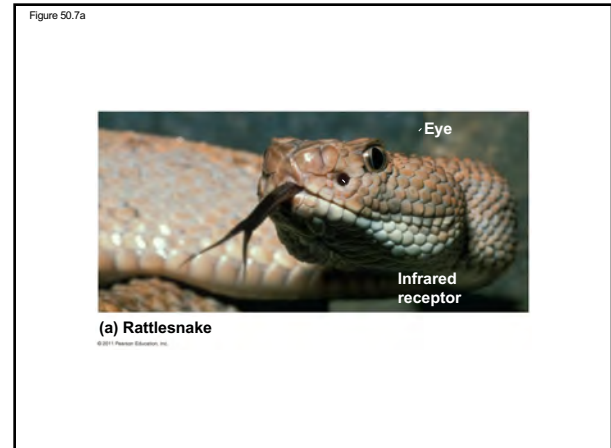
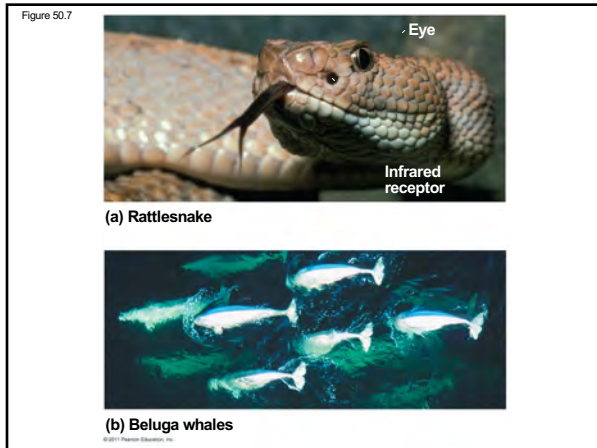
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Electromagnetic Receptors

- **Electromagnetic receptors** detect electromagnetic energy such as light, electricity, and magnetism
- Some snakes have very sensitive infrared receptors that detect body heat of prey against a colder background
- Many animals apparently migrate using the Earth's magnetic field to orient themselves

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Thermoreceptors

- **Thermoreceptors**, which respond to heat or cold, help regulate body temperature by signaling both surface and body core temperature
- Mammals have a number of kinds of thermoreceptors, each specific for a particular temperature range

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Pain Receptors

- In humans, **pain receptors**, or **nociceptors**, are a class of naked dendrites in the epidermis
- They respond to excess heat, pressure, or chemicals released from damaged or inflamed tissues

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Concept 50.2: The mechanoreceptors responsible for hearing and equilibrium detect moving fluid or settling particles

- Hearing and perception of body equilibrium are related in most animals
- For both senses, settling particles or moving fluid are detected by mechanoreceptors

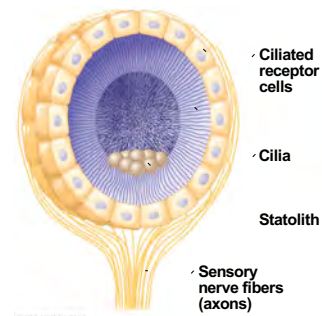
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Sensing Gravity and Sound in Invertebrates

- Most invertebrates maintain equilibrium using mechanoreceptors located in organs called **statocysts**
- Statocysts contain mechanoreceptors that detect the movement of granules called **statoliths**

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Figure 50.8

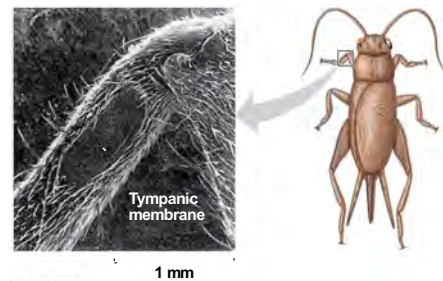


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- Many arthropods sense sounds with body hairs that vibrate or with localized "ears" consisting of a tympanic membrane and receptor cells

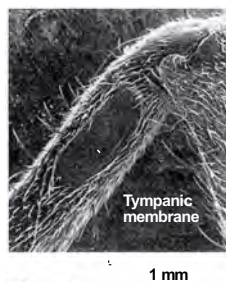
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Figure 50.9



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Figure 50.9a

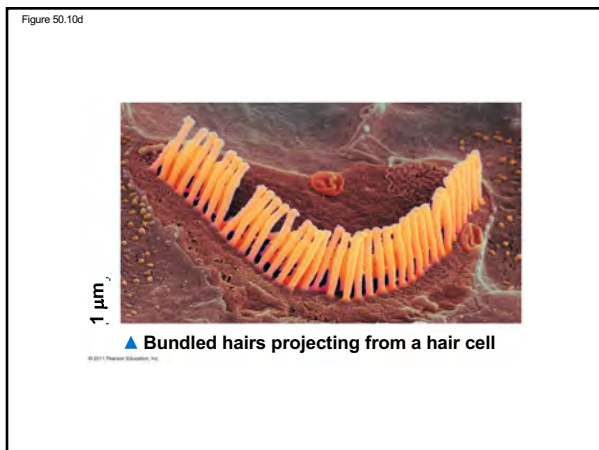
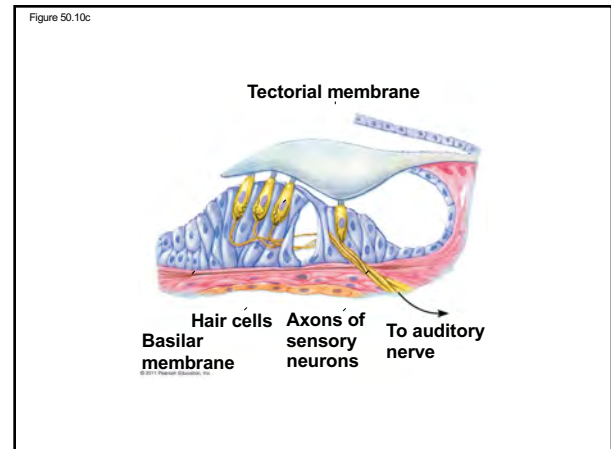
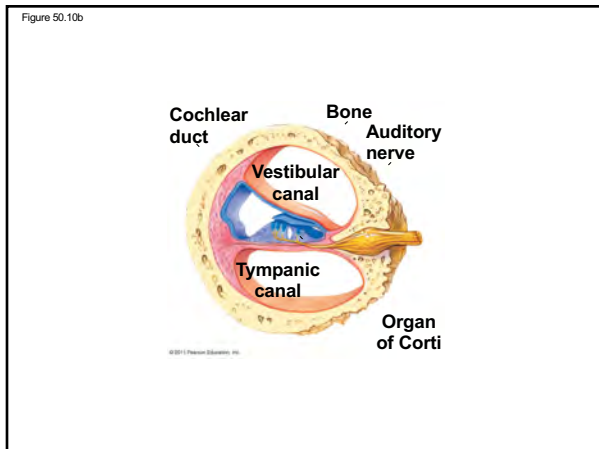
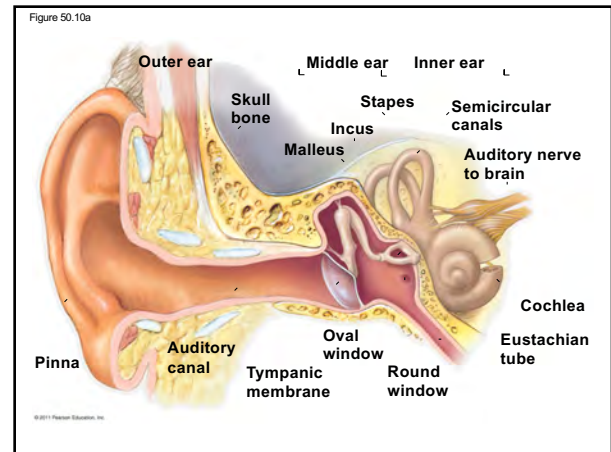
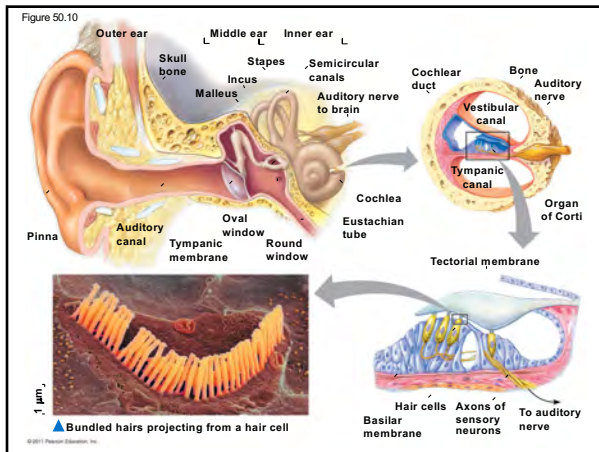


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Hearing and Equilibrium in Mammals

- In most terrestrial vertebrates, sensory organs for hearing and equilibrium are closely associated in the ear

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Hearing

- Vibrating objects create percussion waves in the air that cause the tympanic membrane to vibrate
- The three bones of the middle ear transmit the vibrations of moving air to the oval window on the cochlea
- These vibrations create pressure waves in the fluid in the cochlea that travel through the vestibular canal

- Pressure waves in the canal cause the basilar membrane to vibrate, bending its **hair cells**
- This bending of hair cells depolarizes the membranes of mechanoreceptors and sends action potentials to the brain via the auditory nerve

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Figure 50.11

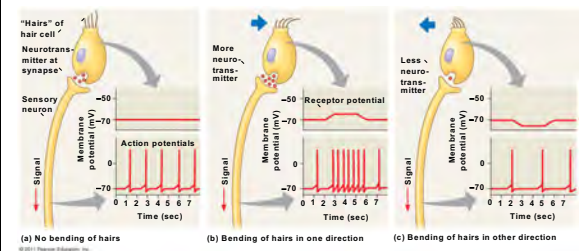
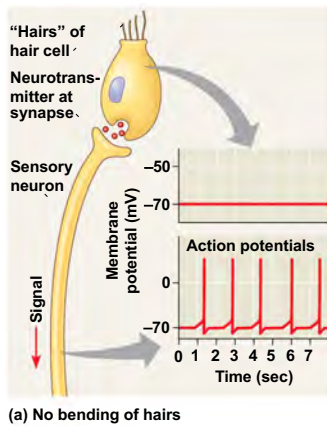
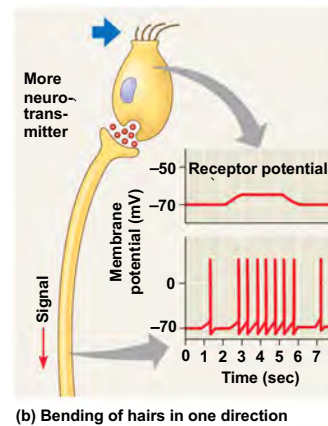


Figure 50.11a



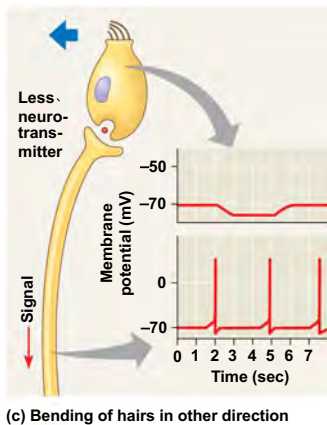
(a) No bending of hairs

Figure 50.11b



(b) Bending of hairs in one direction

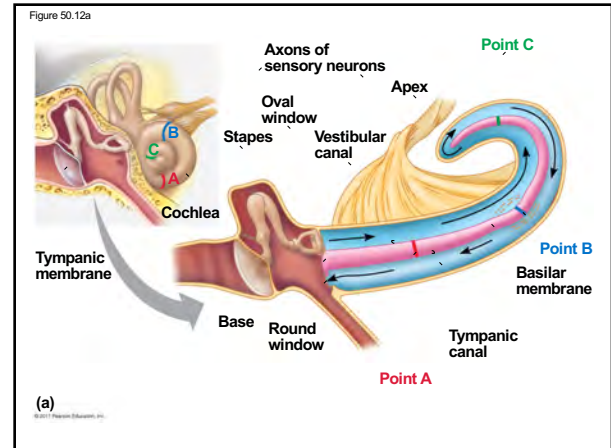
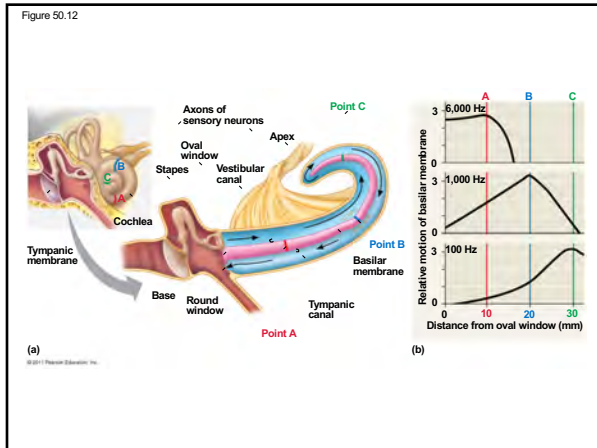
Figure 50.11c



(c) Bending of hairs in other direction

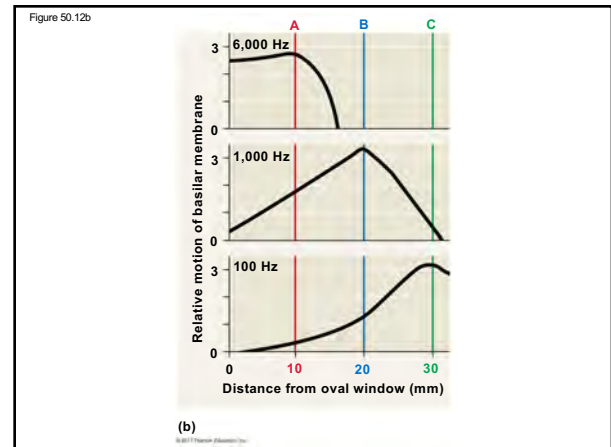
- The fluid waves dissipate when they strike the **round window** at the end of the tympanic canal

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- The ear conveys information about
 - *Volume*, the amplitude of the sound wave
 - *Pitch*, the frequency of the sound wave
- The cochlea can distinguish pitch because the basilar membrane is not uniform along its length
- Each region of the basilar membrane is tuned to a particular vibration frequency

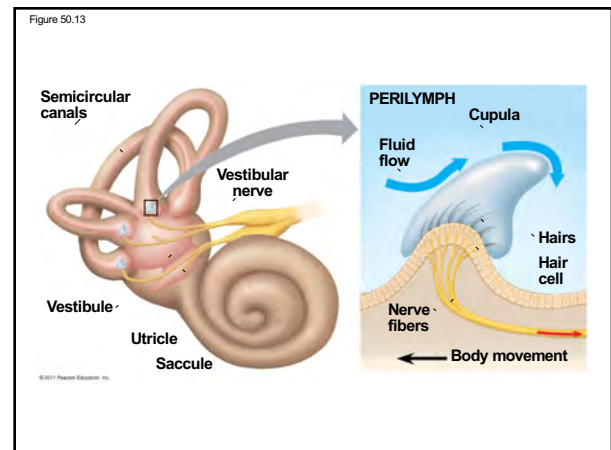
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Equilibrium

- Several organs of the inner ear detect body movement, position, and balance
 - The **utricle** and **sacculle** contain granules called otoliths that allow us to perceive position relative to gravity or linear movement
 - Three semicircular canals contain fluid and can detect angular movement in any direction

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Hearing and Equilibrium in Other Vertebrates

- Unlike mammals, fishes have only a pair of inner ears near the brain
- Most fishes and aquatic amphibians also have a **lateral line system** along both sides of their body
- The lateral line system contains mechanoreceptors with hair cells that detect and respond to water movement

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Figure 50.14

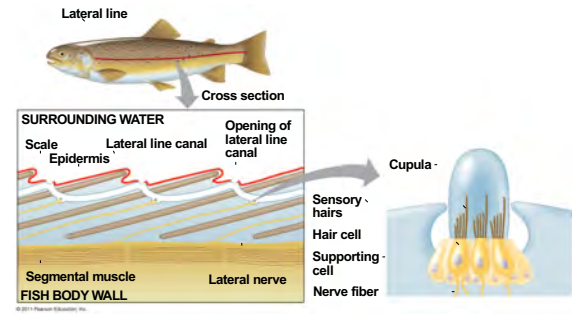


Figure 50.14a

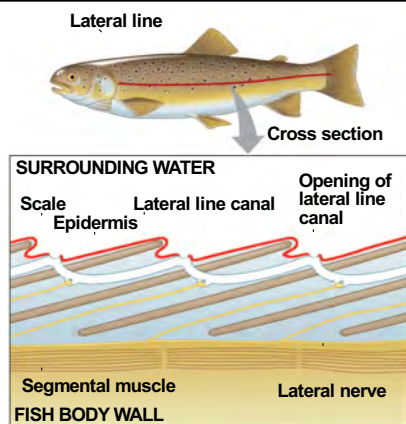
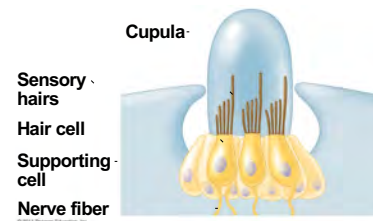


Figure 50.14b



Concept 50.3: Visual receptors on diverse animals depend on light-absorbing pigments

- Animals use a diverse set of organs for vision, but the underlying mechanism for capturing light is the same, suggesting a common evolutionary origin

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Evolution of Visual Perception

- Light detectors in the animal kingdom range from simple clusters of cells that detect direction and intensity of light to complex organs that form images
- Light detectors all contain **photoreceptors**, cells that contain light-absorbing pigment molecules

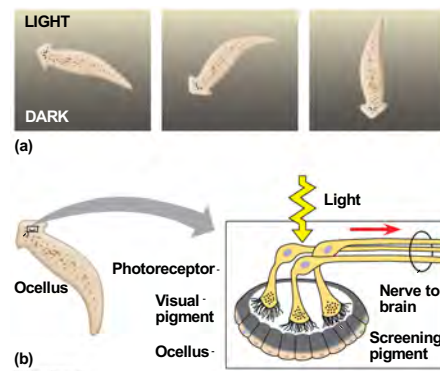
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Light-Detecting Organs

- Most invertebrates have a light-detecting organ
- One of the simplest light-detecting organs is that of planarians
- A pair of ocelli called eyespots are located near the head
- These allow planarians to move away from light and seek shaded locations

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Figure 50.15



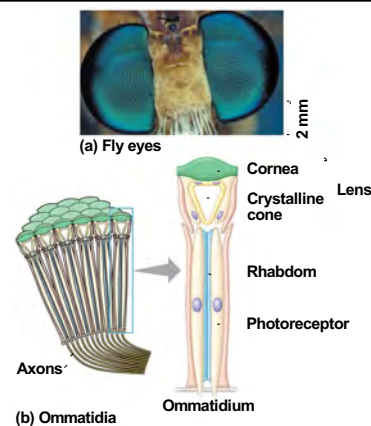
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Compound Eyes

- Insects and crustaceans have **compound eyes**, which consist of up to several thousand light detectors called **ommatidia**
- Compound eyes are very effective at detecting movement

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Figure 50.16



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Figure 50.16a



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Single-Lens Eyes

- **Single-lens eyes** are found in some jellies, polychaetes, spiders, and many molluscs
- They work on a camera-like principle: the **iris** changes the diameter of the **pupil** to control how much light enters
- The eyes of all vertebrates have a single lens

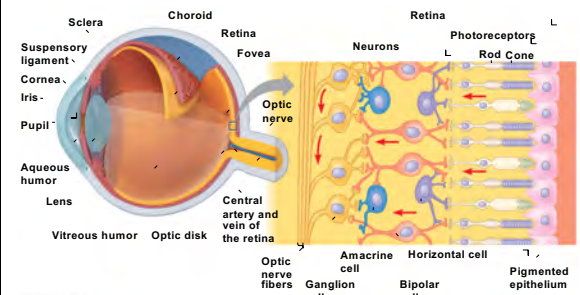
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The Vertebrate Visual System

- In vertebrates the eye detects color and light, but the brain assembles the information and perceives the image

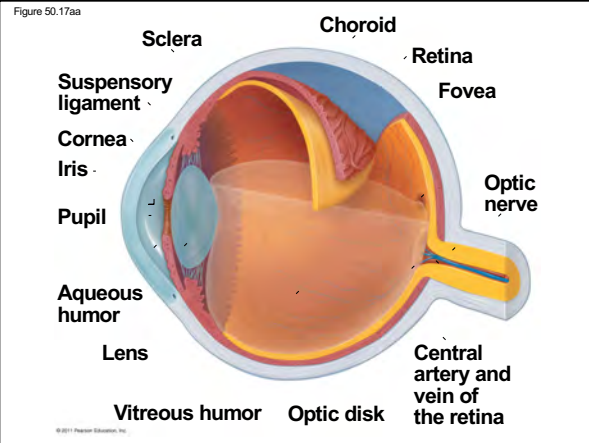
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Figure 50.17a



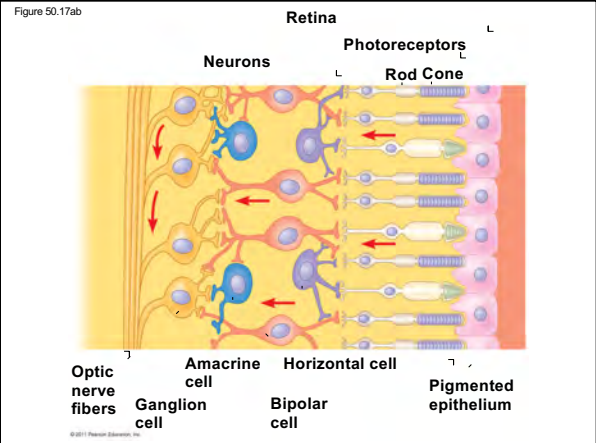
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Figure 50.17aa



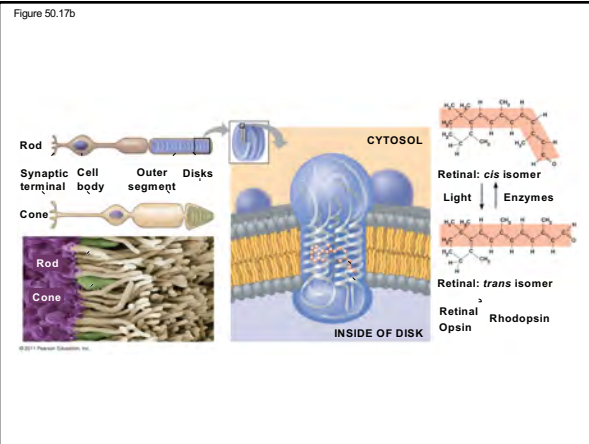
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Figure 50.17ab



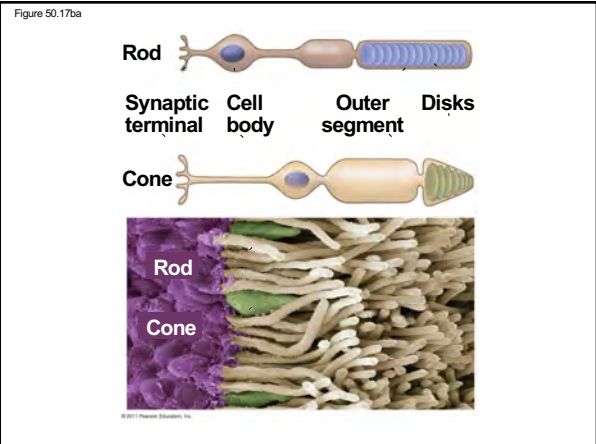
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Figure 50.17b

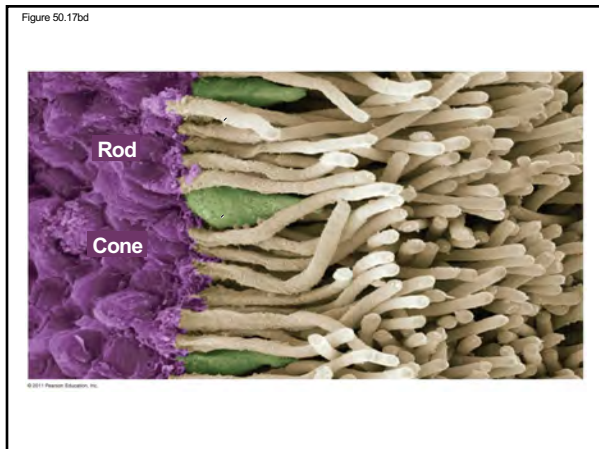
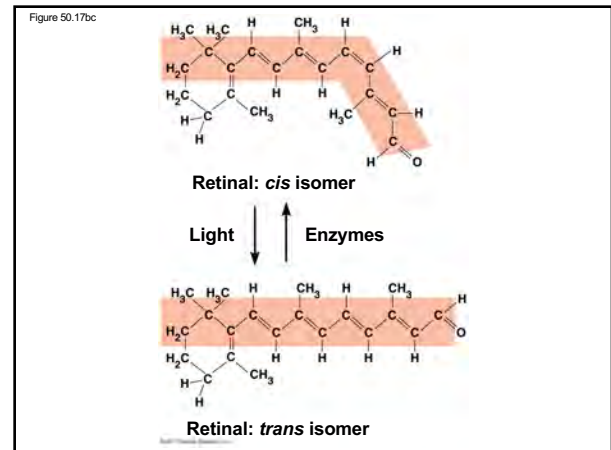
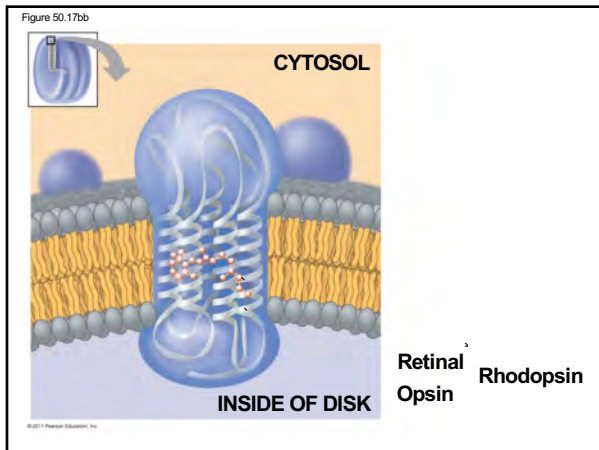


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Figure 50.17ba



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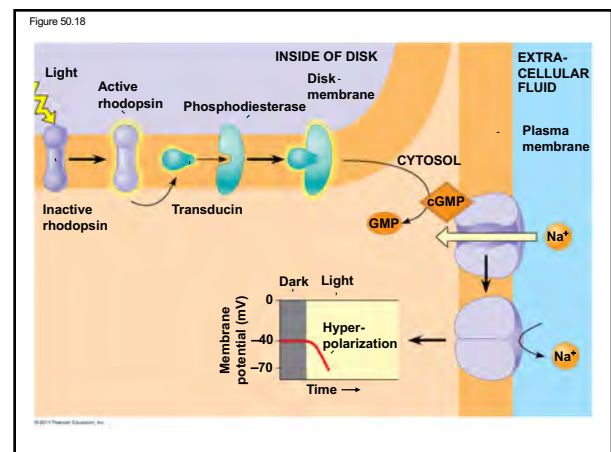
Sensory Transduction in the Eye

- Transduction of visual information to the nervous system begins when light induces the conversion of *cis*-retinal to *trans*-retinal
- *trans*-retinal activates rhodopsin, which activates a G protein, eventually leading to hydrolysis of cyclic GMP

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- When cyclic GMP breaks down, Na^+ channels close
- This hyperpolarizes the cell
- The signal transduction pathway usually shuts off again as enzymes convert retinal back to the *cis* form

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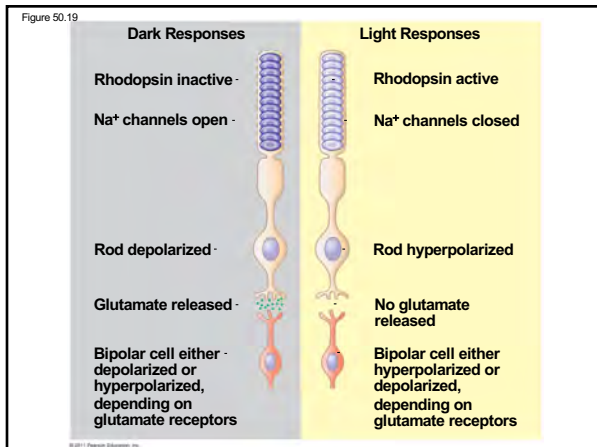
Processing of Visual Information in the Retina

- Processing of visual information begins in the retina
- In the dark, rods and cones release the neurotransmitter glutamate into synapses with neurons called **bipolar cells**
- Bipolar cells are either hyperpolarized or depolarized in response to glutamate

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- In the light, rods and cones hyperpolarize, shutting off release of glutamate
- The bipolar cells are then either depolarized or hyperpolarized

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- Three other types of neurons contribute to information processing in the retina
 - Ganglion cells transmit signals from bipolar cells to the brain
 - Horizontal and amacrine cells help integrate visual information before it is sent to the brain
- Interaction among different cells results in **lateral inhibition**, enhanced contrast in the image

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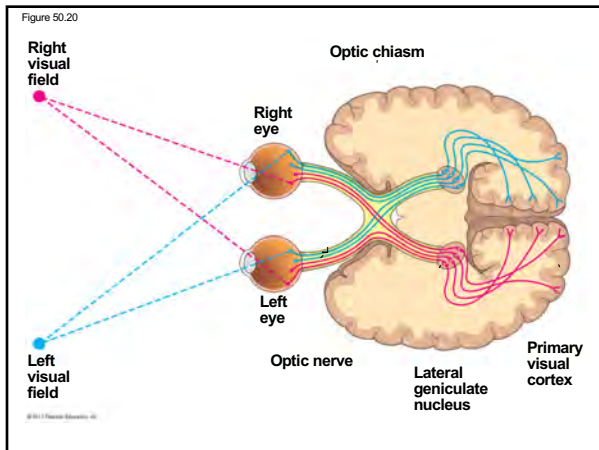
Processing of Visual Information in the Brain

- The optic nerves meet at the **optic chiasm** near the cerebral cortex
- Sensations from the left visual field of both eyes are transmitted to the right side of the brain
- Sensations from the right visual field are transmitted to the left side of the brain

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- Most ganglion cell axons lead to the **lateral geniculate nuclei**
- The lateral geniculate nuclei relay information to the **primary visual cortex** in the cerebrum
- At least 30% of the cerebral cortex, in dozens of integrating centers, are active in creating visual perceptions

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Color Vision

- Among vertebrates, most fish, amphibians, and reptiles, including birds, have very good color vision
- Humans and other primates are among the minority of mammals with the ability to see color well
- Mammals that are nocturnal usually have a high proportion of rods in the retina

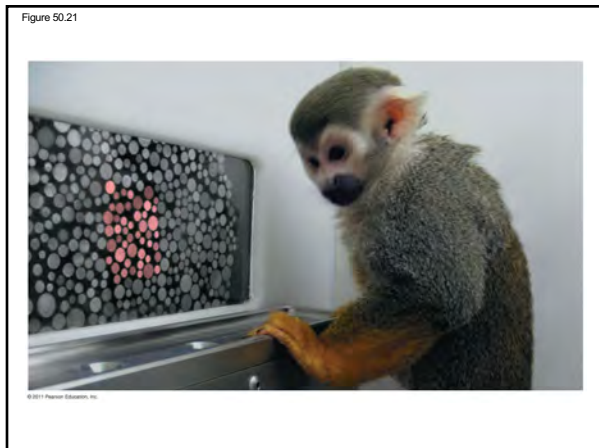
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- In humans, perception of color is based on three types of cones, each with a different visual pigment: red, green, or blue
- These pigments are called photopsins and are formed when retinal binds to three distinct opsin proteins

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- Abnormal color vision results from alterations in the genes for one or more photopsin proteins
- In 2009, researchers studying color blindness in squirrel monkeys made a breakthrough in gene therapy

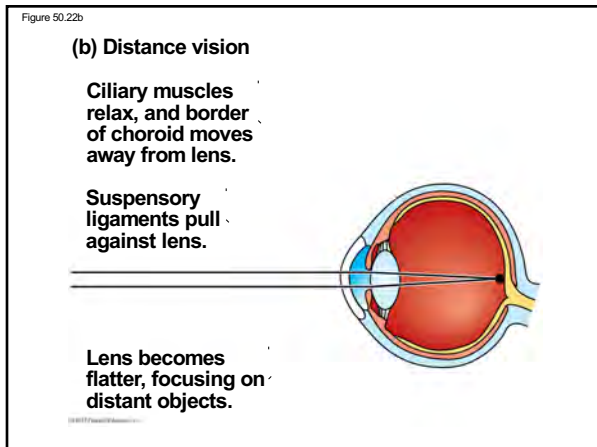
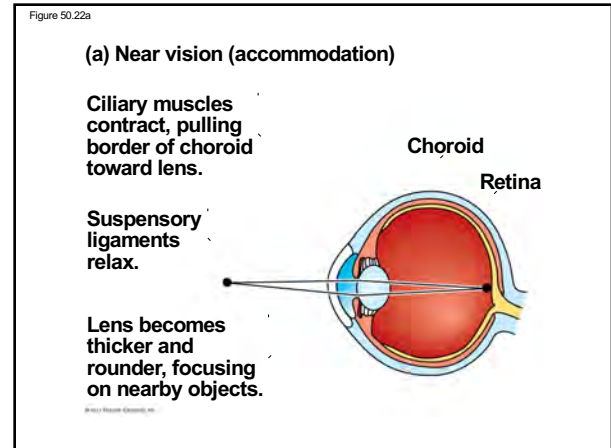
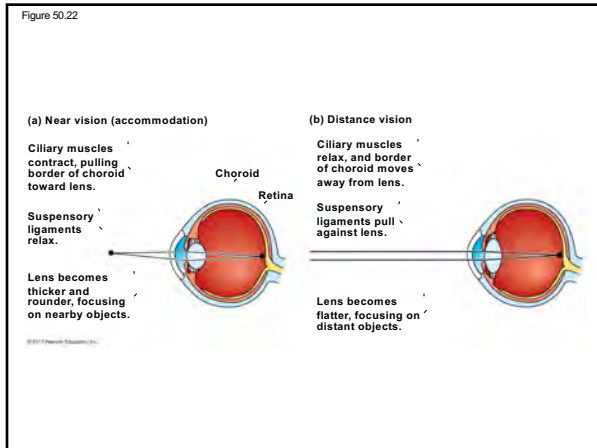
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The Visual Field

- The brain processes visual information and controls what information is captured
- Focusing occurs by changing the shape of the lens
- The **fovea** is the center of the visual field and contains no rods, but a high density of cones

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Concept 50.4: The senses of taste and smell rely on similar sets of sensory receptors

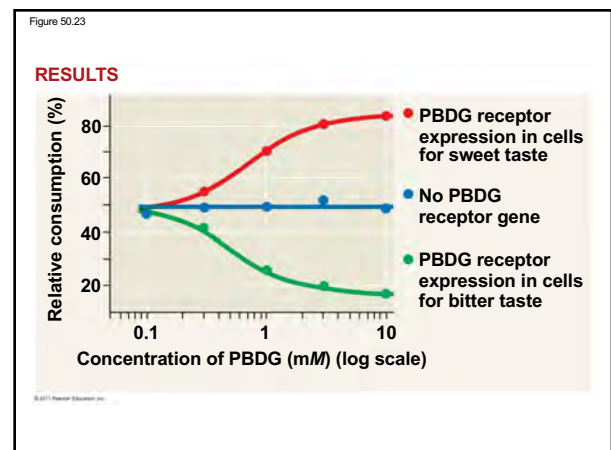
- In terrestrial animals
 - Gustation** (taste) is dependent on the detection of chemicals called **tastants**
 - Olfaction** (smell) is dependent on the detection of **odorant** molecules
- In aquatic animals there is no distinction between taste and smell
- Taste receptors of insects are in sensory hairs called sensilla, located on feet and in mouth parts

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Taste in Mammals

- In humans, receptor cells for taste are modified epithelial cells organized into **taste buds**
- There are five taste perceptions: sweet, sour, salty, bitter, and umami (elicited by glutamate)
- Researchers have identified receptors for each of the tastes except salty
- Researchers believe that an individual taste cell expresses one receptor type and detects one of the five tastes

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- Receptor cells for taste in mammals are modified epithelial cells organized into taste buds, located in several areas of the tongue and mouth
- Any region with taste buds can detect any of the five types of taste

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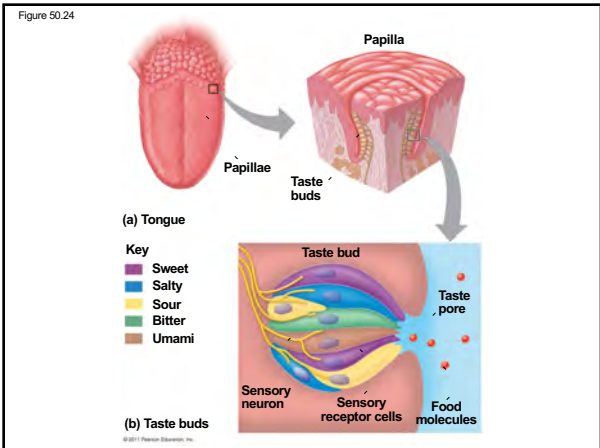


Figure 50.24a

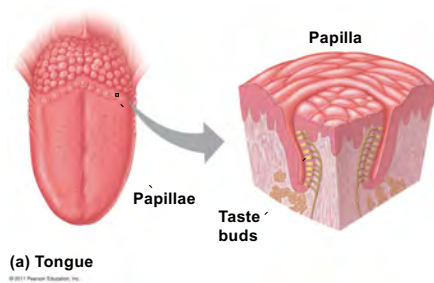
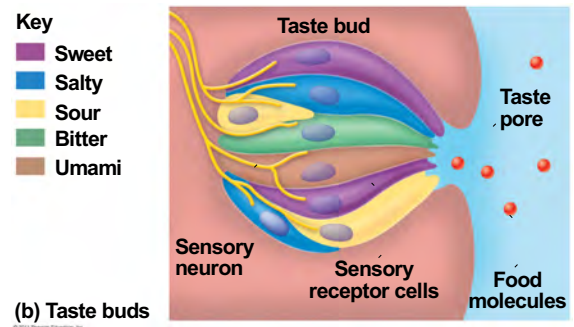


Figure 50.24b



Smell in Humans

- Olfactory receptor cells are neurons that line the upper portion of the nasal cavity
- Binding of odorant molecules to receptors triggers a signal transduction pathway, sending action potentials to the brain
- Humans can distinguish thousands of different odors
- Although receptors and brain pathways for taste and smell are independent, the two senses do interact

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