# The Influence of Physiology

By Amy Quarton

#### Discussion Questions

- What is the difference between philosophy and physiology?
- How did the study of decapitation contribute to the development of psychology in the 18th and 19th centuries?
- How did phrenology contribute to the development of psychology in the 19th century?
- How did physiologists' experiments contribute to the development of psychology in the 19th century?
- How did the study of nerve cells contribute to the development of psychology in the 19th century?

# What is the difference between philosophy and physiology?

### What is the difference between philosophy and physiology?

- Philosophy: The study of knowledge, existence, and reality
- Physiology: The study of how living organisms operate and how their body parts function

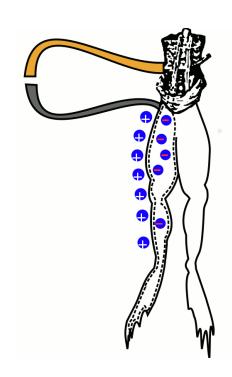




How did the study of decapitation contribute to the development of psychology in the 18th and 19th centuries?

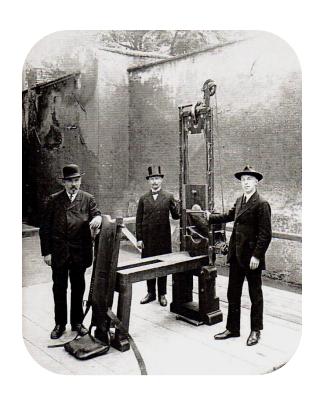
#### How did the study of decapitation contribute?

- A Scottish physician, Robert Whytt (1714-1766), adapted Luigi Galvini's method and inserted hot wires through the spines of decapitated frogs.
  - When the spine was destroyed, no amount of stimulation produced a response.
  - When the spine was intact, the legs responded to stimulation.
  - He concluded that the spinal cord is all that is needed for reflexes to occur.



### How did the study of decapitation contribute?

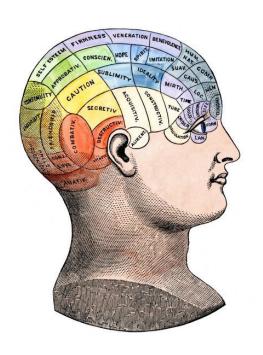
 A German physician and biologist, Theodor Bischoff (1807-1882), studied decapitated heads.



- The human heads were procured after execution by guillotine (shown here).
- He also collected the heads and embryos of dogs, guinea pigs, deer, foxes, and weasels.
- He concluded consciousness ends at death.

How did phrenology contribute to the development of psychology in the 19th century?

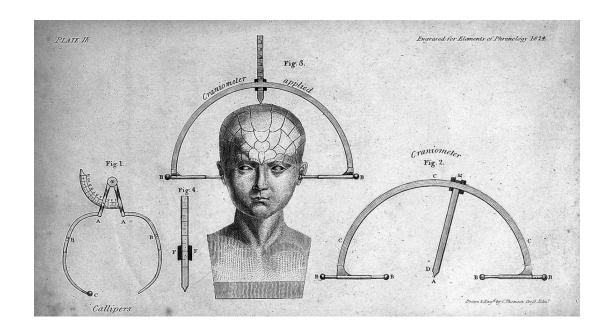
 In 1819, Franz Joseph Gall (1758-1828), a German physiologist, asserted that personality can be inferred from the bumps on the human skull.



- His ideas would later be known as phrenology.
- By feeling more than 100 skulls, he developed a map of 27 "fundamental faculties" or functions.

- Phrenologists believed:
  - Brain functions are localized very precisely within the brain.
  - Everyone has the same set of faculties, but there are individual differences in the strength of each one.
  - These faculties are inborn and fixed.
  - The "doctrine of the skull" says the strength of faculties can be inferred from skull shape.

 Other phrenologists created their own tools and techniques for measuring the geography of the skull, like this craniometer.



From George Combe (1828)

- What they got right:
  - Gall was right that different parts of the brain do indeed have different functions.

- What they got wrong:
  - The doctrine of the skull
  - The map of 27 functions
  - Their reliance on anecdotal evidence, which overlooks nonsupporting cases





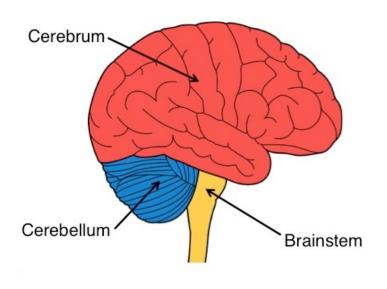
- Physiologists soon found evidence to disprove it, but phrenology remained popular until the 1840s.
  - In the early 1800s, Johann Spurzheim, a German physician, and George Combe, a Scottish lawyer, popularized phrenology in Europe and the USA.
  - Unlike Gall, Spurzheim said faculties could be shaped by early experiences, which was consistent with the American ideal that anyone can reach their goals.

How did physiologists' experiments contribute to the development of psychology in the 19th century?

- In 1815, a French physiologist, Jean Pierre Flourens (1794-1867), pioneered the use of localized brain lesions in rabbits and pigeons.
- His work supported the localization of function.
  - It provided scientific evidence to refute phrenologists' untested claims.



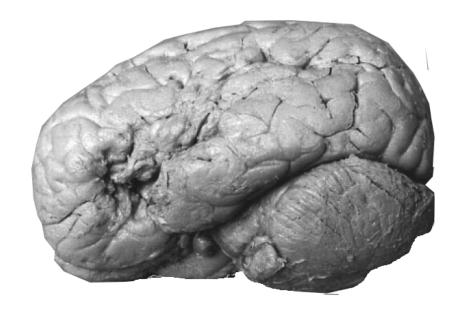
 Flourens surgically damaged brain tissue (method of ablation) and observed the effects.



- When the cerebrum was damaged, the animal struggled with perception.
- When the cerebellum was damaged, the animal struggled to coordinate its movements.
- When the brainstem was damaged, the animal died.

- Years later, in 1861, a French physician, Pierre Paul Broca (1824-1880), studied the brain of a patient with motor aphasia, the inability to speak.
  - His patient, Tan, could comprehend others' speech, but he was only able to say the word "tan".
  - After a natural death, Broca examined Tan's brain and found brain damage.
  - This is known as the clinical method.

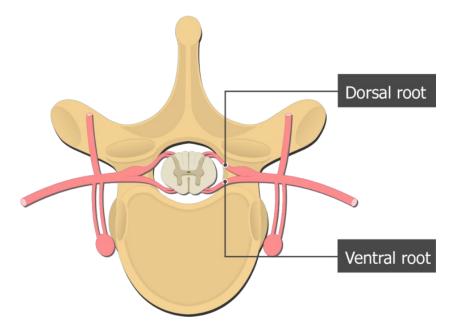
 Broca concluded that the ability to produce speech was localized in the left frontal lobe, an area now known as Broca's area.



An image of Tan's brain

- François Magendie (1795-1855), a French physiologist, experimented with spinal cord lesions in puppies.
  - When he cut the dorsal/posterior root, the puppies could move their legs but could not feel pinches.
  - When he cut the ventral/anterior root, the puppies could not move their legs but could feel pinches.

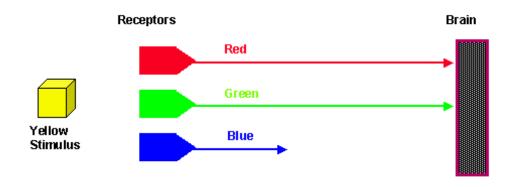
- Magendie and Sir Charles Bell created the Bell-Magendie law:
  - Sensory information enters the spinal cord through the dorsal/posterior roots.
  - Movement information leaves the spinal cord through the ventral/anterior roots.



- Hermann von Helmholtz (1821-1894) was a German physician and physicist.
- He researched a variety of topics (e.g., seeing, hearing, and feeling) and contributed numerous publications to the field of physiology.
- He also taught Wilhelm Wundt, the father of experimental psychology.

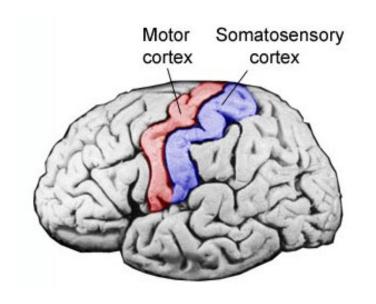
- Helmholtz studied the speed of neural impulse and contributed to the widespread use of reaction time as a method in psychology.
  - He tried to determine how quickly nerve impulses travel by experimenting with frogs and humans.
  - He tested frog muscles and gathered rates of about 30 meters (90 feet) per second.
  - He tested skin reactance in humans and gathered rates of about 60 meters (180 feet) per second.

- Helmholtz also studied visual perception and invented the ophthalmoscope.
  - He (and James Maxwell) found they could create any color by mixing red, green, and blue light.
  - They concluded humans have three kinds of nerve fibers that respond to the three primary colors.

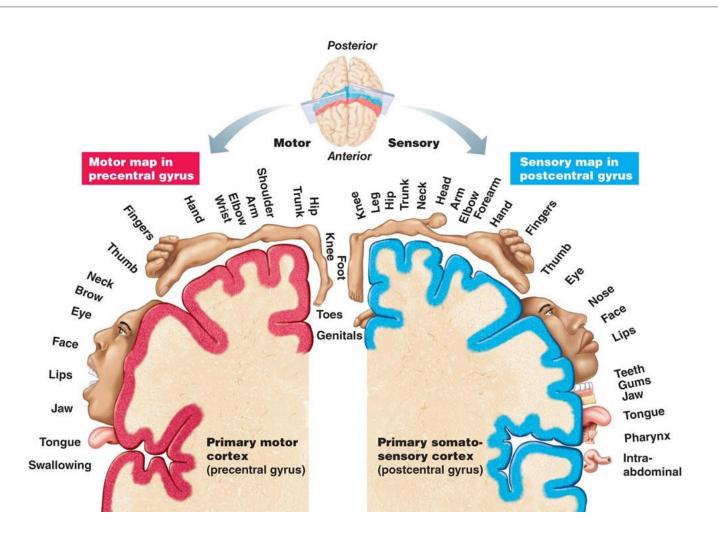


- Thomas Young made the same discovery at about the same time.
  - Thus, the theory is known as Young-Helmholtz trichromatic theory of color vision.
  - Note that Maxwell is not credited in the name of the theory.
  - This is an example of a multiple.

- In the late 1800s, two German physicians, Gustav Fritsch (1839-1927) and Eduard Hitzig (1838-1907), used electricity to map brain functions.
- Their work provided the first experimental evidence that the motor cortex is responsible for voluntary movement.



- They restrained live dogs, cut away their skulls to expose their brains, and stimulated different parts of the cerebrum using batteries.
  - When they touched one part of the motor cortex, the feet moved.
  - When they touched another part, the tail moved.
  - When they touched yet another part of the cortex, the tongue moved.

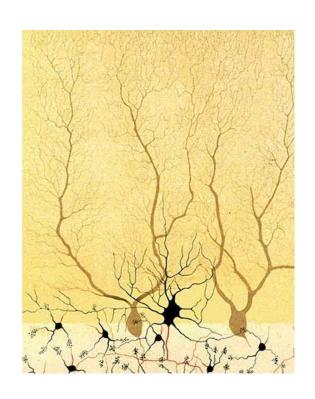


How the study of nerve cells contribute to the development of psychology in the 19th century?

- The first microscope was made in 1590, and researchers could see bacteria as early as 1675.
- In the 1800s, technological advancements allowed scientists to "see" things they had never seen before, including nerve cells.



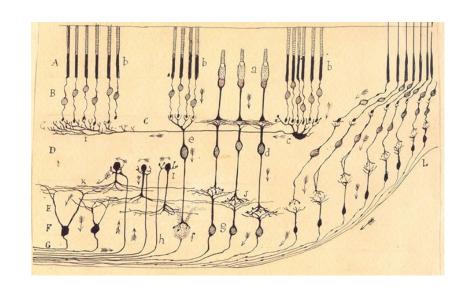
Charles Darwin's microscope made in 1847



Golgi's illustration of a brain cell (1882-83)

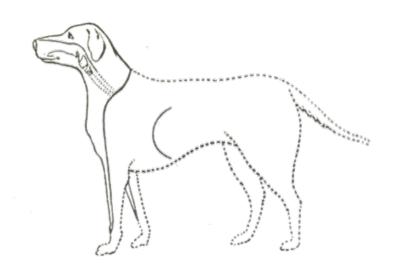
- In 1873, Camillo Golgi
  (1843-1926), an Italian
  biologist and pathologist,
  created a staining
  technique using silver
  nitrate.
  - He was then able to reveal the structure of nerve cells.

- Santiago Ramón y Cajal (1852-1934), a Spanish neuroscientist and pathologist, suggested there must be a "space" between nerve cells.
- In 1906, he and Golgi shared the Nobel Prize for establishing the neuron as the basic unit of the nervous system.



Cajal's drawing of cells in the retina

- Sir Charles Scott Sherrington (1857-1952) was an English neurophysiologist.
- He studied "spinal dogs" who had their spinal cords partially cut from their brains.



Sherrington's figure (1906)

- Their reflexes were more pronounced than those of intact dogs.
- He concluded the cortex had an inhibitory effect on reflexes.

- Sherrington published *The Integrative Action of the Nervous System* in 1906 to explain how the nervous system coordinates the body parts and organs into a unified whole.
  - Reflexes are the simplest unit of nervous integration.
  - Complex behaviors are the result of reflexes chained together in a sequence (reflex chaining).
  - The synaptein (or synapse) is the site where basic reflexes interact to create more complex behavior.

- He also predicted the presence of neurotransmitters, the chemicals that cross the synapse to promote or inhibit neuron firing.
- In 1932, he won a Nobel Prize with Edgar Adrian for their work on the functions of neurons.

