
Cognitive Neuroscience

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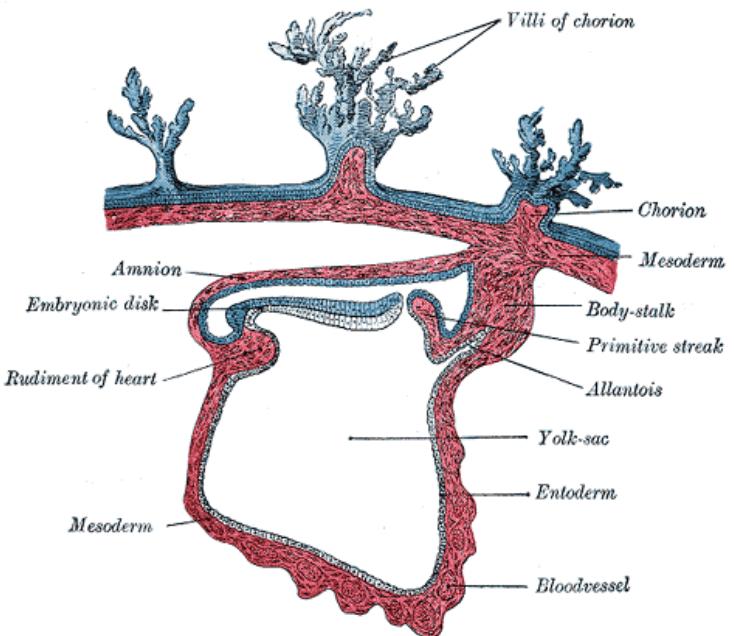
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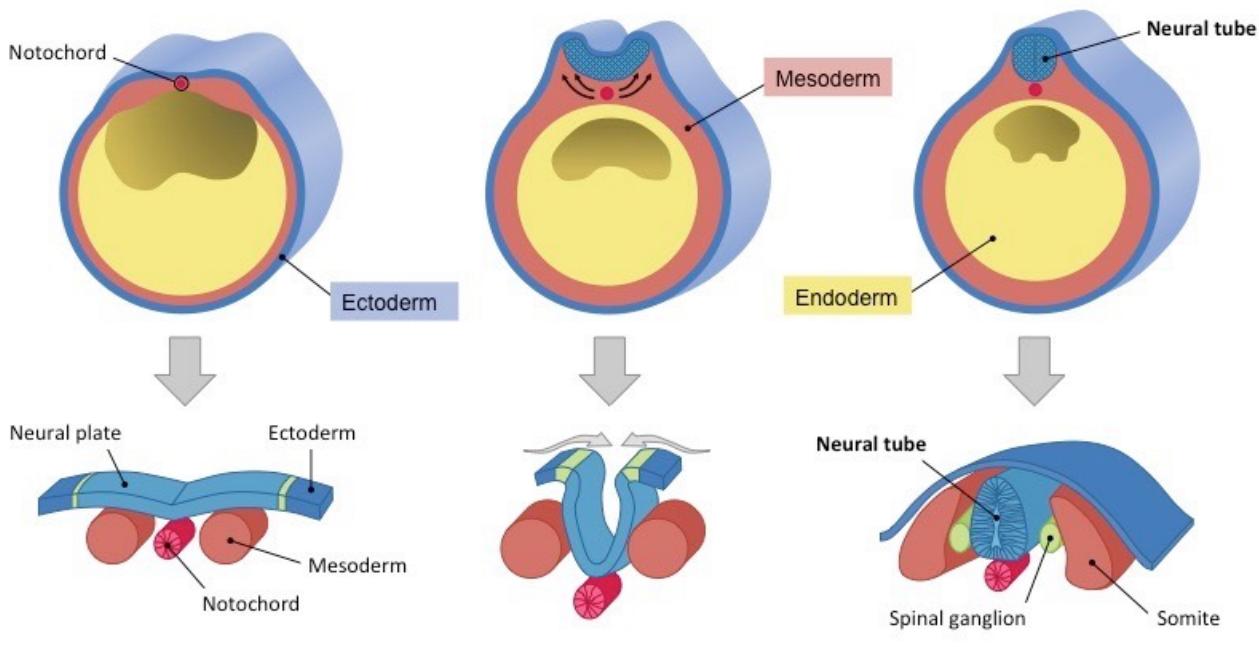
// Early brain development

- ovulation happens on the 14th day of the menstrual cycle
 - fertilised egg travels for a week before implanting into the uterus
 - during the process, a lot of cell division happens
 - **morula**: 16-32 cells
 - liquid accumulates inside, forming the **blastocyst**

- the blastocyst implants itself into the uterine wall
 - before implantation, the inner cell mass begins to transform into two distinct epithelial layers
 - they form the **bilaminar embryonic disc**
 - the embryo forms from the **epiblast** (dorsal layer)
 - extra-embryonic structures form from the **hypoblast** (ventral layer)
 - the embryonic disc is sandwiched between two balloons: the primitive yolk sac and the amniotic cavity

- **gastrulation**: cell movements that reorganise the single-layered blastula into a the gastrula: a trilaminar structure (endoderm, mesoderm, ectoderm)
 - epiblast cells get internalised to form the germ layers
 - the **ectoderm** forms the skin and nervous system
 - the **mesoderm** forms muscle, bone and cartilage, the circulatory system, the urogenital system
 - the **endoderm** forms the respiratory and digestive systems
- **neurulation**: neuroectodermal tissue differentiates from the ectoderm and thickens into the neural plate, leading to the formation of the neural tube (precursor to the CNS)
 - the **notochord** is also derived from mesoderm cells
 - it is a site of muscle attachment, a vertebral precursor, and a midline tissue that provides signals to surrounding tissue during development
 - **somites**: surrounding structures from the mesoderm that will form the vertebrae and skeletal muscle
- **sonic hedgehog (SHH)**: a protein originating from the notochord that helps pattern the dorsal-ventral axis of the neural tube
 - it is a **morphogen**: a substance whose non-uniform distribution governs tissue patterning
 - has different effects on the cells of the developing embryo depending on its concentration
 - **bone morphogenetic protein (BMP-4)**: similar to Shh, forming a gradient from the dorsal part (roof plate) rather than ventral part (floor plate) of the neural tube
 - during early development, inhibition of BMP signalling differentiates neuroectoderm from ectoderm





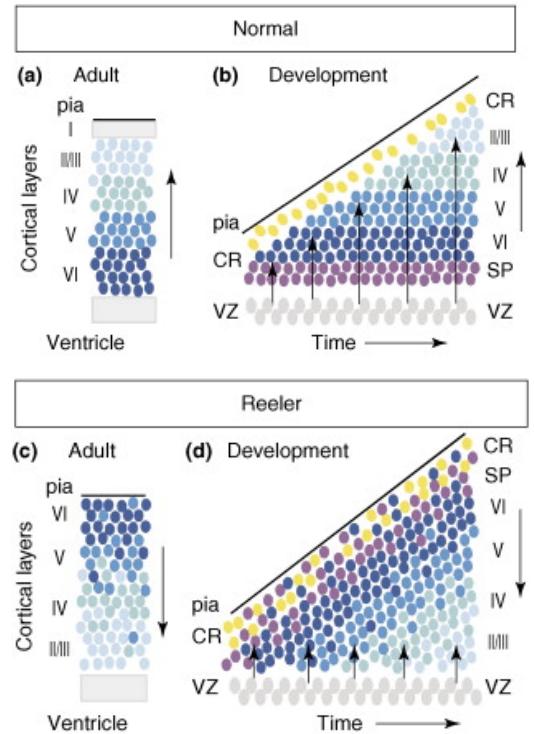
1. Notochord forms from mesoderm cells soon after gastrulation is complete

2. Signals from notochord cause inward folding of ectoderm at the neural plate

3. Ends of neural plate fuse and disconnect to form an autonomous neural tube

- most highly concentrated BMP areas become the **alar plate** of the spinal cord (sensory neurons)
 - concentrated SHH areas become the **basal plate** (motor neurons)
- as the neural tube continues developing at the most anterior part, there's an early stage of three vesicles
 - **prosencephalon** (forebrain), **mesencephalon** (midbrain), **rhombencephalon** (hindbrain)
 - later development:
 - **forebrain:** telencephalon (cerebrum, olfactory lobes, hippocampus), diencephalon (optic vesicle, thalamus, hypothalamus)
 - also in limbic system: amygdala (emotion), hippocampus (memories)
 - basal ganglia: at base of forebrain; one of the nuclei is the striatum
 - the putamen and caudate nucleus form the dorsal striatum
 - **midbrain:** mesencephalon (substantia nigra & Parkinson's, fibre tracts between anterior & posterior brain)
 - **hindbrain:** metencephalon (pons & cerebellum), myelencephalon (medulla)
- **fibroblast growth factor (Fgf):** morphogen at the most anterior/rostral part of the brain
 - the 3D combination of expression of different molecules (Fgf, Wnt/Bmp, SHH) helps establish the differentiation of neurons (their identity and where they project to)
- generation of neurons tends to happen in the ventricles (most interior part of neural tube)
 - they migrate to different cell layers using **radial glia scaffolding**
 - radial glial cells are bipolar-shaped cells whose fibres extend radially
 - they also serve as primary progenitor cells, generating neurons, astrocytes, and oligodendrocytes
- the neocortex is formed of six layers of neurons
 - it has an **inside-out** development: early neurons are located in deeper layers
 - later neurons migrate across them to reach upper layers
 - the upper layers end up being involved in intra-cortical communication and connections

- species with extended periods of cortical development end up with more neurons on the outside, resulting in gyration
- cells that migrate via glia scaffolding are:
 - projecting / glutamatergic neurons
 - glutamate is the brain's most prominent neurotransmitter
 - pyramidal cells
 - excitatory in the neocortex
- there are also neurons that undergo **tangential migration**
 - **interneurons** / inhibitory cells
 - express GABA instead of glutamate
 - GABA is the brain's main inhibitory neurotransmitter
 - usually don't project in a long range
 - form local circuits
 - aren't produced in cortex
 - generated at the bottom of the forebrain, in **ganglionic eminences**
 - migrate tangentially to terminate in the different layers of the cortex
 - cholinergic neurons (producing ACh; found even lower in forebrain) migrate tangentially as well



- **transitory cells:** there is a *transient* population of neurons that helps pattern the cortex
 - disorders in the production of these cells disrupt the proper organisation of the brain
 - e.g., Cajal-Retzius (CR) cells produce **Reelin** in the pial (external) surface, which is important for inside-out development in the cerebral cortex
 - Reelin mutants show an inverted, outside-in development
- **axon guidance:** navigation of the axon as it grows to a very precise location
 - brain circuits are highly specific, and regulated during development
 - there are both negative and positive signals in axon guidance
- **growth cone:** the very tip of the axon
 - a motile structure, constantly moving and sensing the environment
 - has a central and a peripheral domain
 - expression of different proteins helps it navigate
 - microtubules in central domain and actin filaments in the peripheral domain
- movement / steering of the growth cone is the result of **asymmetric** modification of microtubules
 - receptors in the growth cone membrane respond to repulsive or attractive cues
 - receptors transduce the signal, dictating whether proteins should elongate or shorten the microtubules
- there are many different kinds of cues in axon guidance
 - **extracellular matrix adhesion**
 - a group of proteins forms a matrix
 - as the growth cone navigates, it adheres to the matrix to receive a signal

- **cell surface adhesion**
 - a population of cells in surrounding tissue has membranes with signals
 - growth cone attaches to the surface of the cells
- **fasciculation**
 - the growth cone associates with an axon that has already been formed (**pioneer neuron**)
- **chemoattraction & chemorepulsion**
 - molecules secreted from cells guide the growth cone
- **contact inhibition**
 - like cell surface adhesion, but the growth cone is repulsed
- the formation of the corpus callosum exhibits the use of different cues
 - cerebral cortex neurons fasciculate along pioneer axons to cross onto the other cortex
 - glial cells express chemo-repellent and chemo-attractive molecules
- **electrical activity** plays a role in the formation and development of circuits in the brain
 - that is why substances affecting electrical activity (e.g., alcohol, epilepsy medication) affect the development of a fetus when a mother consumes them
- Spitzer (2006): **calcium spikes** affect the **differentiation** of neurons
 - suppressing the production of spontaneous Ca spikes results in the body compensating by increasing the number of neurons expressing excitatory transmitters, and decreasing the number of neurons expressing inhibitory transmitters
 - increasing the frequency of Ca spikes reverses the effect, making neurons inhibitory where they should have been excitatory
- Mire et al. (2012): removed thalamus cells and grew them *in vitro*
 - observed **axonal growth**
 - spontaneously adding potassium chloride increased neuron activity since it helped depolarise the cells
 - this resulted in longer axons
 - the **Kir2.1** gene codes for a potassium channel that works as a silencer
 - its presence makes the axons much shorter
- Yamada et al. (2010): **axonal branching** is also disrupted when spontaneous activity is silenced
- Ming et al. (2001): electrical activity affects **growth-cone response** to guidance cues
 - **Netrin** is known to be a chemorepellent
 - electrical activity can make the growth cone treat it like a chemoattractant
 - therefore, no molecule has the intrinsic quality of being a repellent or attractant
 - everything depends on the situation

// Postnatal brain development

- one of the first things that happens in the brain of a baby is the **proliferation** of neurons
 - neurons then **migrate** and position themselves in their respective layers
 - **synaptogenesis**: neurons extend their axons and establish synaptic contacts
 - there is an initial **exuberance** (overproduction) of synapses
 - the weakest, least-used synapses are **pruned**
 - e.g., babies initially have poor vision and difficulty focusing their eyes
 - during the first few months, they start focusing more and fixating their gaze

- the result of refinement of connections (pruning) in the visual system
- the **gray/white matter** volume ratio decreases during childhood and adolescence
 - however, gray matter density actually increases
 - there is not a loss of gray matter; the neuron bodies simply become more packed together
- synapse formation and plasticity involve **structural remodelling** of both axonal boutons and dendritic spines
 - when synapses are very active, the involved structures will grow and become very established
 - when synapses are not active, the structures will recede and be eliminated
- during the formation of brain circuits, there is initial activity that is not necessarily functional
 - e.g., flexor and extensor muscles have to alternate activation to allow movement
 - we have to learn to coordinate the muscles
 - while the embryo is developing, before you can even see movement, there are signs of muscle activation
 - at first, the muscles are activated at the same time, setting base for muscle development
 - as the motor circuits mature, the muscles start to activate alternatively
- the visual cortex receives thalamic input corresponding to each eye in an alternating pattern
 - the **lateral geniculate nucleus (LGN)** is a relay centre in the **thalamus** for the visual pathway
 - it receives major sensory input from the retina
 - it is the central connection for the optic nerve to the occipital lobe (particularly the primary visual cortex)
- **ocular dominance columns:** stripes of neurons in the visual cortex that respond preferentially to input from one eye over the other
 - the development of these ocular columns depends on early visual experience
 - monocular deprivation causes the columns to degrade
 - the non-deprived eye assumes control of more of the cortical cells
 - after 6 weeks post-birth, however, monocular deprivation does not have any effect since the columns have already been strongly established
- Penn et al. (1998) inhibited electrical activity in developing eyes to understand the mechanism behind the termination of axons in ocular columns
 - found that electrical activity is very relevant for the formation of the circuits
 - since the eyes are competing for reaching the LGN, if one eye is deprived, the second eye will take over the first's regions
 - inhibiting activity in both eyes results in more overlapping
- in the developing eye, there are spontaneous waves of activity moving from one side to the other
 - Xu et al. (2011) introduced a mutation in mice that affected the **coordinated response** of neurons
 - inhibited the propagation of the wave without affecting the firing of individual neurons
 - they found that this inhibition strongly affects the formation of distinct regions in the LGN
 - leads to much more overlapping of axons between one eye and the other
- when **oscillations** exhibit high frequency activity, the number of cycles per second is high
 - e.g., 10 cycles per second = 10Hz
 - the **gamma** range of frequencies is roughly between 30-50Hz

- related to perception
 - if a participant is exposed to an ambiguous image (a blurry shadow), then has a percept (sees the face of a lady), there is an increase in gamma activity
- during the first week of postnatal development, there is a lot of gamma activity in the brain
 - this activity of fast gamma oscillations is important for establishing circuits in the cortex
- Suarez et al. (2014): the importance of **balanced cortical activity** for the correct targeting of the **corpus callosum**
 - removing whiskers from one side of a mouse's face leads to axon projections not forming
 - when removing whiskers from both sides, the projections were formed again
 - it's not necessarily the amount of activity that is important, but the fact that both sides are receiving similar amounts of activity
 - as long as the two hemispheres receive the same treatment, connections will form
- follow-up experiment removed whiskers in either a symmetrical or asymmetrical manner
 - e.g. only upper rows of whiskers in both sides, or upper row in one side and lower in the other
 - asymmetrical cauterisation lead to projections not forming
 - symmetrical cauterisation allowed for projection
 - means that activity between hemispheres is being compared somehow
 - when both are similar, circuits are formed normally
- **Hebbian plasticity**: cells that fire together wire together
 - strength of synaptic connections depends on the synchrony of two neurons' action potentials
- in the cortex, there is an organisation of the sensory fields that corresponds to the **spatial organisation** of the fingers
 - that representation is plastic
 - overstimulation of fingers 2&3 (below) leads to a larger part of the cortex being dedicated to receiving input from those fingers
 - under-stimulation leads to a loss of representation
- interesting: for blind people who learn to read with their fingers, you find a large part of the touch system represented in the visual cortex
 - demonstration of rearrangement of the wiring of the brain based on the input that it receives

