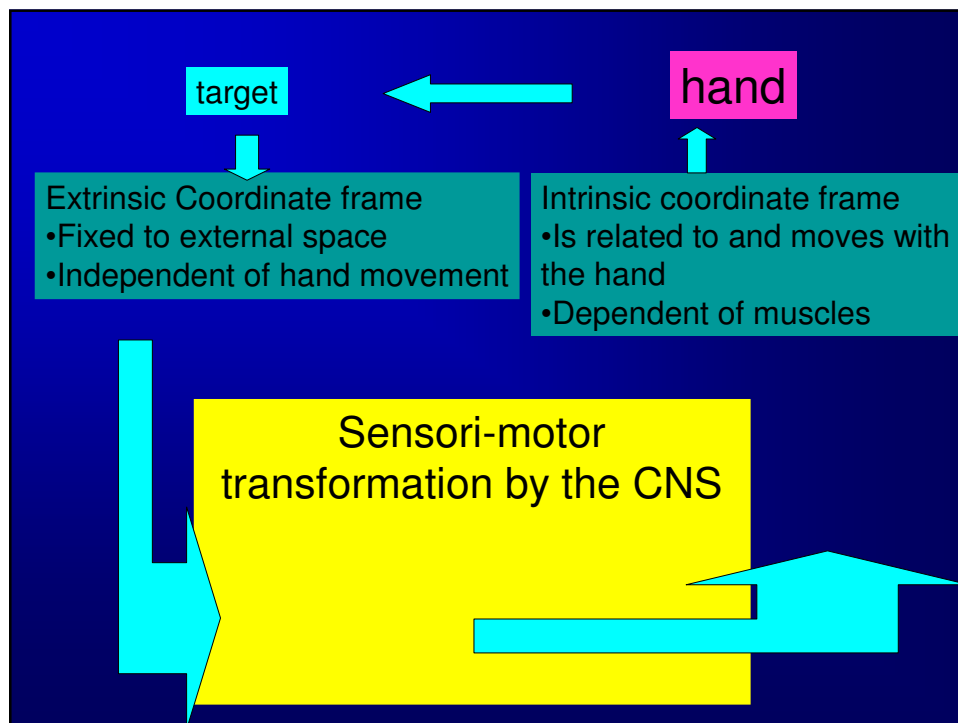


**Objectives**  
**Neurophysiology of brain area related to movement and motor control**

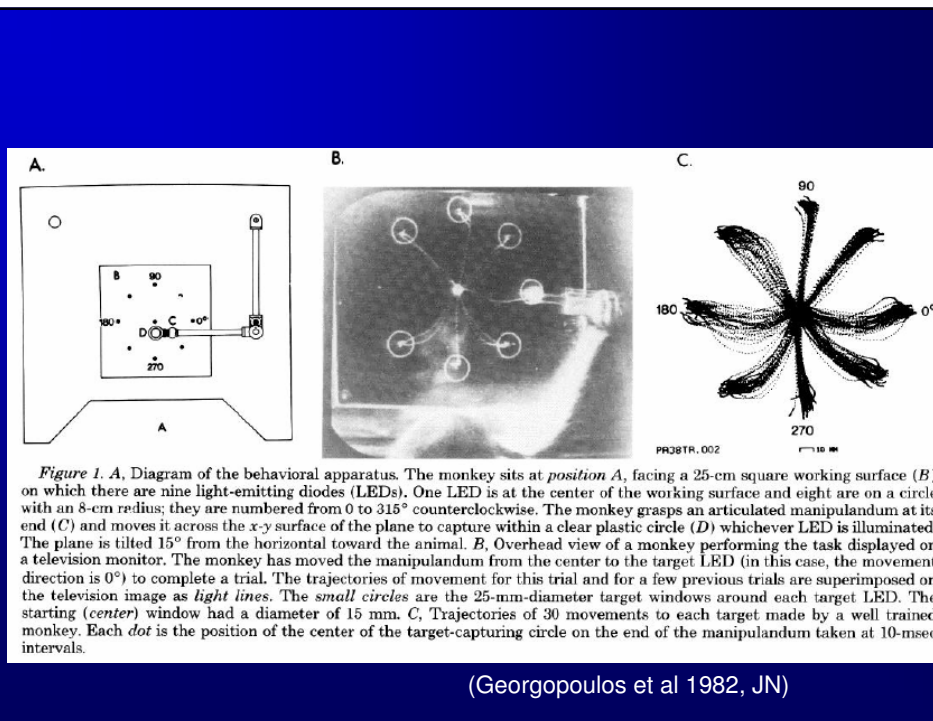
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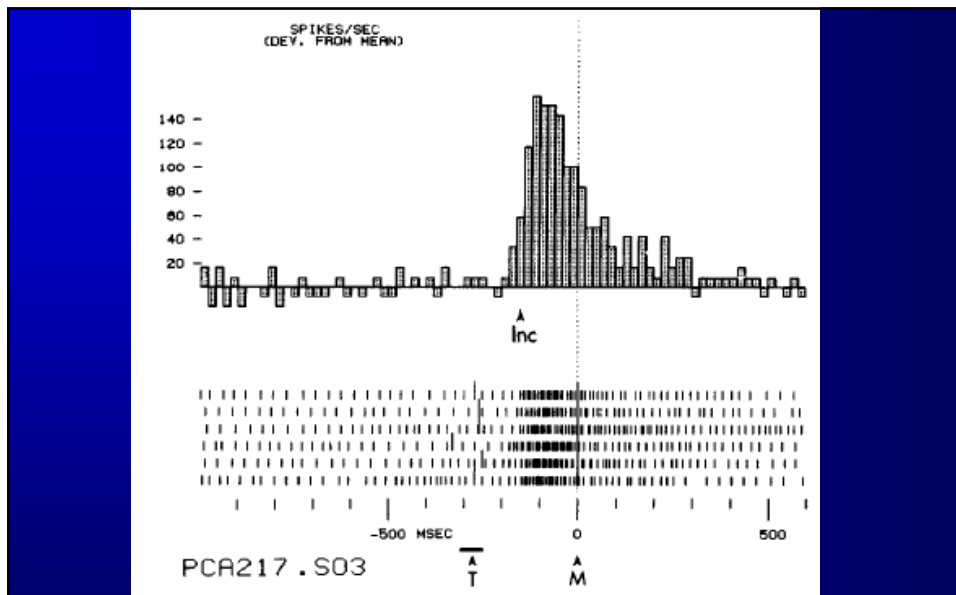


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Example of the determination of the timing of the first change in neuronal activity. Impulse activity was recorded from a single neuron during 6 movements toward the same target and is displayed as a raster (bottom) and as a perievent histogram (top). All trials and the histogram are oriented to the onset of movement. (Georgopoulos et al 1982, JN)

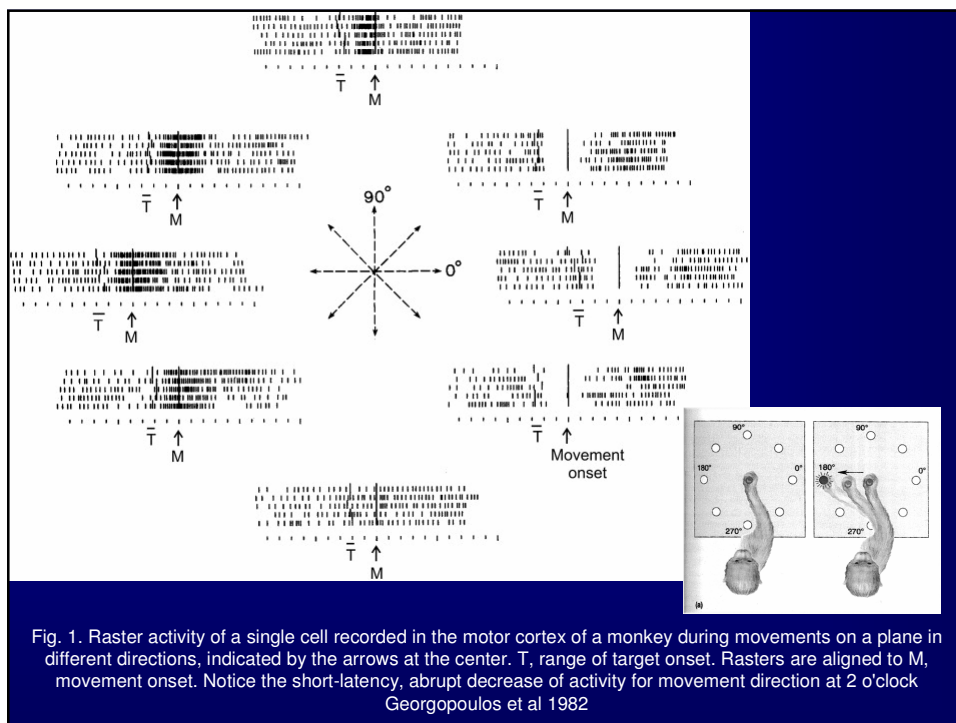
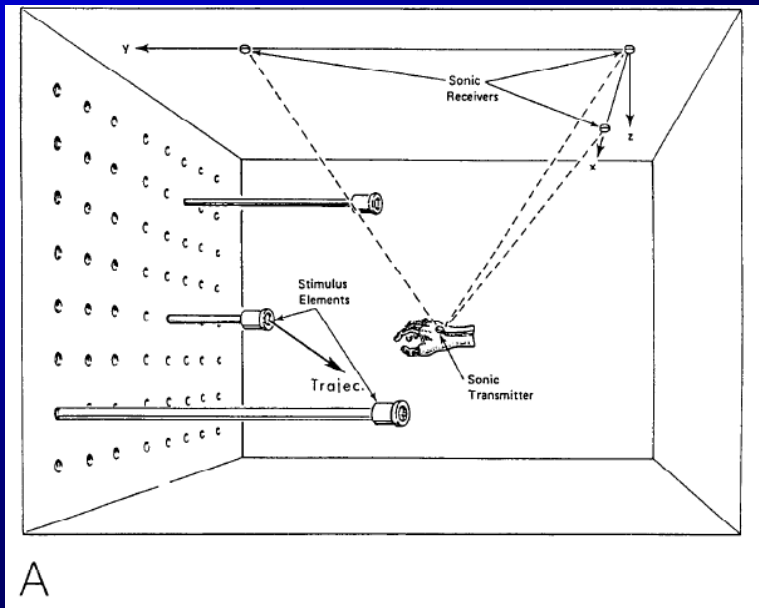
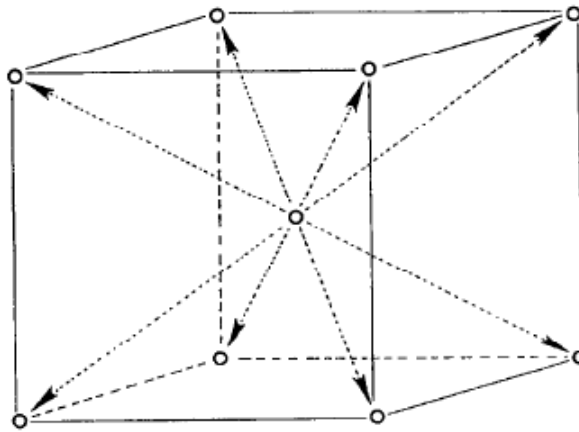


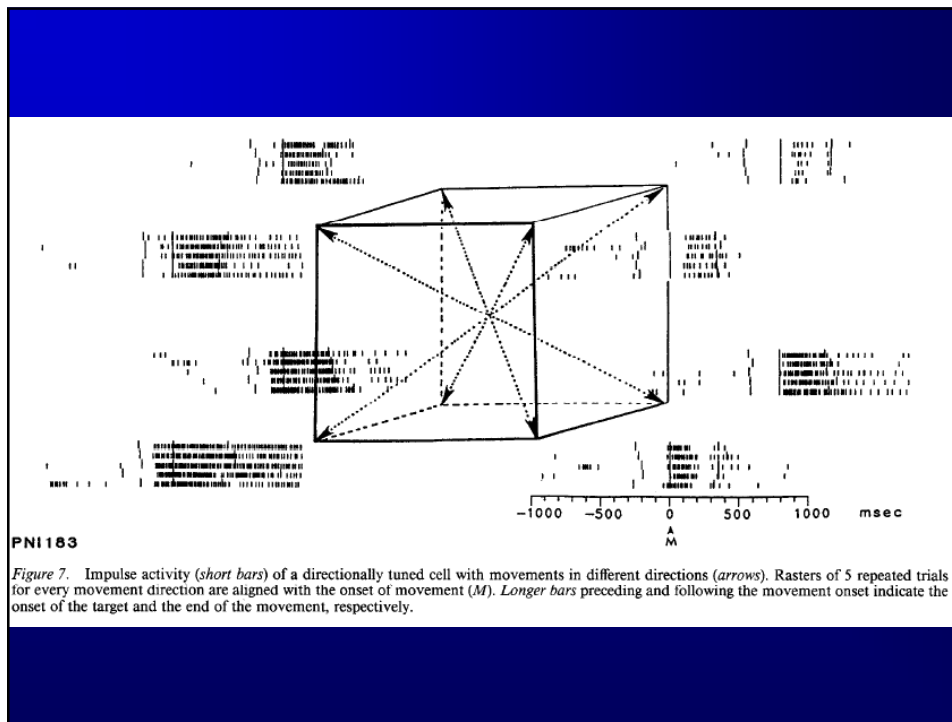
Fig. 1. Raster activity of a single cell recorded in the motor cortex of a monkey during movements on a plane in different directions, indicated by the arrows at the center. T, range of target onset. Rasters are aligned to M, movement onset. Notice the short-latency, abrupt decrease of activity for movement direction at 2 o'clock  
Georgopoulos et al 1982



A



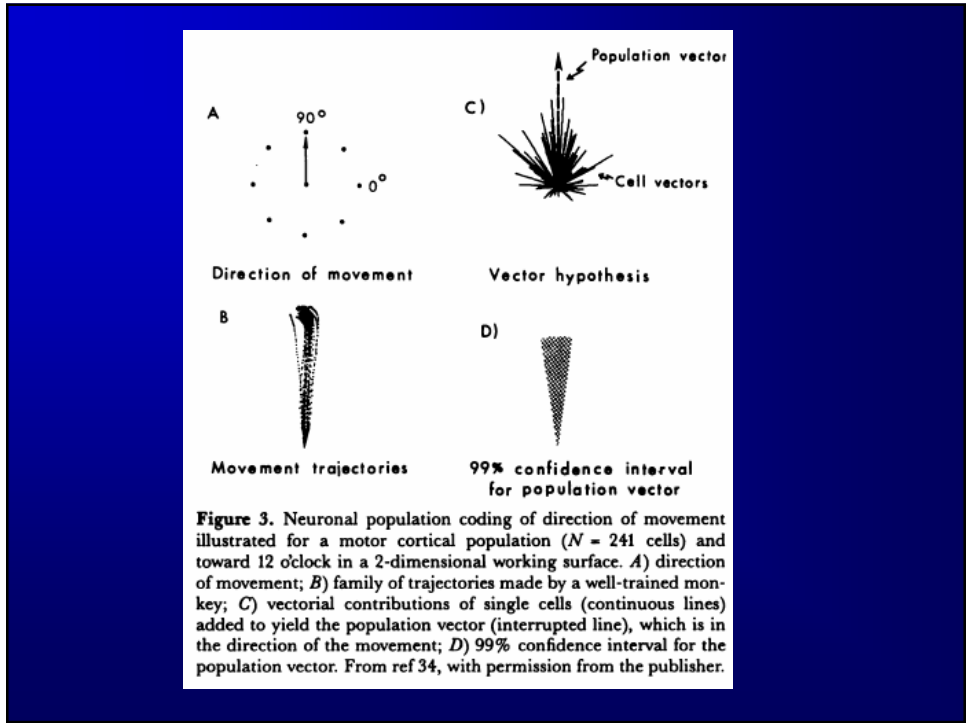
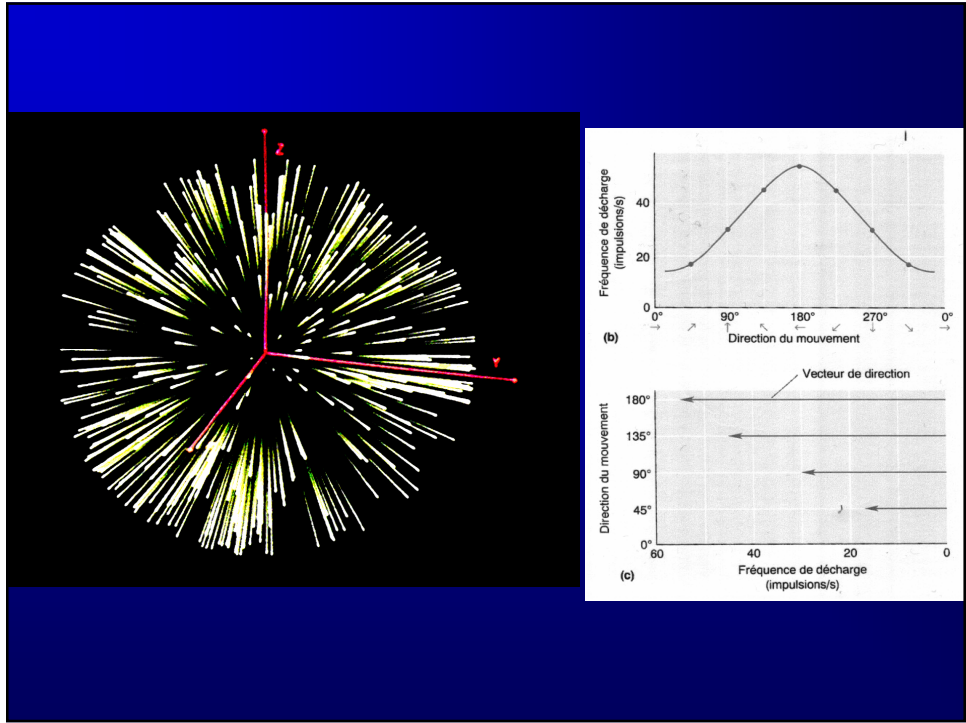
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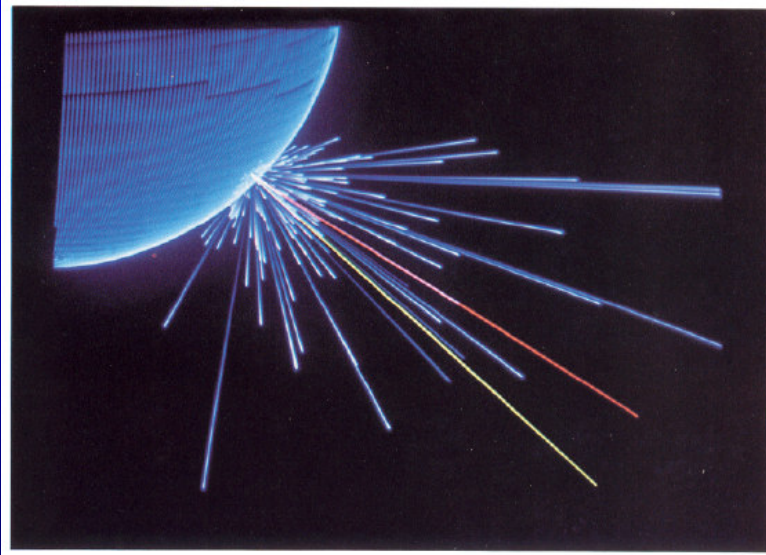


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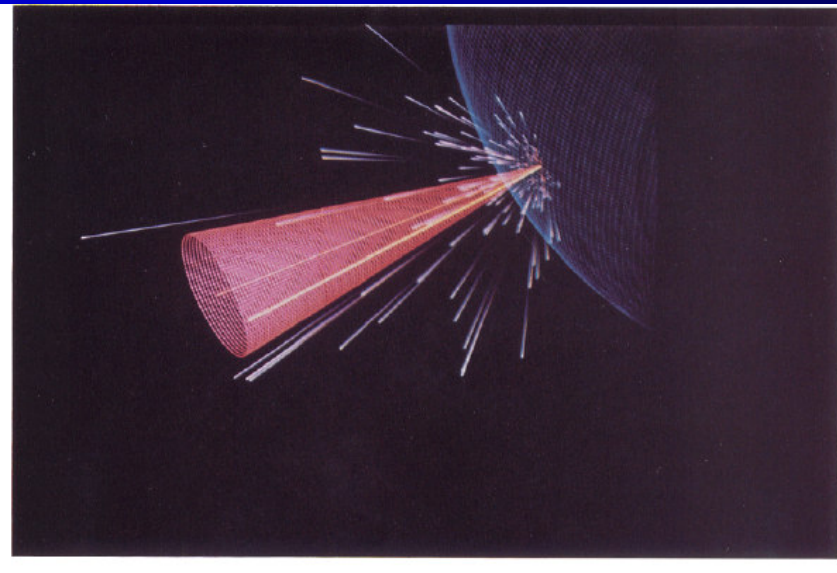
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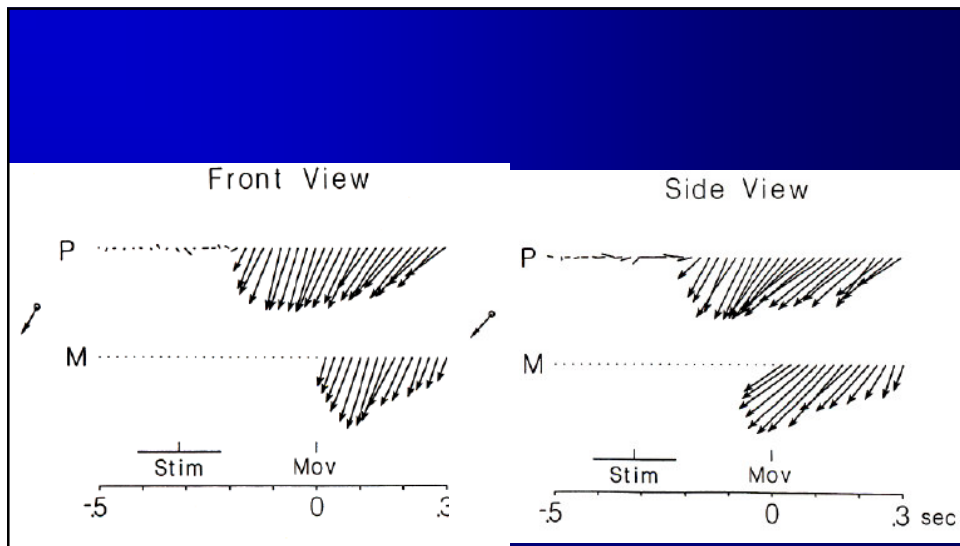


An example of population coding of movement direction. The blue lines represent the vectorial contributions of individual cells in the population ( $N = 475$ ). The movement direction is in yellow and the direction of the population vector in red.



A 95% directional variability cone around the population vector (red). The population is the same as in Figure 1, but the movement direction (yellow) is different





Evolution of the population vector in time. Front and side views of time series of population (P) and movement (M) vectors are shown. Population and movement vectors are normalized relative to their respective maximum. Movement vectors are averages from one animal. STZM, onset of target light; MOV, onset of movement

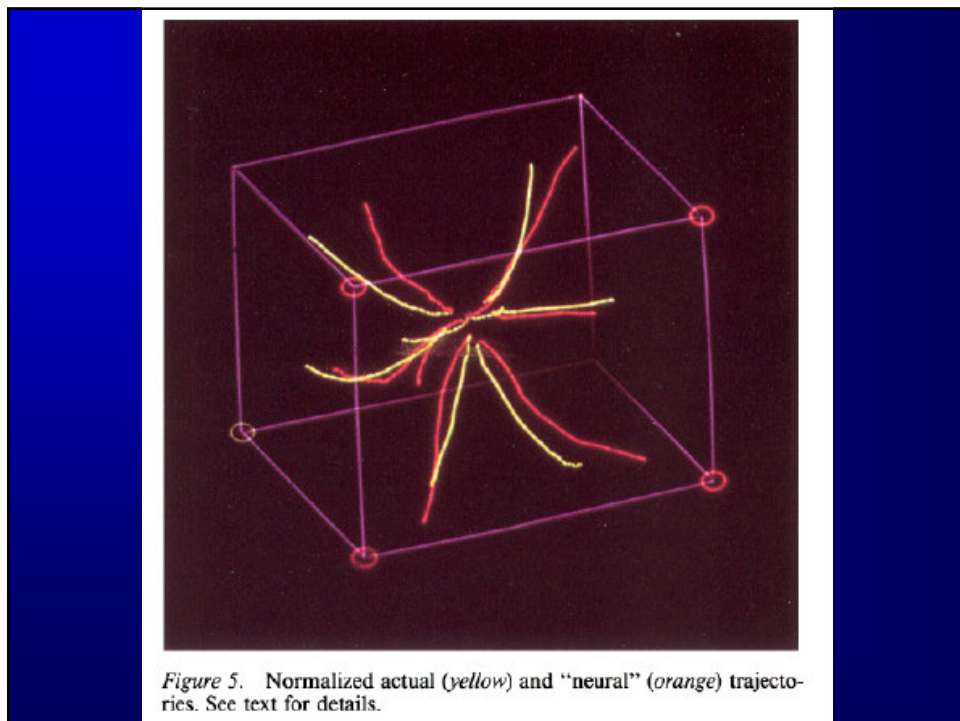


Figure 5. Normalized actual (yellow) and "neural" (orange) trajectories. See text for details.



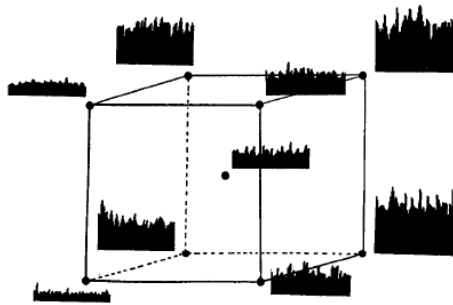
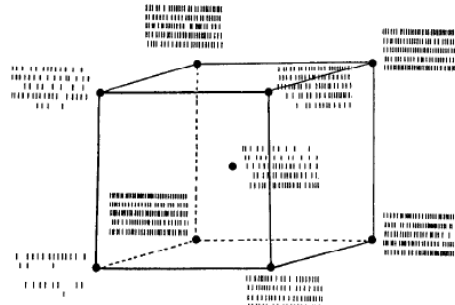


Figure 2. EMG activity of acromiodeltoid muscle during holding of the hand at positions indicated. Each histogram is an average of 8 trials and is 0.5 sec long.



Pni015

Figure 3. Impulse activity (5 trials) of a cell during holding of the hand at positions indicated. Each trace is 0.6 sec long.

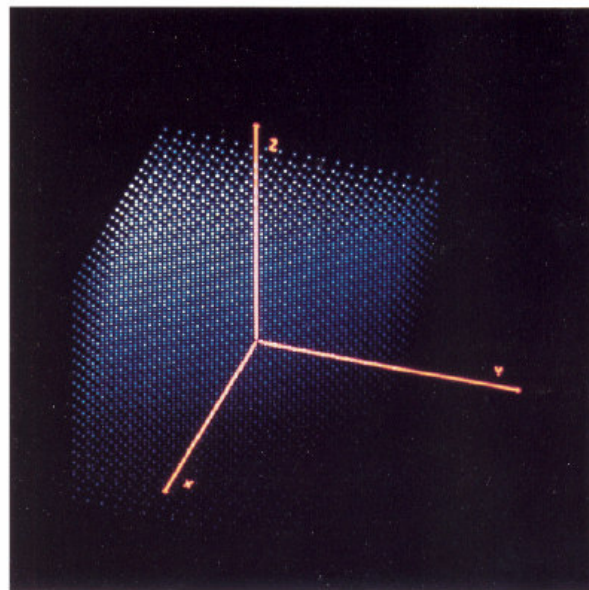
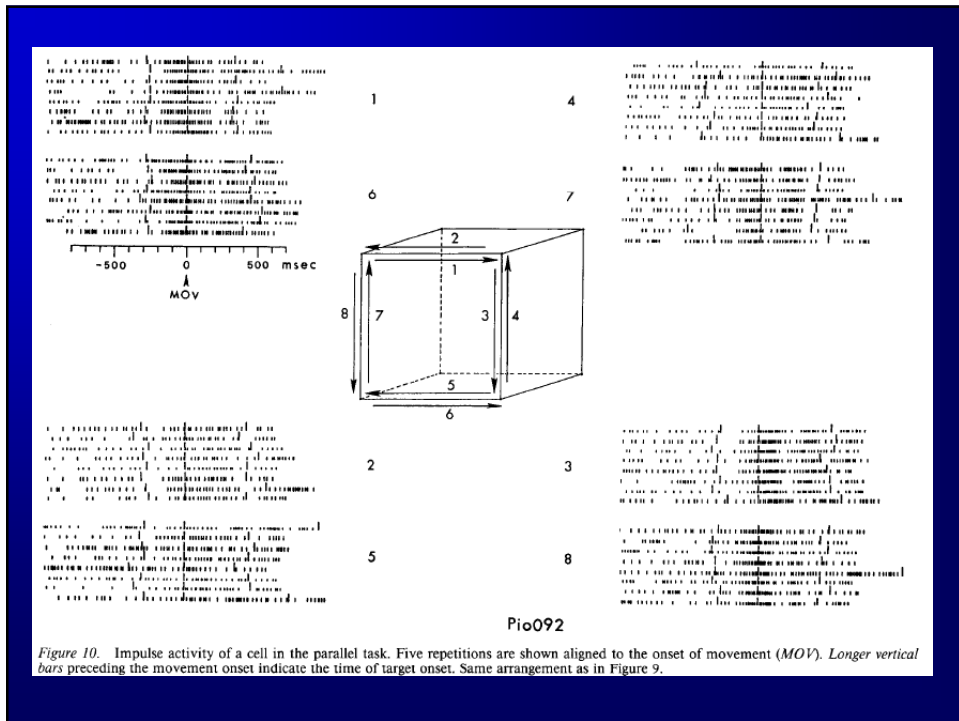
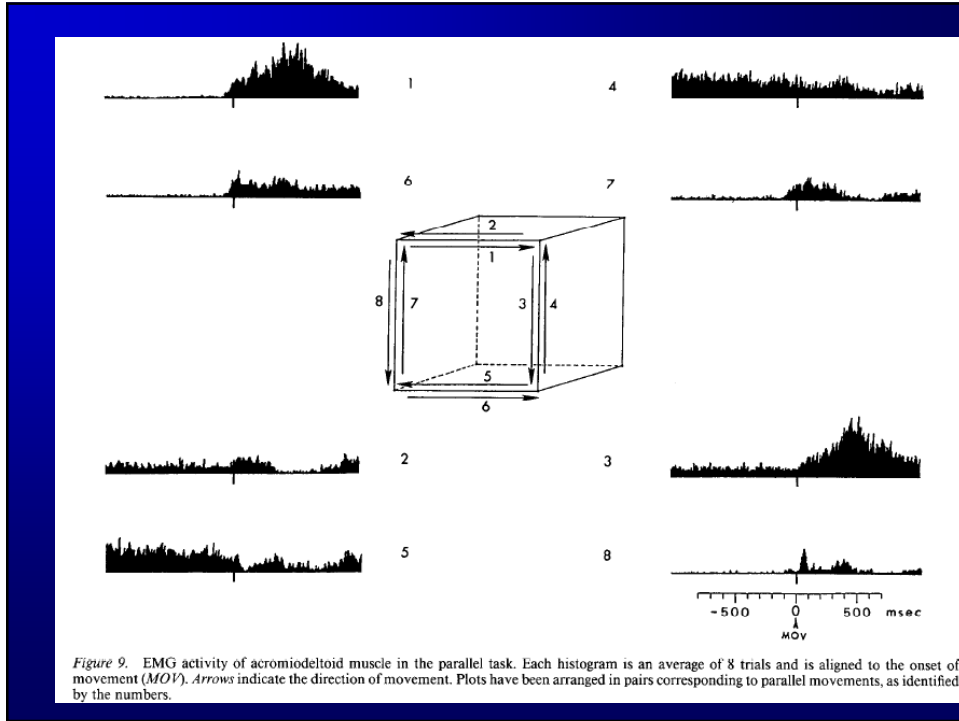
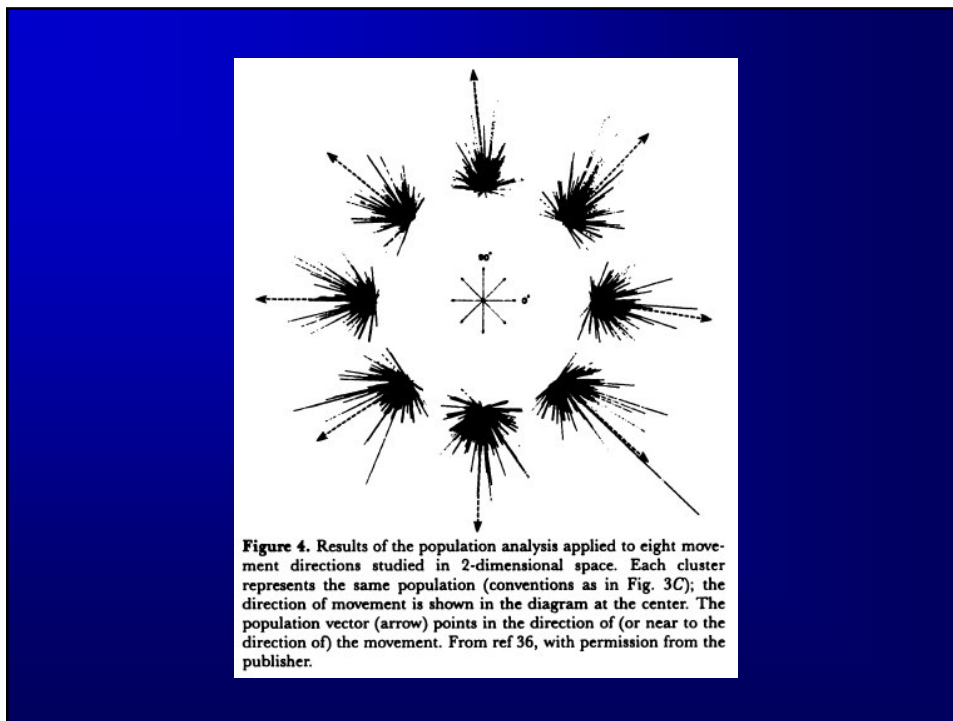
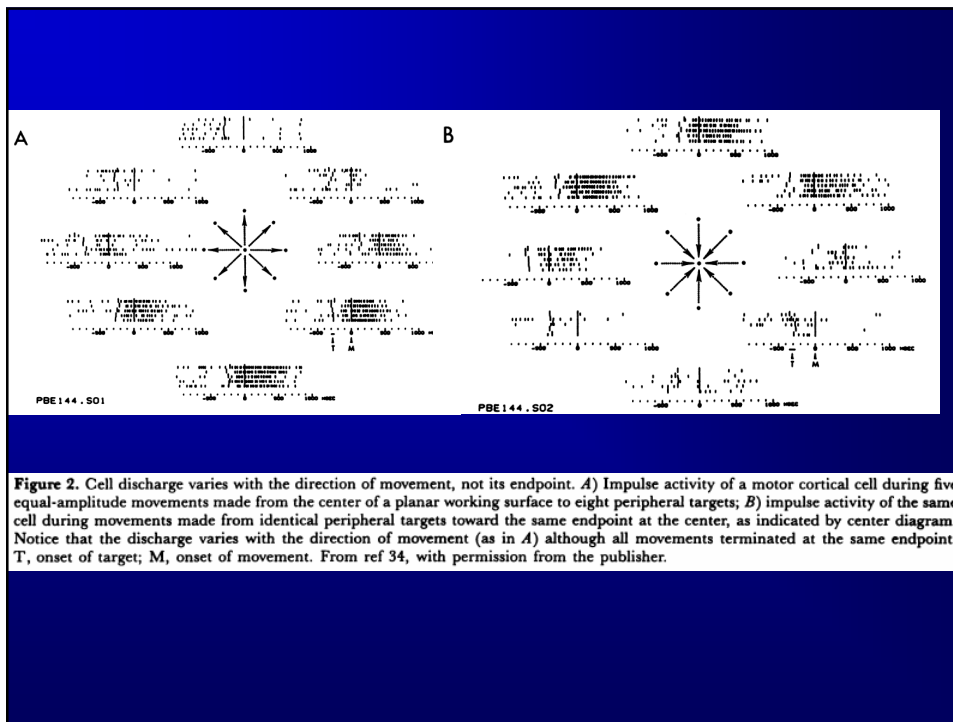
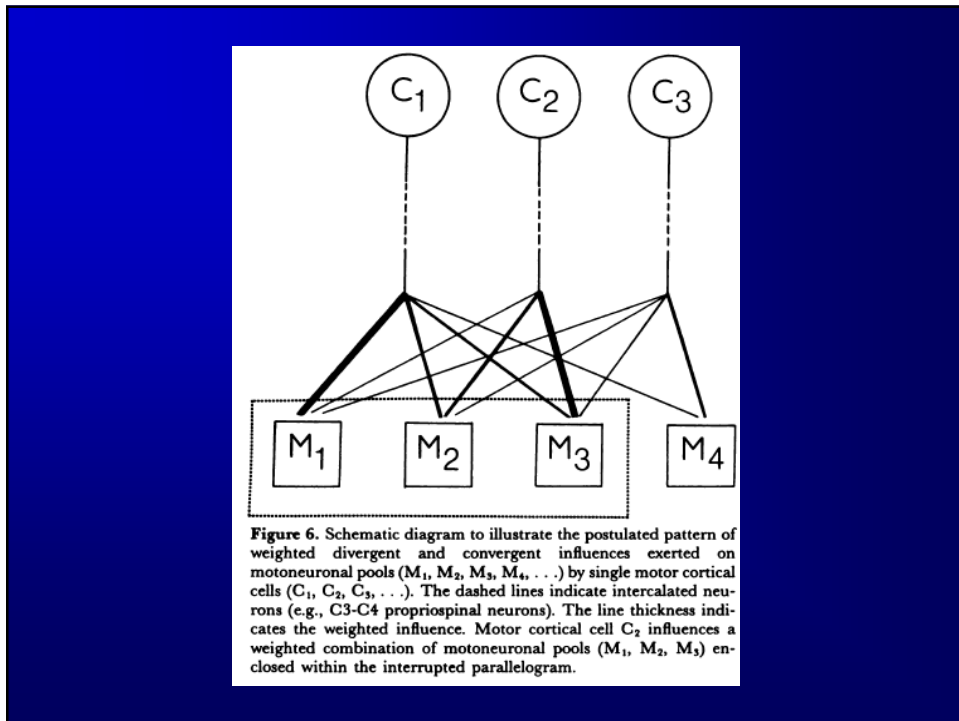
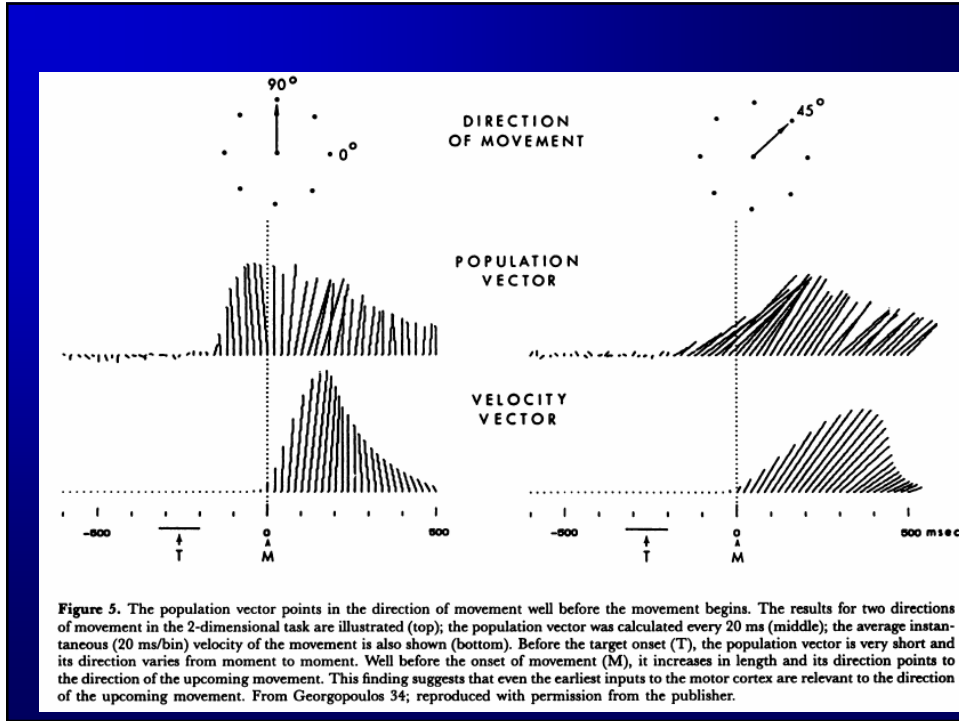


Figure 5. The 3-D positional gradient from another cell illustrated as a 3-D plot. Each dot represents a position within the workspace. The intensity of a dot is proportional to the intensity of cell discharge predicted by the positional gradient function.



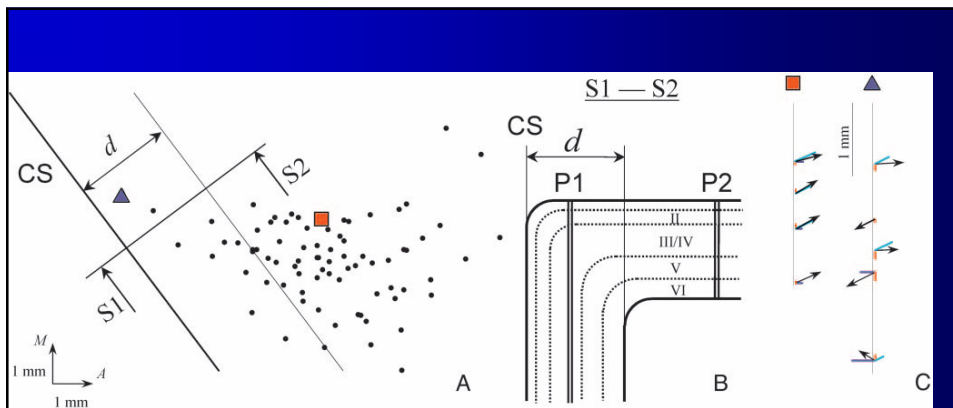




## CONCLUDING REMARKS

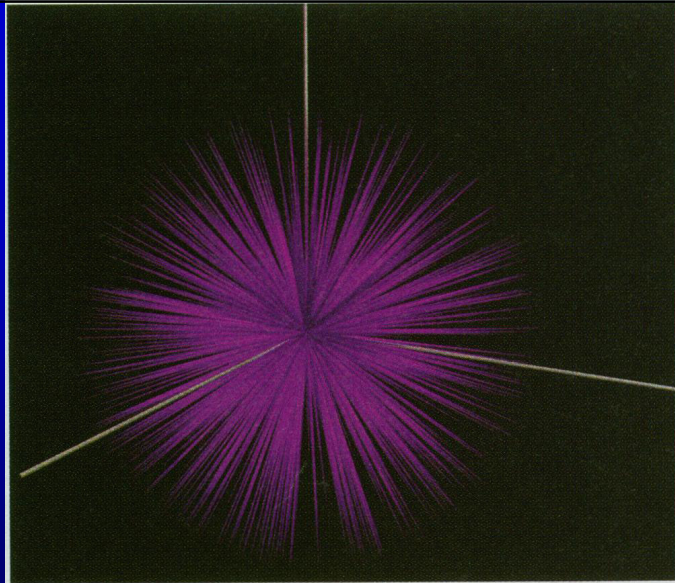
The findings previously summarized refer to the relations between the discharge of motor cortical cells and the direction of arm movements in space. The reaching movement involves changes in the angles of the shoulder and elbow joints; these changes in joint angles are effected by changes in the torques applied at those joints, which are in turn produced by changes in the activity of muscles acting on the upper arm and the forearm. Theoretically, a signal from a motor structure, such as the motor cortex, could relate to any of various aspects: trajectory of movement in space, joint angles, joint torques, or muscle activity. However, free-reaching movements in space are quite stereotyped, and it is possible (even probable) that variables that could appear to be independently controlled may not be allowed to vary independently, thus losing their individual degrees of freedom; for example, shoulder and elbow angles covary (19–21) during reaching independently of movement speed (20). Dissociation of motor variables could provide information concerning their own control by a motor structure, but such studies may not reveal the role of that structure in the control of these variables, which are coupled together in a natural movement.

We suggest that the reaching movement may be specified as a whole by supraspinal structures and that it may be initiated by hard-wired spinal circuits. These circuits seem to be complex and sophisticated, yet appropriately developed for this function. It is possible that the matching of motor cortical output to spinal motor mechanisms that underlie reaching is a product of evolution and of the long period of trial and error when infants learn to reach accurately in space (see ref. 43 for a review).



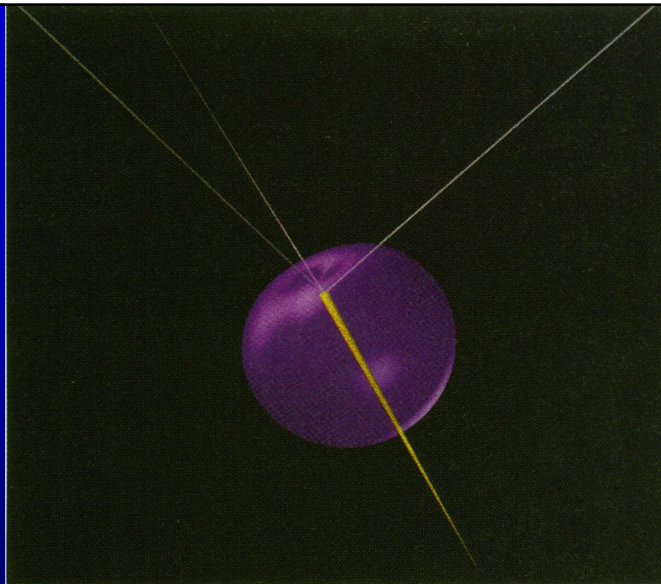
**Fig. 1.** (A) Surface view showing the location of entry points with respect to the CS of 79 penetrations used in the present study. For graphical purposes, data from four hemispheres are transformed and plotted on an outline of a right hemisphere (see figure 6 in ref. 17). The transformation is invariant with respect to the distance between a particular entry point and the CS. The continuous line parallel to, and at a distance  $d$  from, the CS represents a borderline that demarcates the cortical surface into two regions (see text). The imaginary sections S1–S2 orthogonal to the CS is shown in B. A, anterior; M, medial. (B) Section view of the cortical depth in a plane orthogonal to the CS (S1–S2, in A). Dotted curves schematically represent the cortical laminae. Double lines illustrate the orientations of two imaginary penetrations P1 and P2 made nearby and farther away from the CS, respectively. The bisecting borderline is shown here in a similar fashion as in A. II–VI cortical layers. (C) Examples of two penetrations analogous to P1 and P2. The entry points of the penetrations are color-shape coded in A and C. The PDs of directionally tuned cells isolated along the penetrations are shown as arrows, with the corresponding direction cosines in color. It can be seen that PDs were very similar along the penetration resembling P2 (red square), whereas they differed appreciably in the penetration resembling P1 (blue triangle). The average angle between PDs of all cell pairs was  $19^\circ$  for the former and  $96^\circ$  for the latter penetration.

(Amirikian and Georgopoulos, 2003 PNAS)



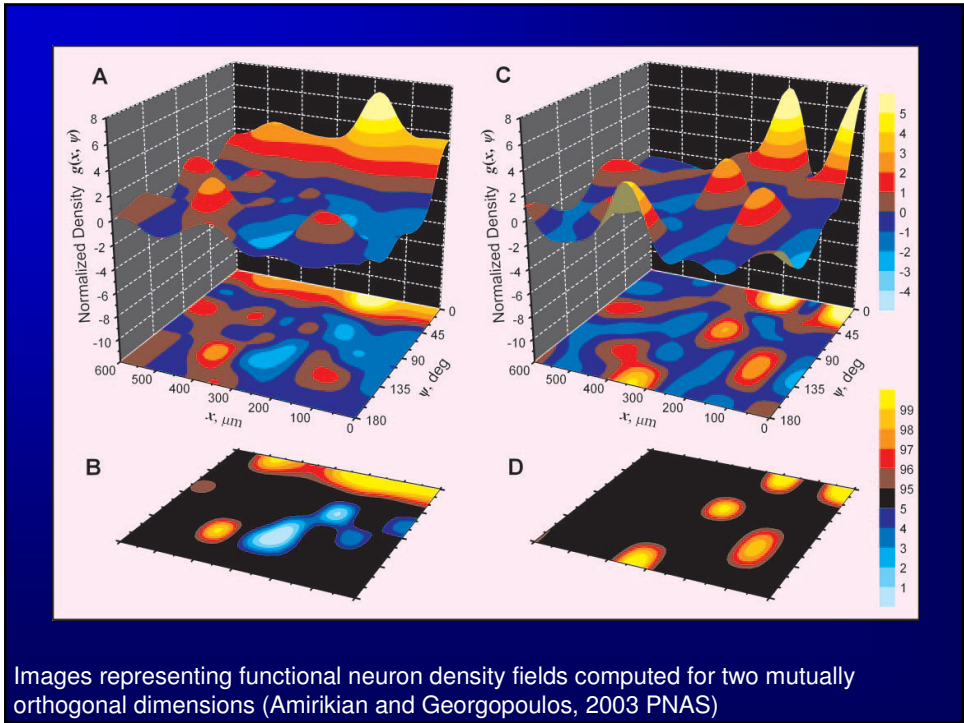
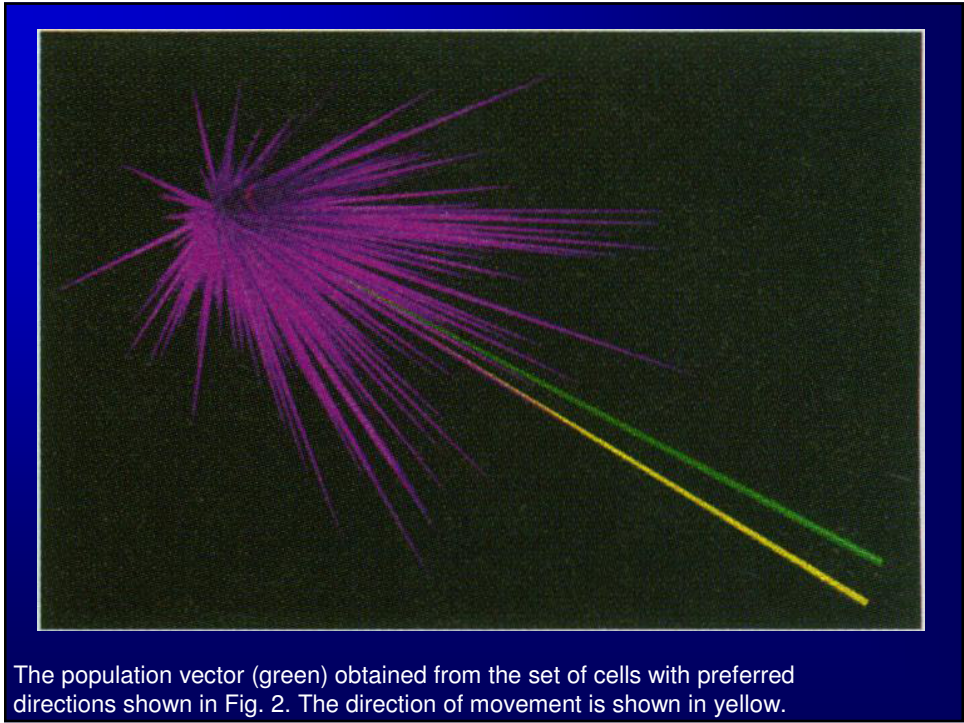
Three-dimensional preferred directions (purple) of 634 motor cortical cells studied in three monkeys. The axes are in white.

(Georgopoulos et al., 1993 Science)



Three-dimensional directional tuning. The axes (white) meet at the origin of the movement. For a particular movement, the discharge rate of the cell predicted by Eq. 1 is proportional to the length of a line pointing in the direction of the movement and drawn from the origin to the surface (purple) of the tuning volume. The cell's preferred direction is indicated by the yellow cone.

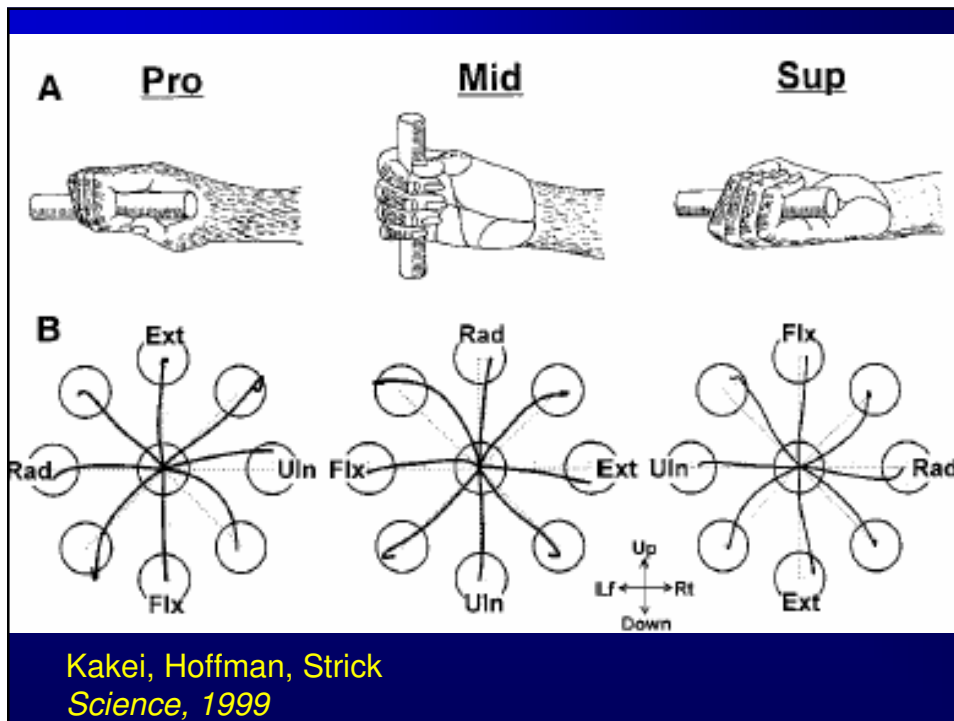


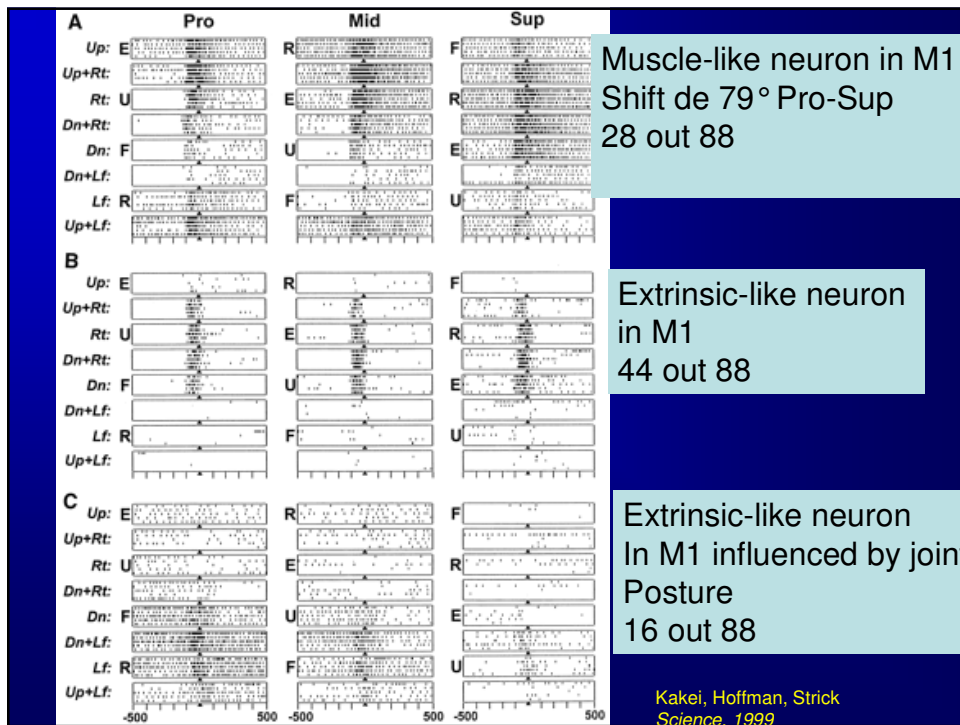
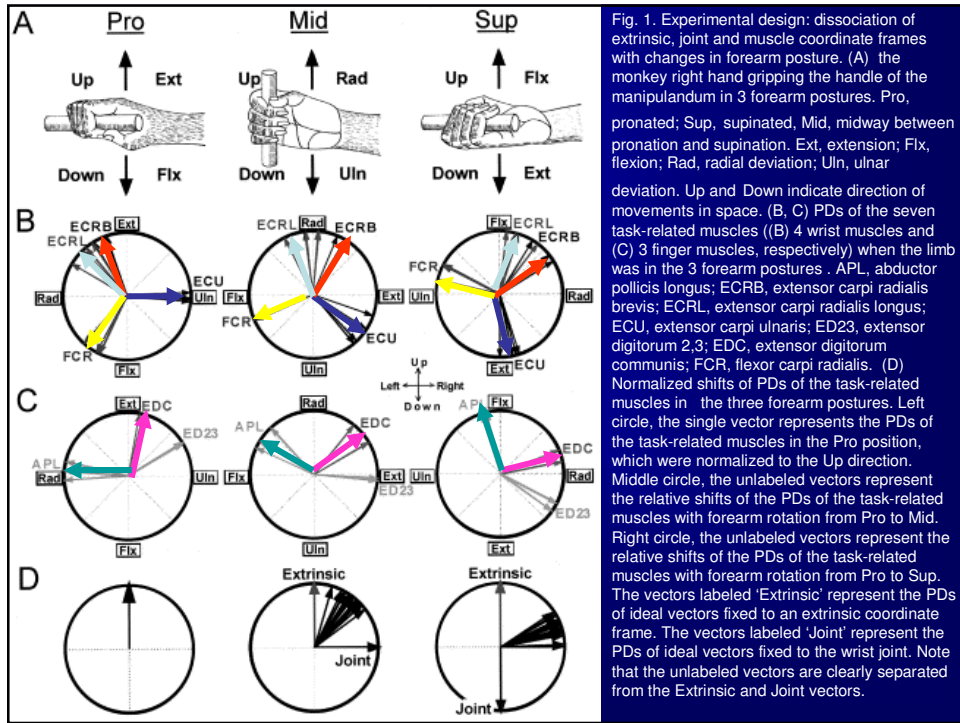


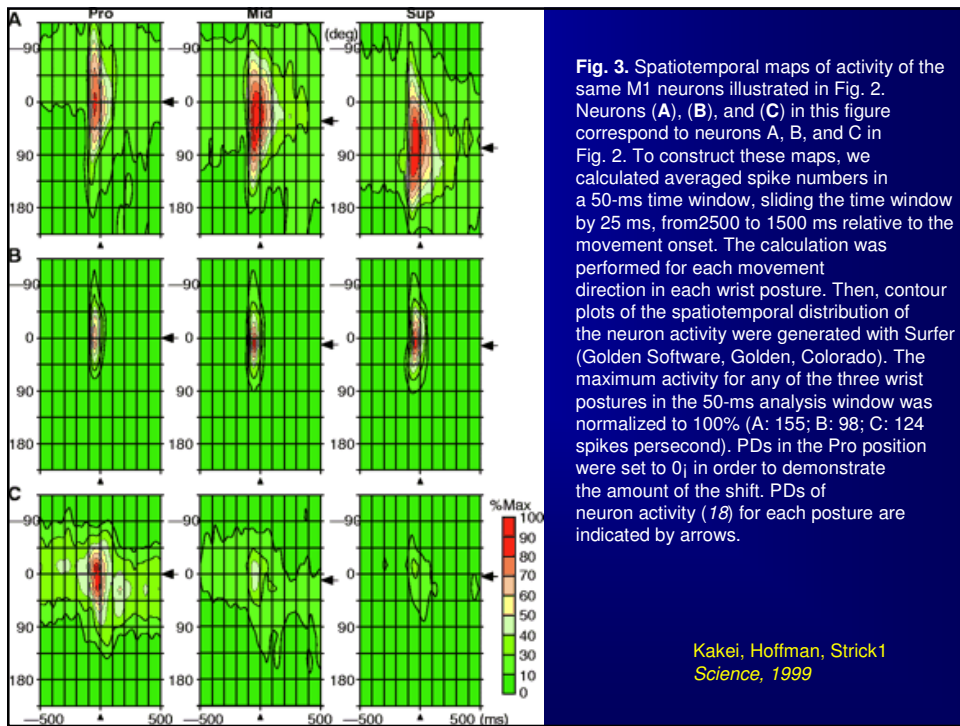


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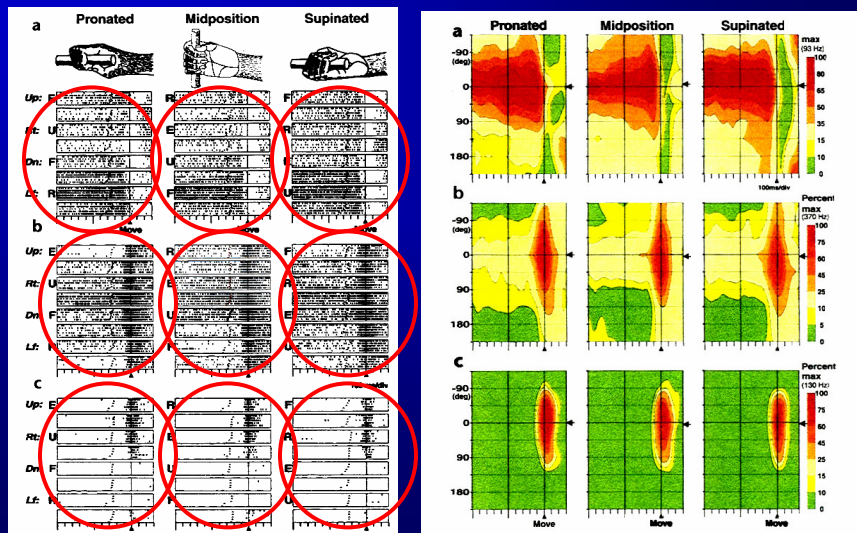
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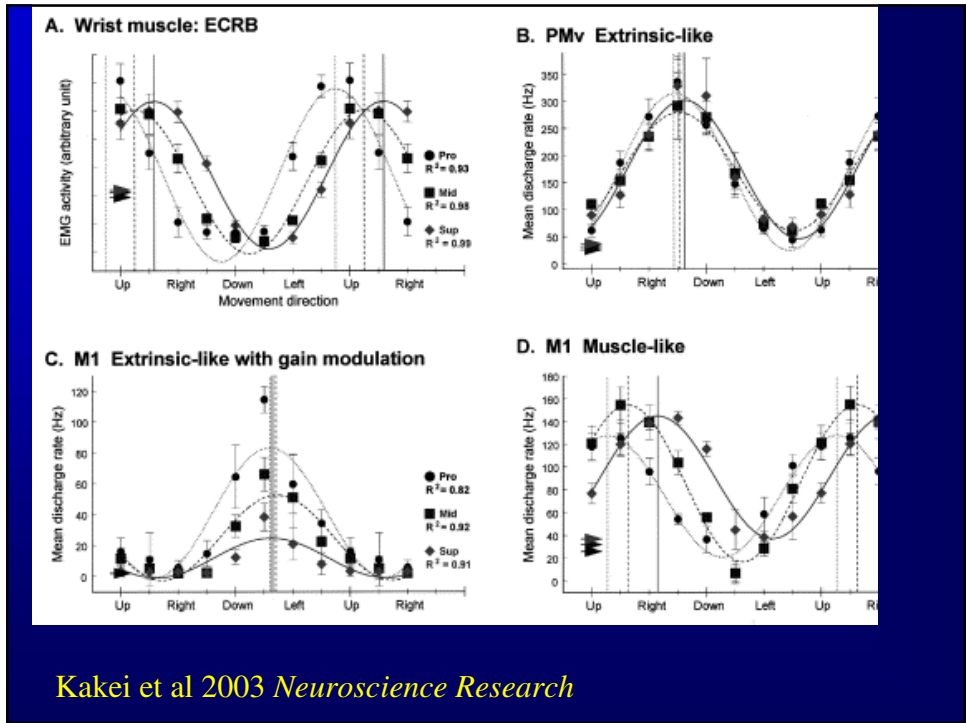




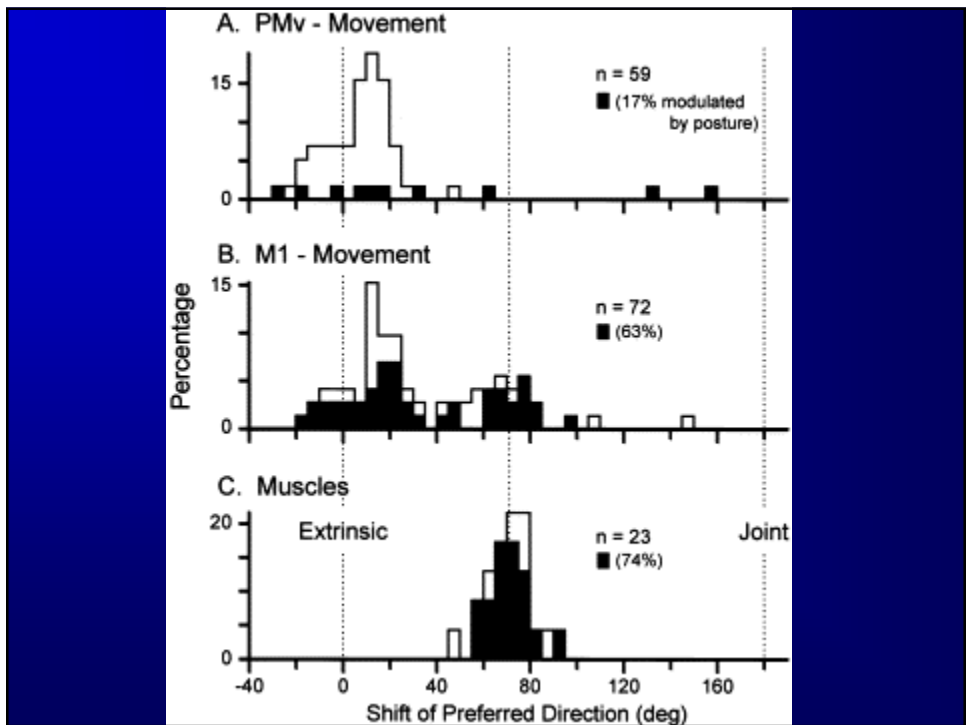


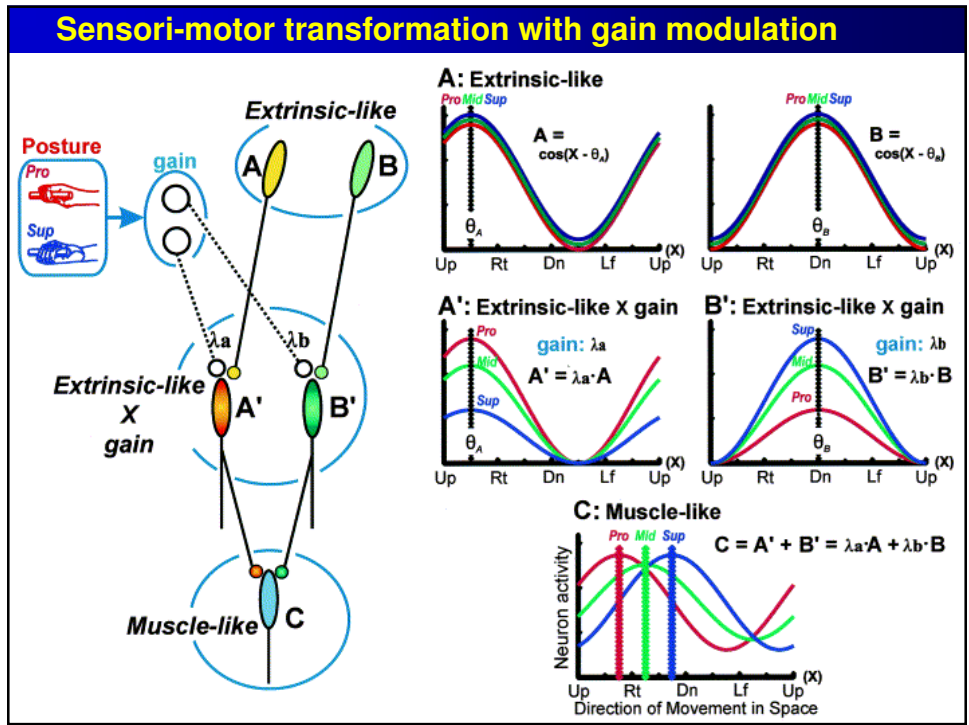
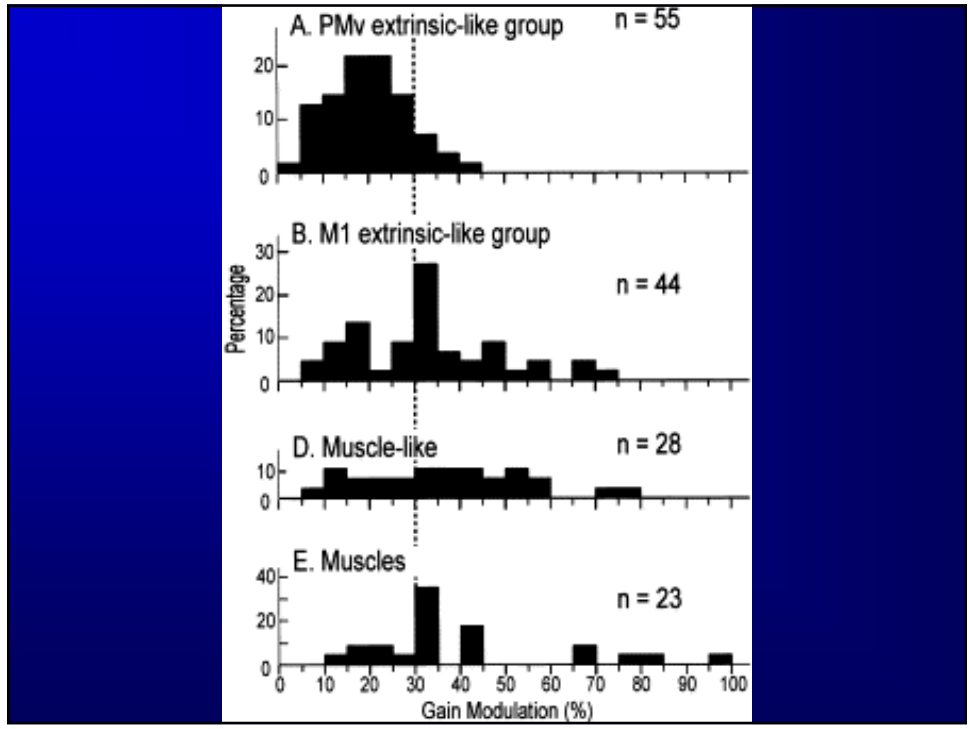
## Pre-motor cortex function

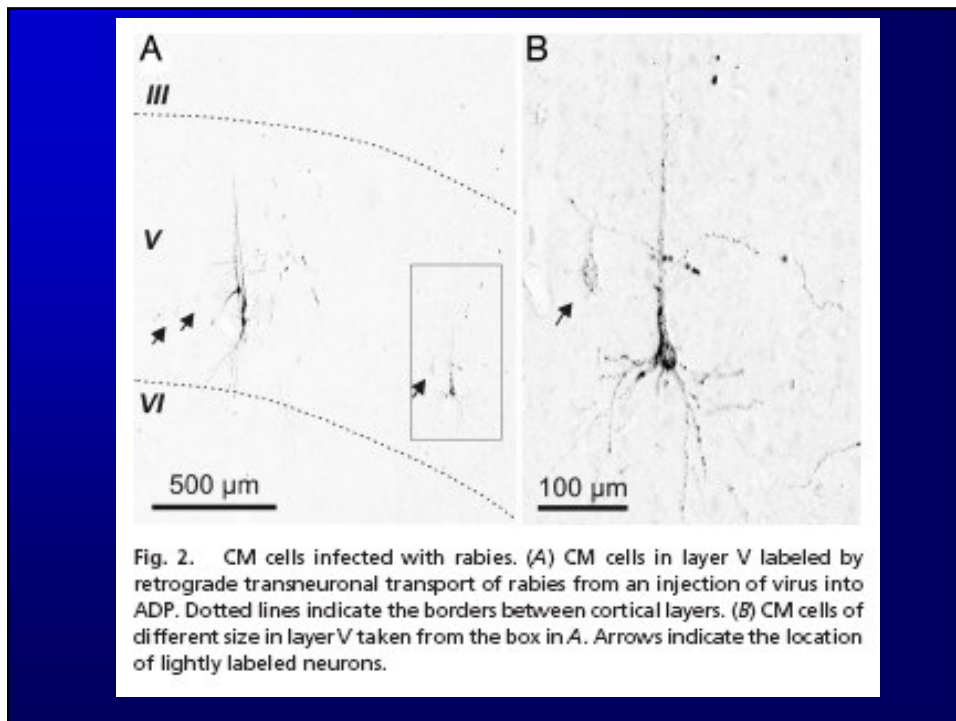
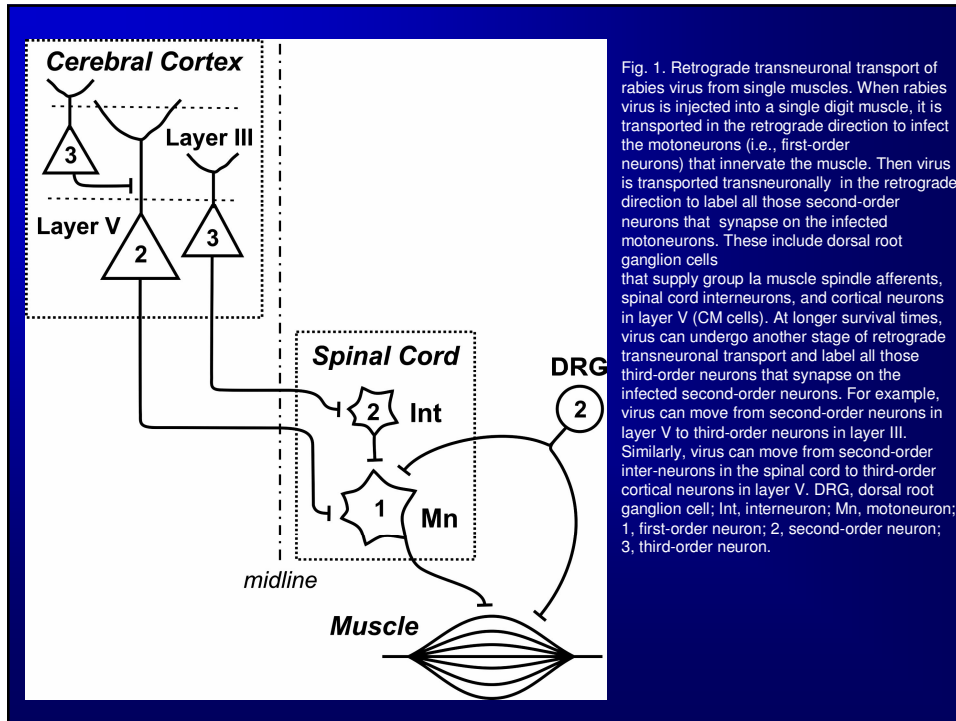




Kakei et al 2003 *Neuroscience Research*









How are the neurons that directly influence the motoneurons of a muscle distributed in the primary motor cortex (M1)? To answer this classical question we used retrograde transneuronal transport of rabies virus from single muscles of macaques. This enabled us to define cortico-motoneuronal (CM) cells that make monosynaptic connections with the motoneurons of the injected muscle. We examined the distribution of CM cells that project to motoneurons of three thumb and finger muscles. We found that the CM cells for these digit muscles are restricted to the caudal portion of M1, which is buried in the central sulcus. Within this region of M1, CM cells for one muscle display a remarkably widespread distribution and fill the entire mediolateral extent of the arm area. In fact, CM cells for digit muscles are found in regions of M1 that are known to contain the shoulder representation. The cortical territories occupied by CM cells for different muscles overlap extensively. Thus, we found no evidence for a focal representation of single muscles in M1. Instead, the overlap and intermingling among the different populations of CM cells may be the neural substrate to create a wide variety of muscle synergies. We found two additional surprising results. First, 15–16% of the CM cells originate from area 3a, a region of primary somatosensory cortex. Second, the size range of CM cells includes both “fast” and “slow” pyramidal tract neurons. These observations are likely to lead to dramatic changes in views about the function of the CM system (Rathelot & Strick, PNAS, 2006)

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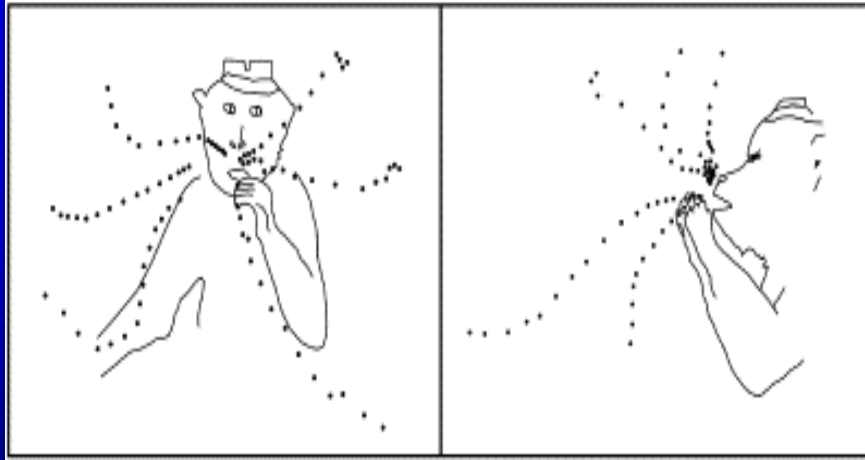


Figure 1. An Example of a Complex Posture Evoked from Monkey 1 by Microstimulation of Precentral Cortex When this site was stimulated the left hand closed into a grip posture, turned to the face, moved toward the mouth, and the mouth opened. Stimulation was for 500 ms at 100 A and 200 Hz. Drawings were traced from video footage acquired at 30 frames per second. The 11 dotted lines show the frame-by-frame position of the hand for 11 different stimulation trials. Each dot shows the part of the video image of the hand that was farthest from the elbow. The start point of each trajectory was distant from the mouth; the end point was at or near the mouth.

Graziano et al EBR, 2004

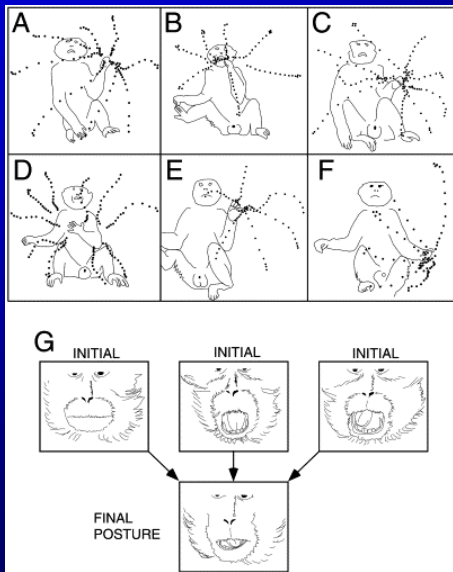
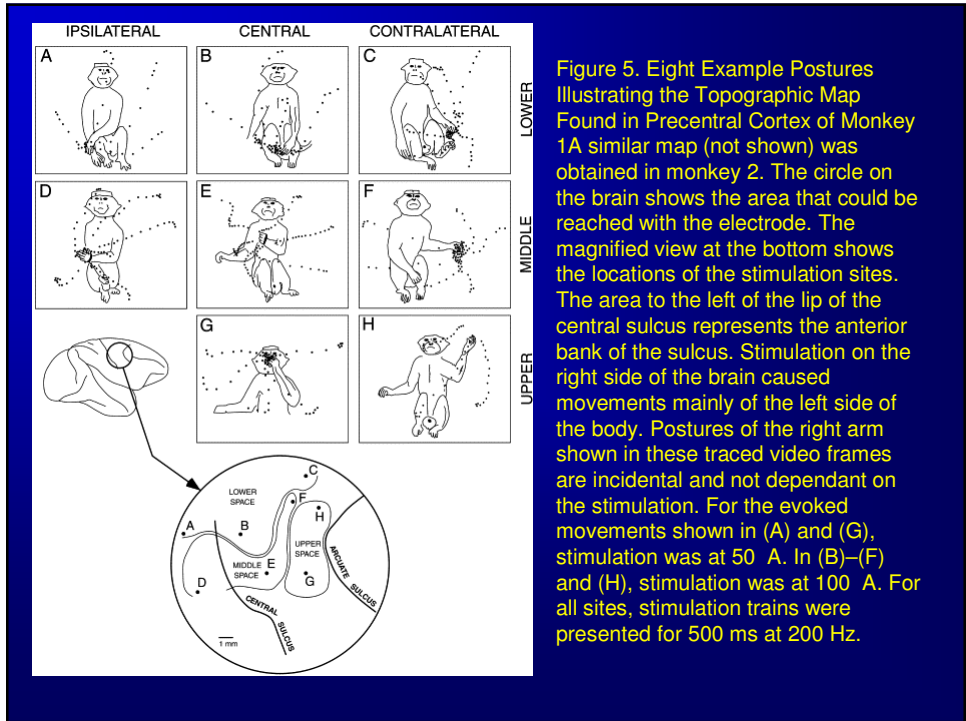
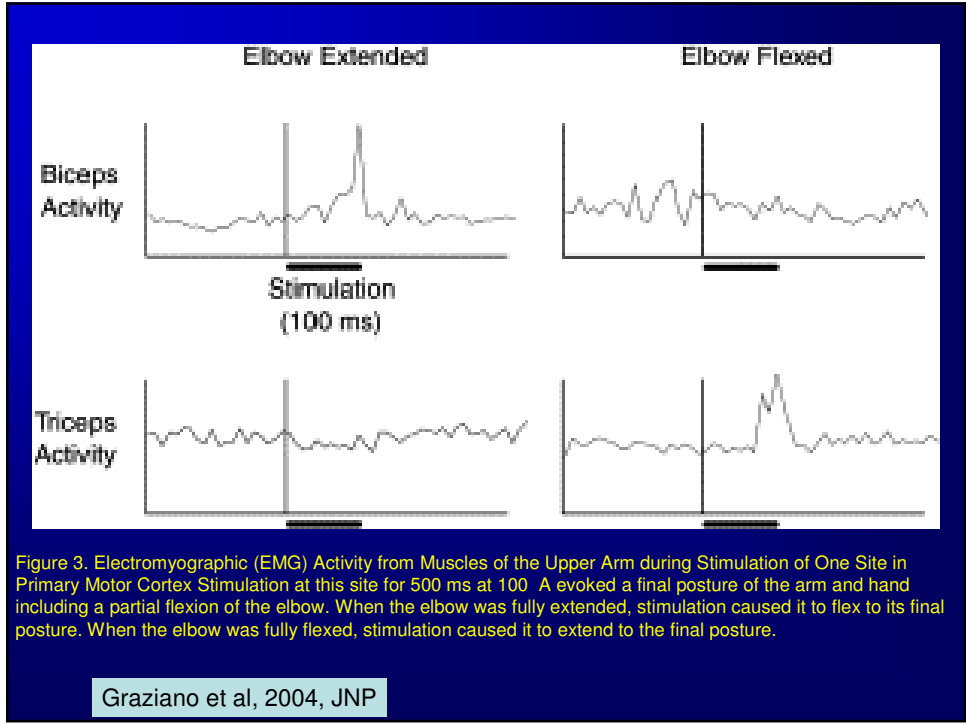


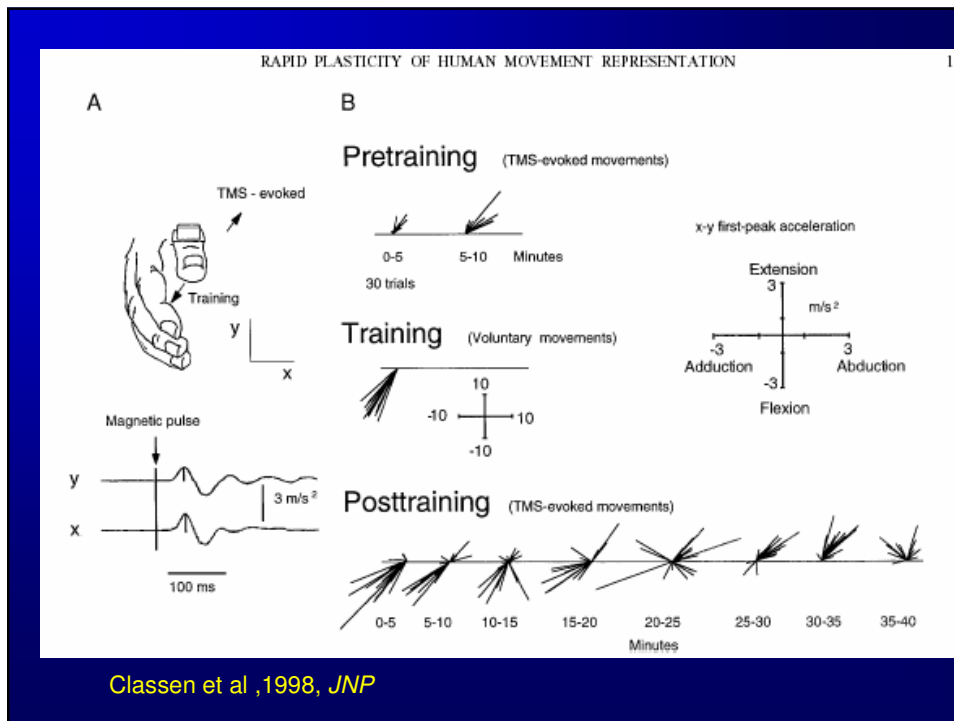
Figure 2. Examples of Postures Evoked by Microstimulation of Precentral Cortex(A-F) Six examples of postures of the left arm evoked from monkey 2. Stimulation on the right side of the brain caused movements mainly of the left side of the body. Postures of the right limbs shown in these traced video frames are incidental and not dependant on the stimulation. Final postures that involved the left hand near the edge of the workspace, such as in (F), could not be tested from all directions, but still showed convergence from the range of initial positions tested.(G) A posture of the mouth and tongue evoked from monkey 1. When this site was stimulated, the mouth opened partly and the tongue pointed toward the left canine (final posture). Three initial postures of the mouth and tongue are shown. For the evoked movements shown in (A), (D), and (E), stimulation was at 50 A; (B), (C), and (G), 100 A; (F), 75 A. For all sites, stimulation trains were presented for 500 ms at 200 Hz.



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## conclusions

From these results, it appears likely that the motor cortex undergoes continuous plastic modifications. Frequently repeated movements reinforce particular network connectional patterns, but those patterns weaken if the movements have not been recently executed. This principle may underlie the beneficial effect of preperformance practice ( e.g., in athletics or musical performance). It also may be a requirement for purposeful skill acquisition in intact humans and in the rehabilitation of persons with brain damage

The main mechanisms that have been suggested for mediating reorganization in the cerebral cortex involve the unmasking of existing, but latent, horizontal connections (for a review, see Sanes and Donoghue 2000)

Modulation of synaptic efficacy such as long-term potentiation (LTP) (Hess and Donoghue 1994; Hess and others 1996) or long-term depression (LTD) (Hess and Donoghue 1996). Such modification of synaptic efficacy was recently demonstrated in the horizontal connections in the motor cortex of rats that underwent training of a skilled motor task (Riout-Pedotti and others 1998).

Concept that the motor cortex contains multiple overlapping motor representations (Donoghue and others 1992; Schieber and Hibbard 1993; Sanes and others 1995) functionally connected through an extensive horizontal network (Huntley and Jones 1991).

Although connections are abundant within somatic representations, they are sparse between them (Huntley and Jones 1991). By changing the strength of horizontal connections between motor neurons, functionally different neuronal assemblies can form, thereby providing a substrate to construct dynamic motor output zones.

## Pharmacological modulations

- Lorazepan (LZ): GABAA enhancement, blocks induction of LTP
- Dextromethorphan (DM): blocks NMDA receptors involved in LTP induction
- Lamotrigine (LTG): gating of  $Na^+$  and  $Ca^{++}$  without affecting LTP induction