

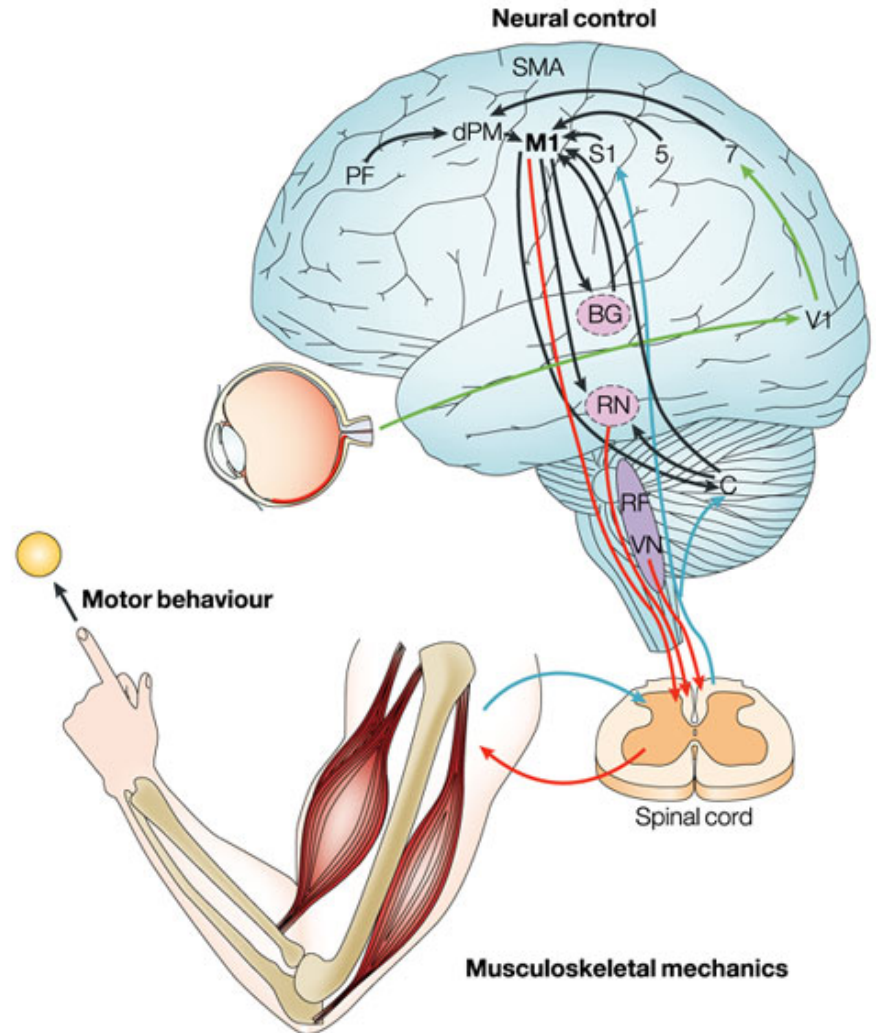
# Movement



# Brain areas involved in moving

Coordination of sensory information with desired movements

– SENSORIMOTOR



# Certain sensory receptors (proprioceptors) report movement and body location



Proprioception (body awareness)	Adaptation	Movements stretch the receptors to mechanically stimulate the dendrites within them to produce action potentials.
Muscle spindles (muscle stretch)	Rapid	
Golgi tendon organs (tendon stretch)	Rapid	
Joint receptors (joint movement)	Rapid	

Kolb and Wishaw, 2005

## Proprioception (body awareness)

specialized receptors that give position of muscles, as well as tendon stretch and joint movement

## Critical when planning voluntary movements

what position is my body in right now and what movements are possible?

*The brain influences activity in the spinal cord to control movement in the periphery*

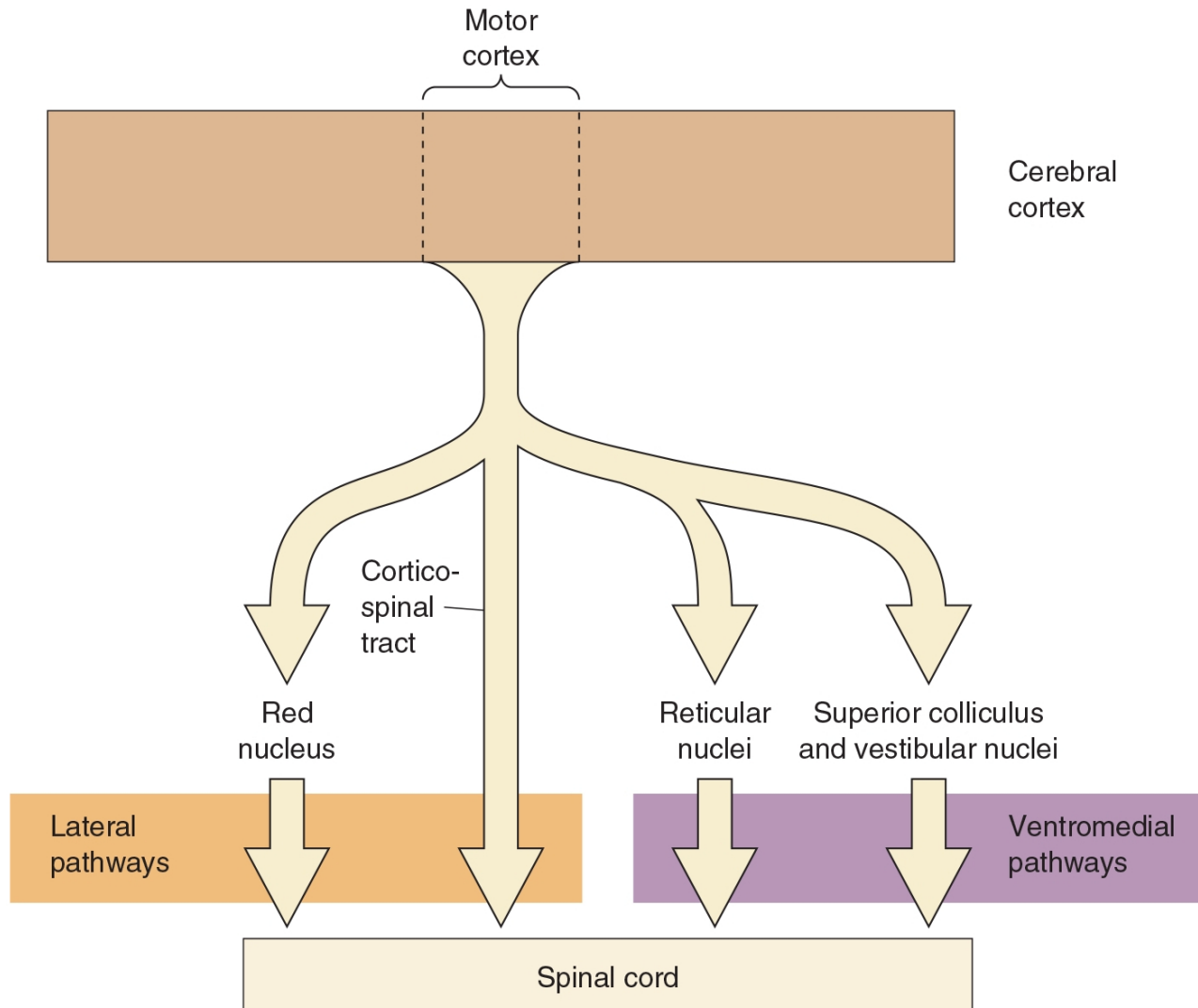
Stage 1: Strategy --- “Ready”

Stage 2: Tactics --- “Set”

Stage 3: Execution --- “Go”



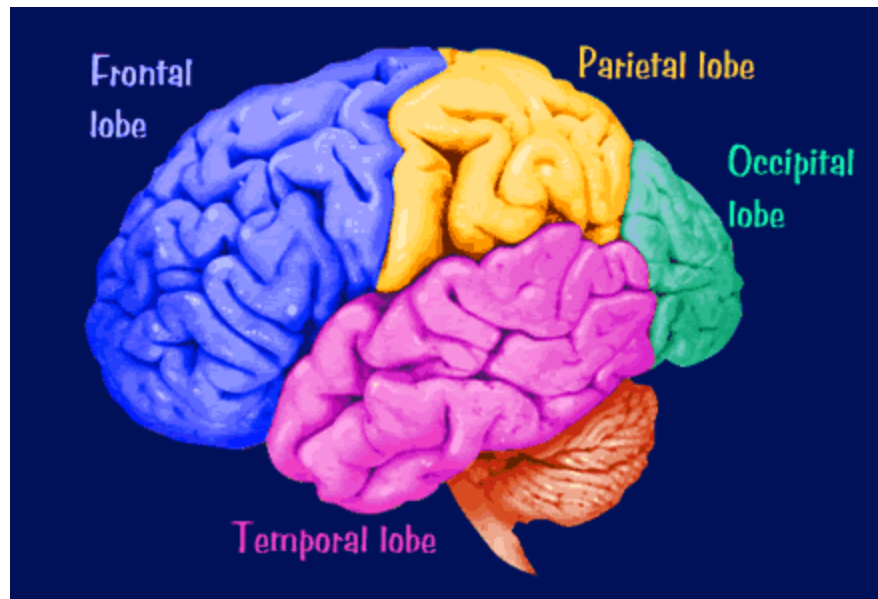
# Motor Pathways (from the brain to the spinal cord)



# Cortical areas involved in movement

Voluntary control of movement engages just about every area of cortex

Movement depends on knowledge about body position, where it intends to go, selection/storage of a plan, the execution of the plan



# Cortical areas involved in movement

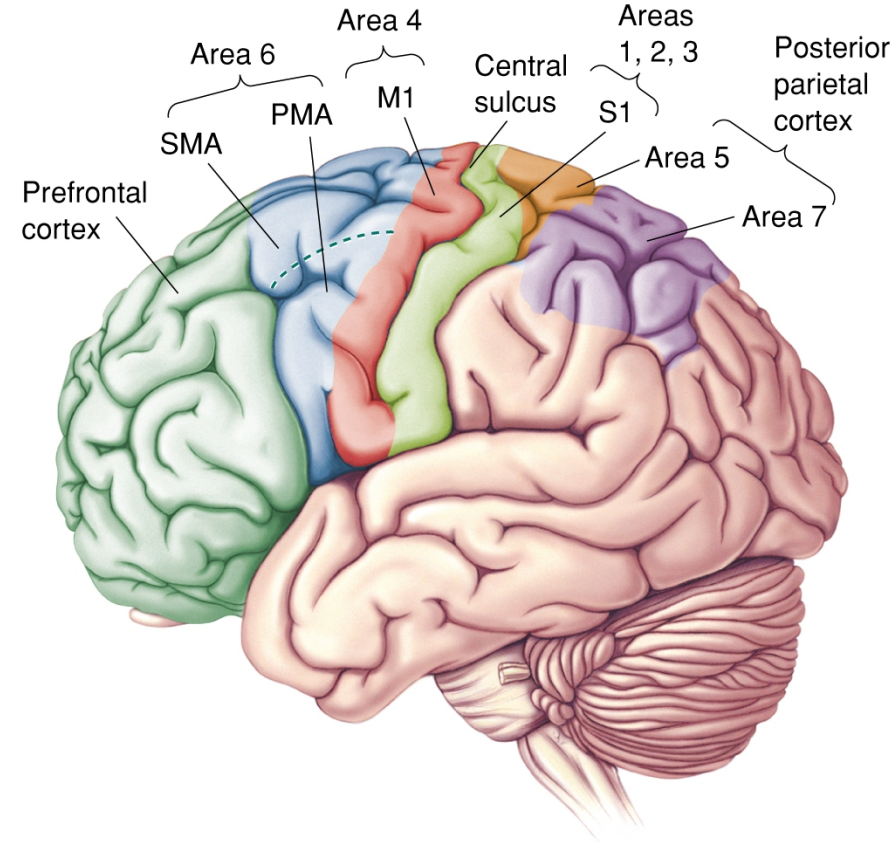
## Posterior parietal cortex

- Mental body image generated by sensory inputs into this area
- Connects to the Prefrontal Cortex

## Prefrontal cortex

- Abstract thought, decision making

Together: Highest levels of motor control



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***The “planners”***

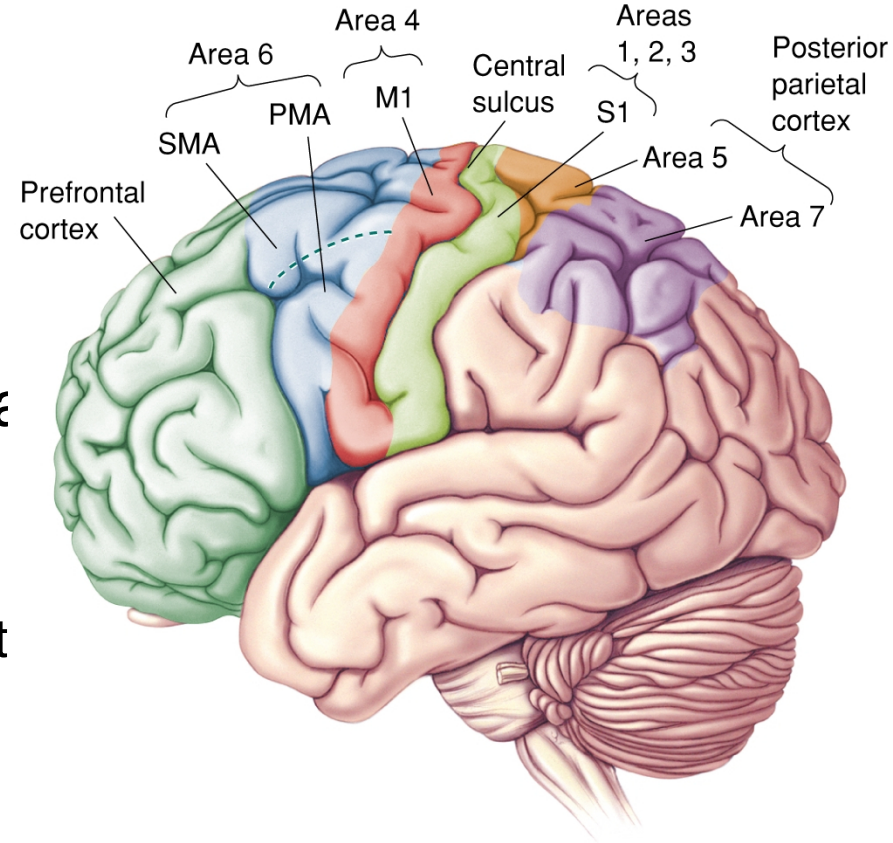
# Cortical areas involved in movement

Posterior parietal cortex & Prefrontal cortex communicate with **Area 6** (premotor cortex)

Premotor area and supplementary motor area

Similar functions; different groups of muscles controlled

**Area 6** is at the interface where desired action is converted into signals that specify **how** the action will be carried out.

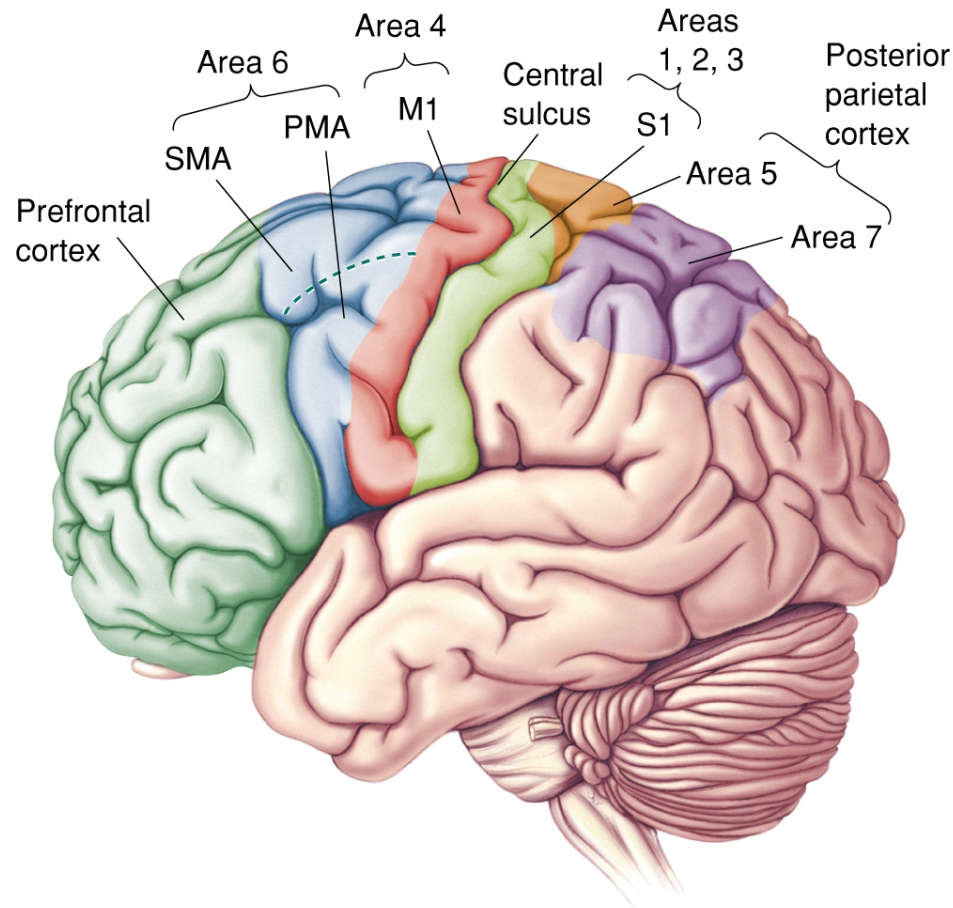


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***The region calls up the “tactics”***

# Cortical areas involved in movement

Area 6 (pre-motor cortex) then communicates with area 4 (primary motor cortex = M1) of the frontal lobe



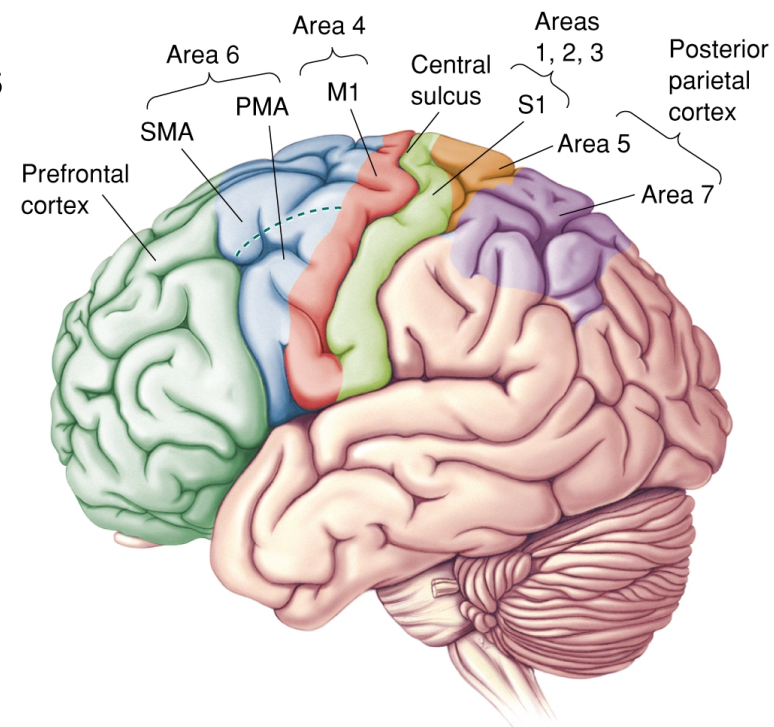


# Primary motor cortex

Receives the motor selections from premotor cortex

Sends chosen movement commands to the appropriate levels of spinal cord

- most movements require both action commands and postural muscle changes



# Summary: Cortical areas involved in movement

Prefrontal cortex (w/posterior parietal): **plan** (“ready”)

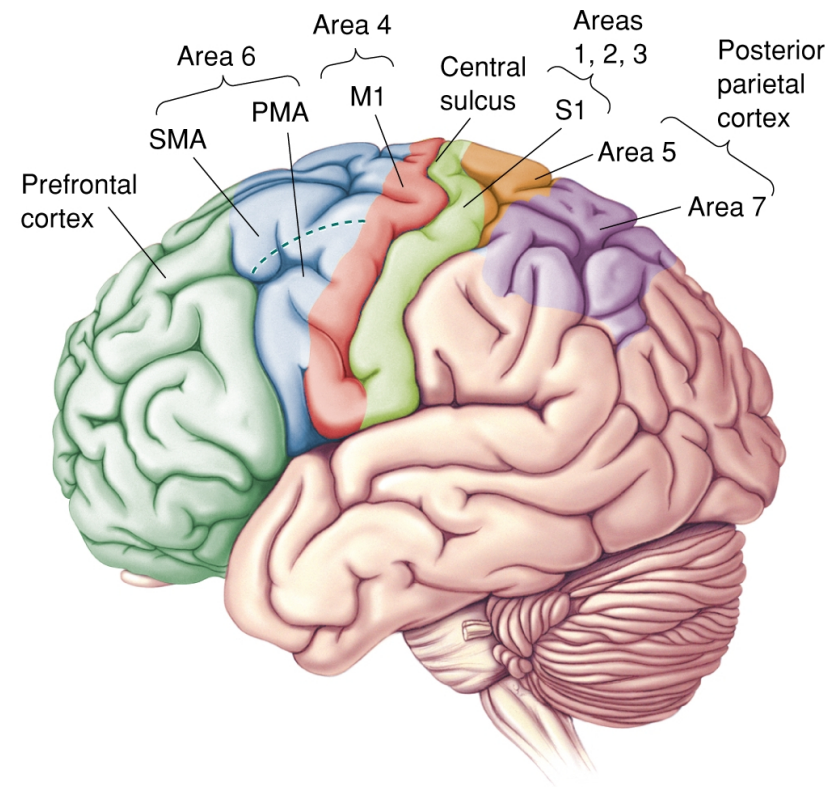
- the CEO with a goal

Premotor cortex (Area 6): **sequence** (“set”)

- the plant supervisor creates a strategy

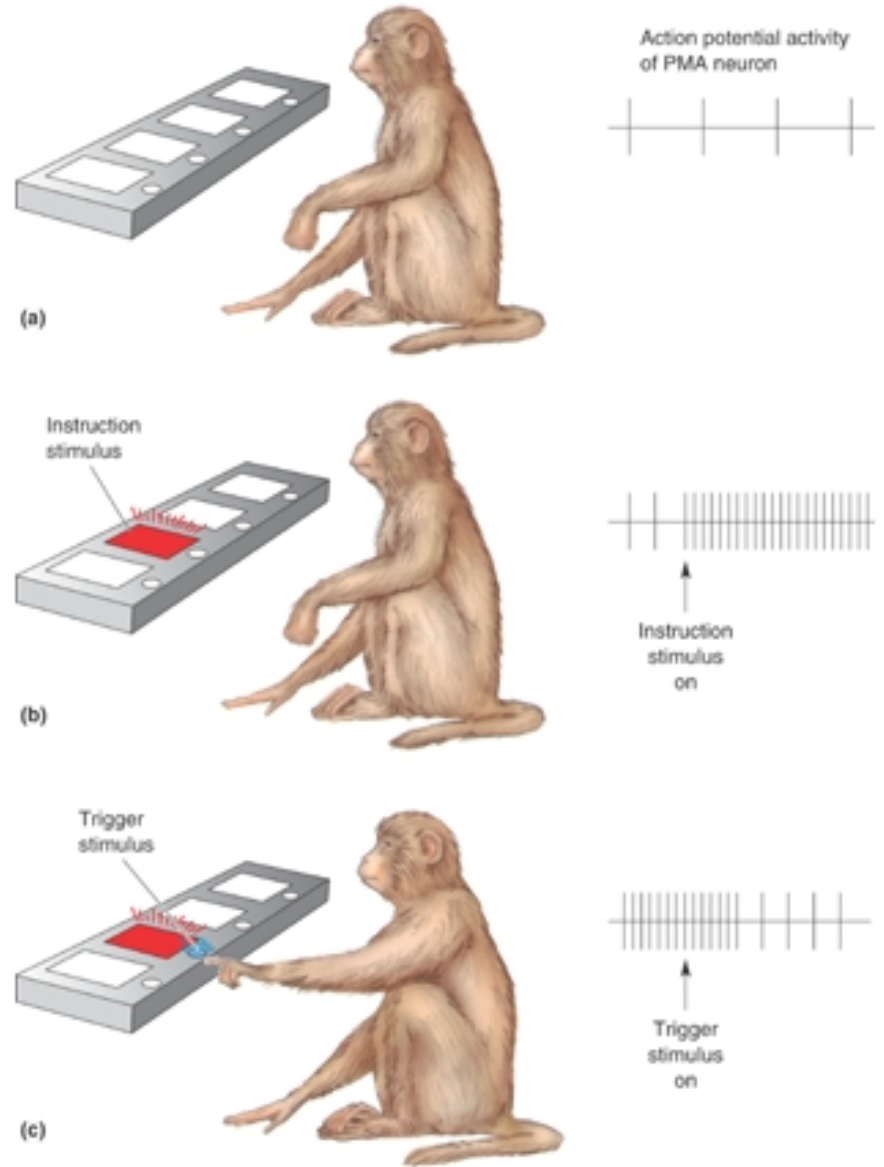
Motor cortex: **execution** (“go”)

- the assembly line workers create specific actions



# Electrical recordings provide evidence for cortical involvement in movement

*Firing in PMA before movement*



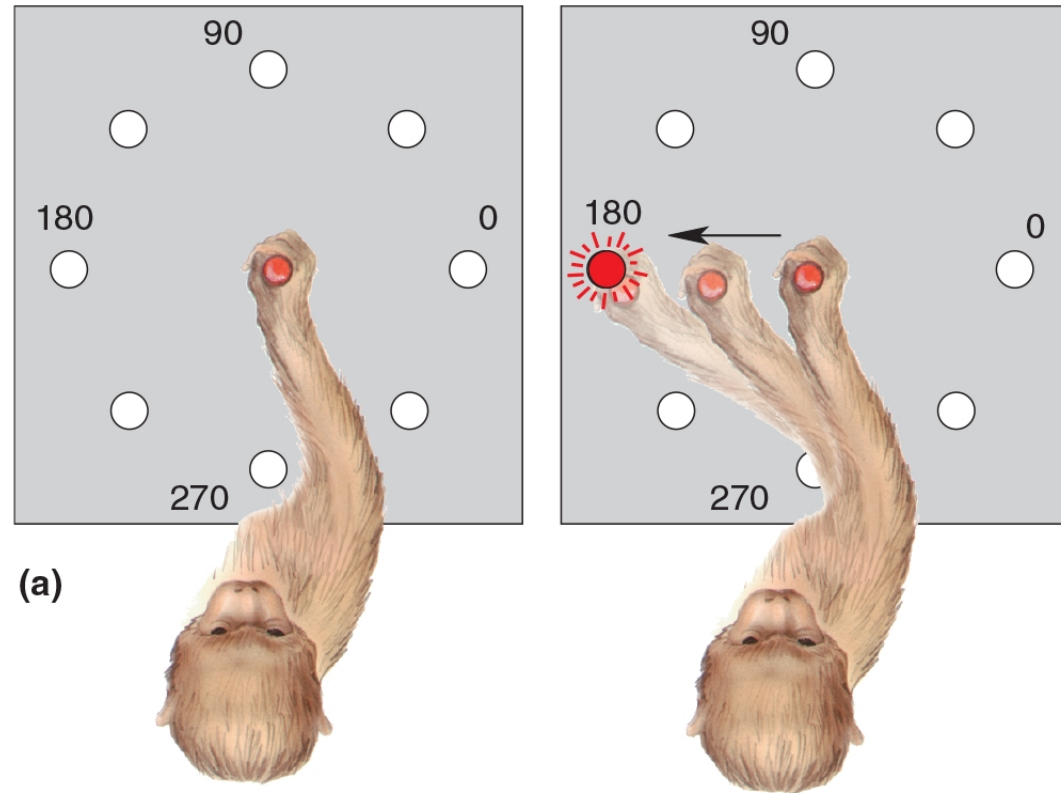
*Can do similar experiments with M1 neurons*

# Neuronal firing of M1 neurons correlates with direction

Record from M1 arm neurons

Train monkey to move the lever in different directions

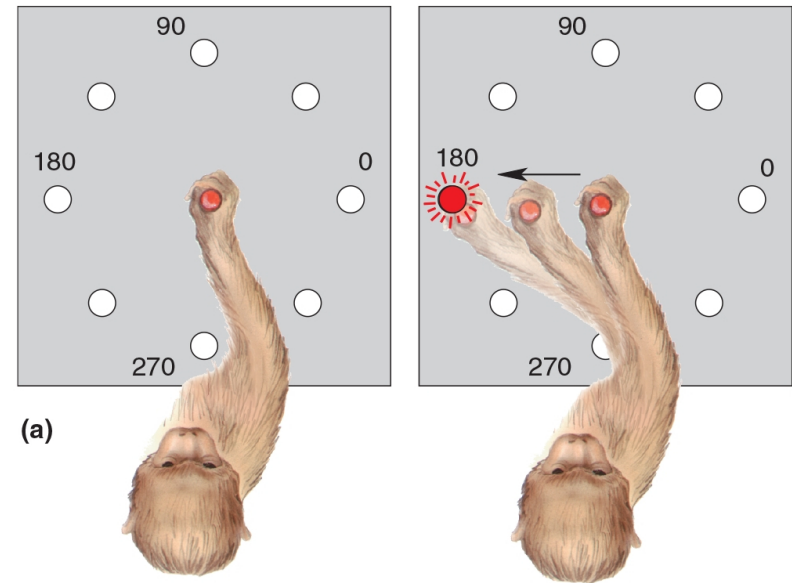
- does firing of M1 hand-sensitive neurons correlate to the direction of movement?



# Direction sensitive M1 neurons

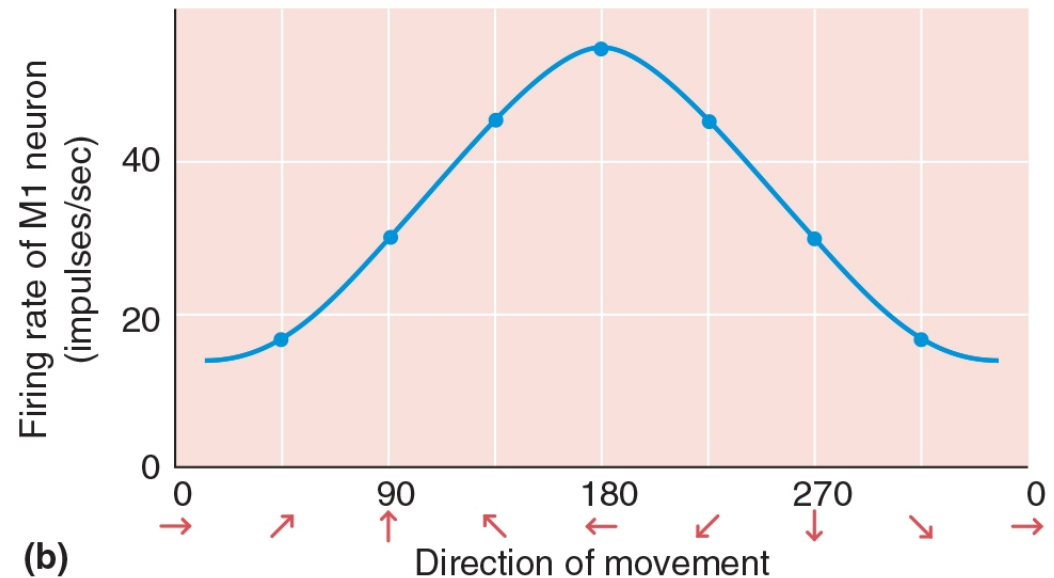
M1 neurons have direction preference

- here, neuronal firing is maximal when moving forward



(a)

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(b)

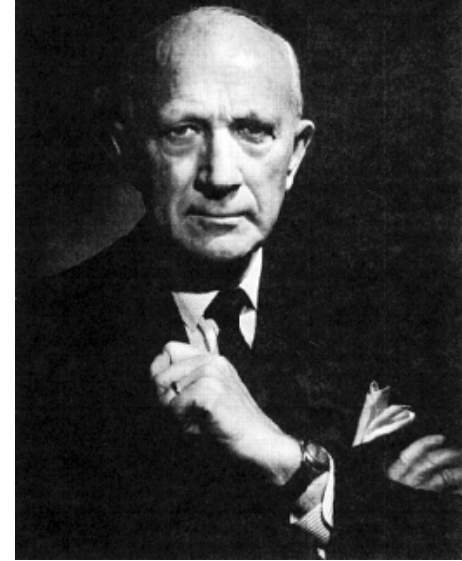
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# Cortical mapping

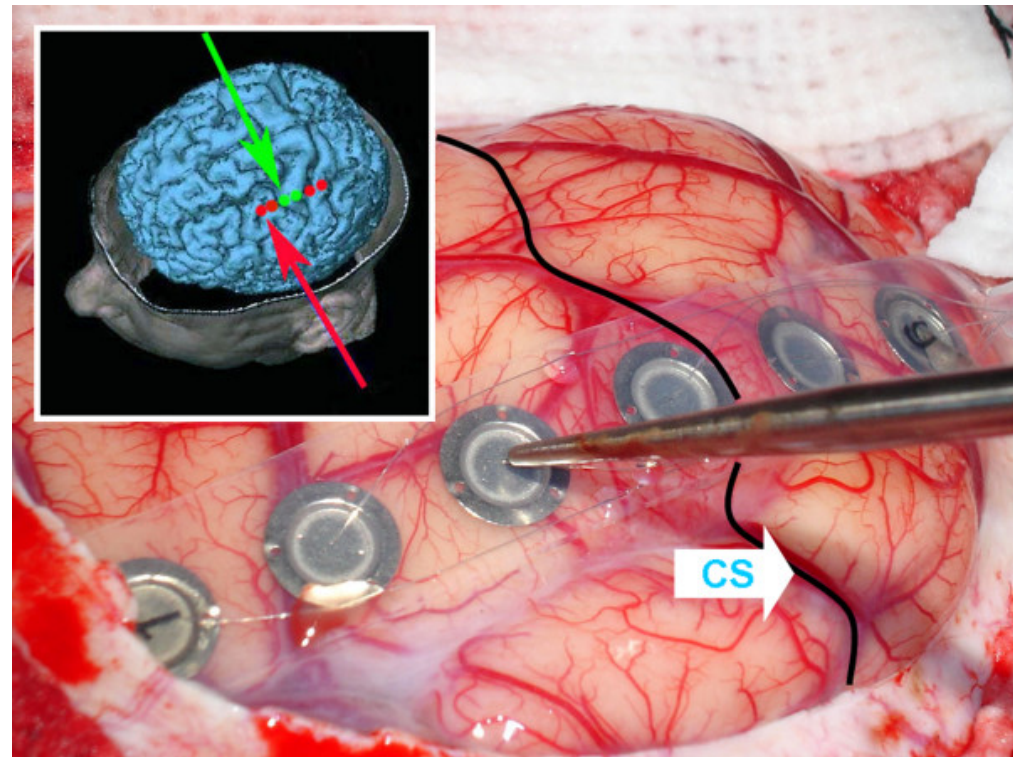
Electrical stimulation of small cortical areas

- Penfield mapped the motor and sensory cortices, as well as other functional areas

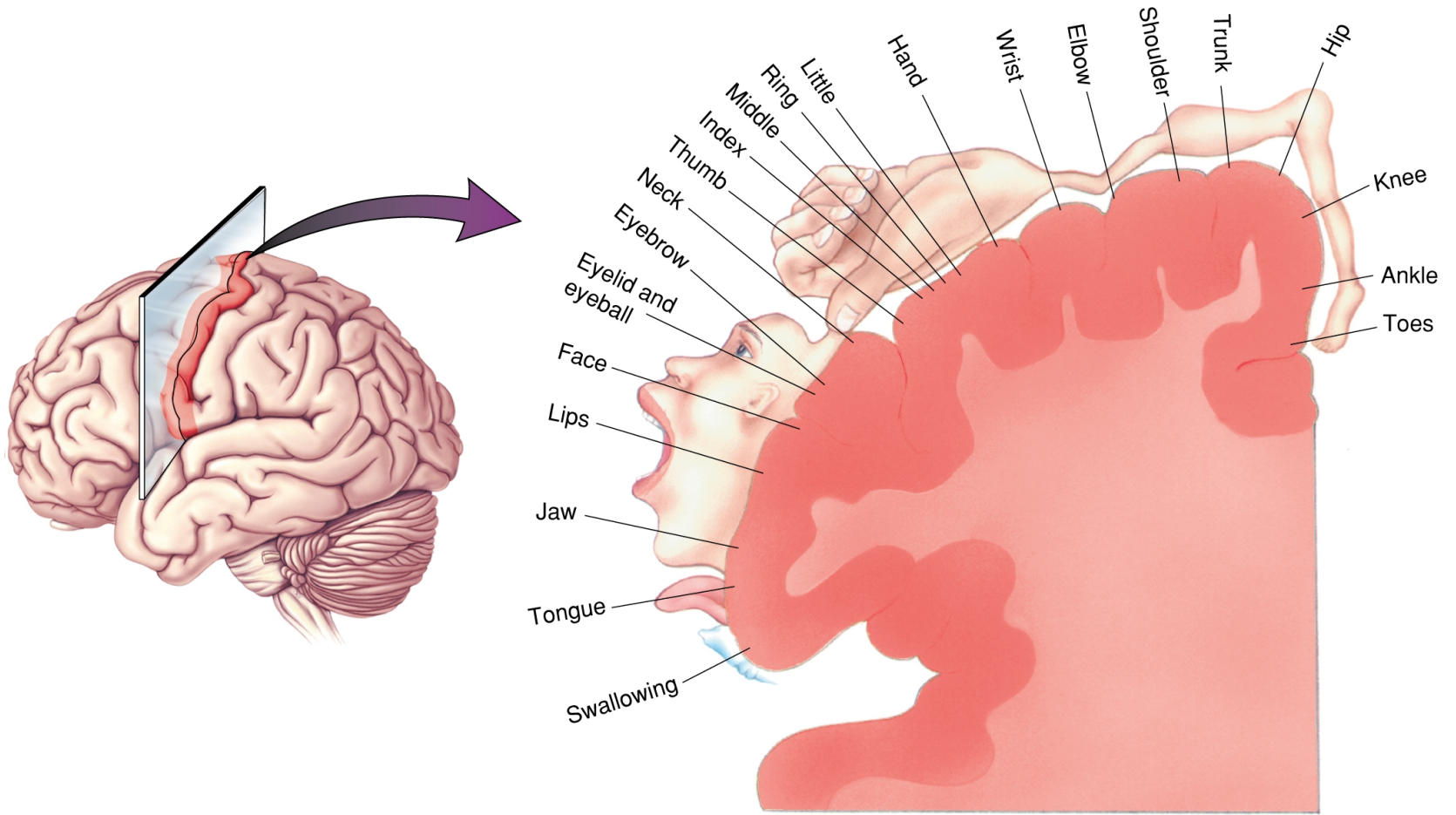


Wilder Penfield

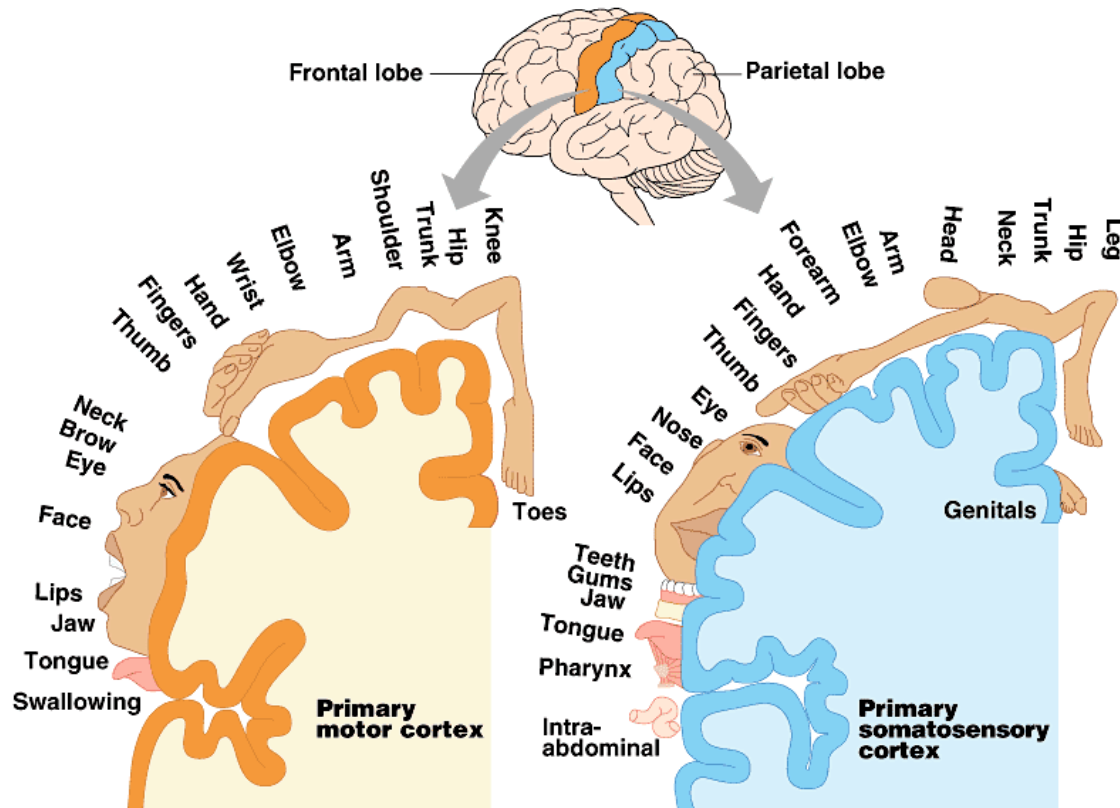
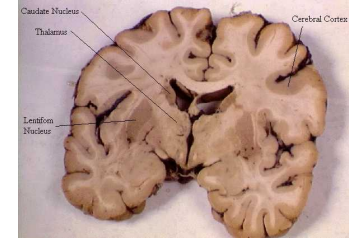
Important for preserving areas from destruction during brain surgery



# Motor homunculus



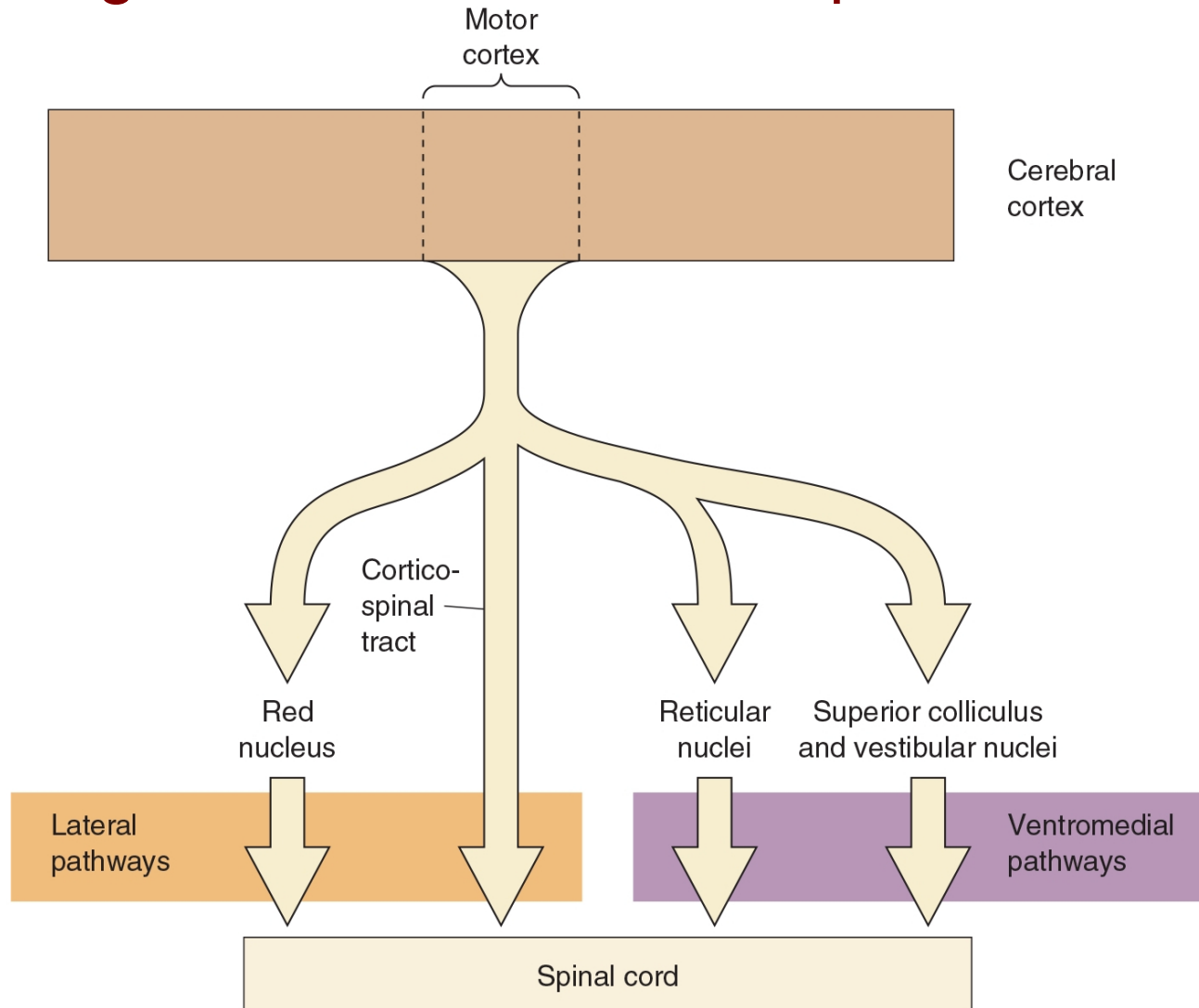
# Comparing homunculi



**SIMILARITIES:** large face and hand (esp. finger) regions in both: small trunk regions

**DIFFERENCES:** sensation (teeth, organs) without voluntary muscles; motor (swallowing) without much sensory input

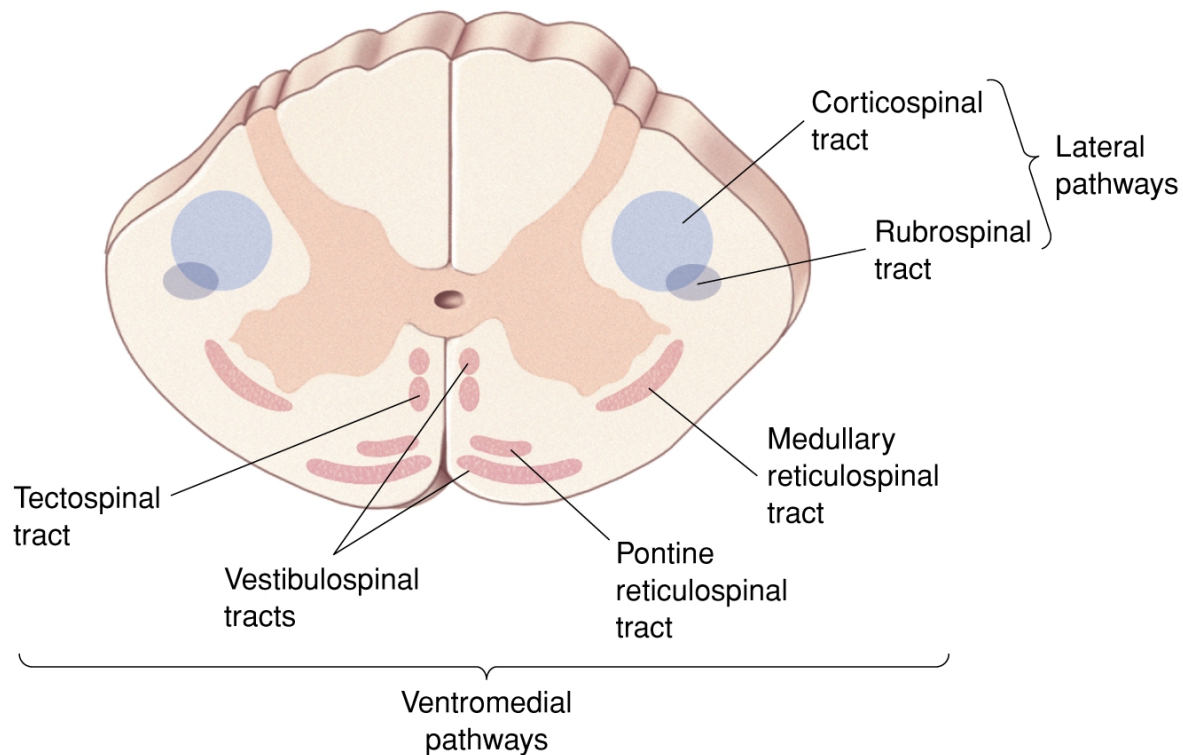
# Going from the brain to the spinal cord



# Lateral versus ventromedial pathways down the spinal cord

**LATERAL PATHWAYS:** control distal muscles

**VENTROMEDIAL PATHWAYS:** control posture, midline

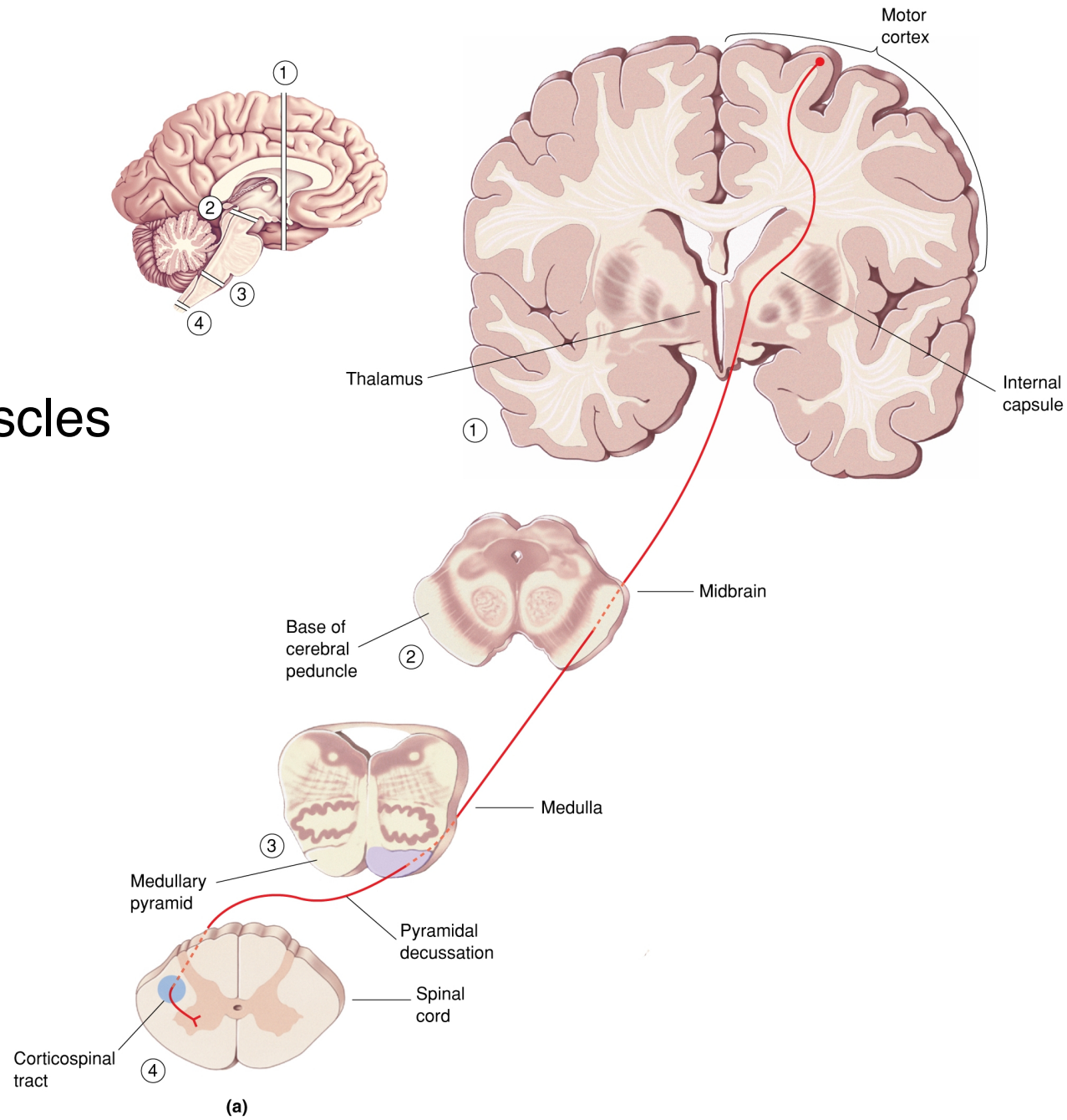




# Lateral pathways

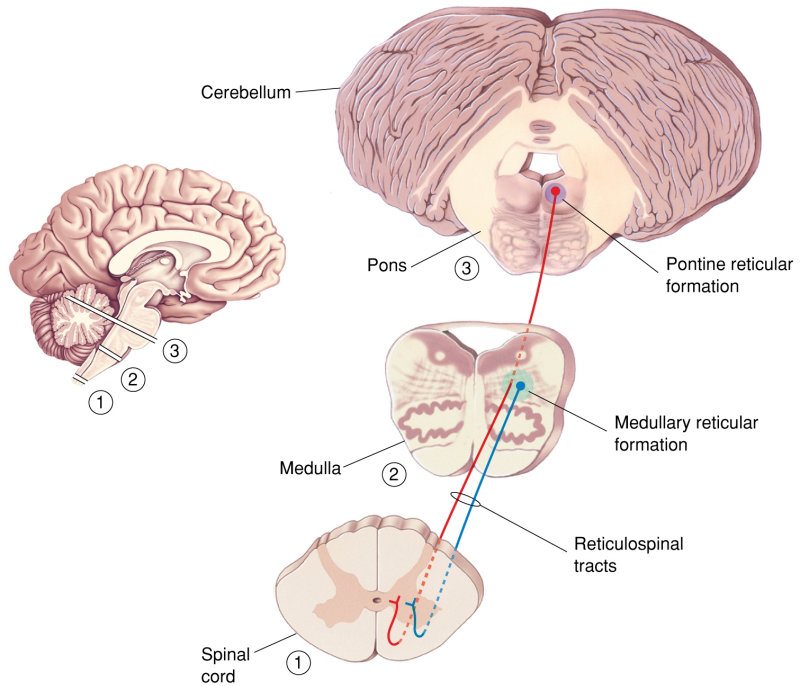
Controls distal muscles

*Notice that the information crosses over (contralateral)*



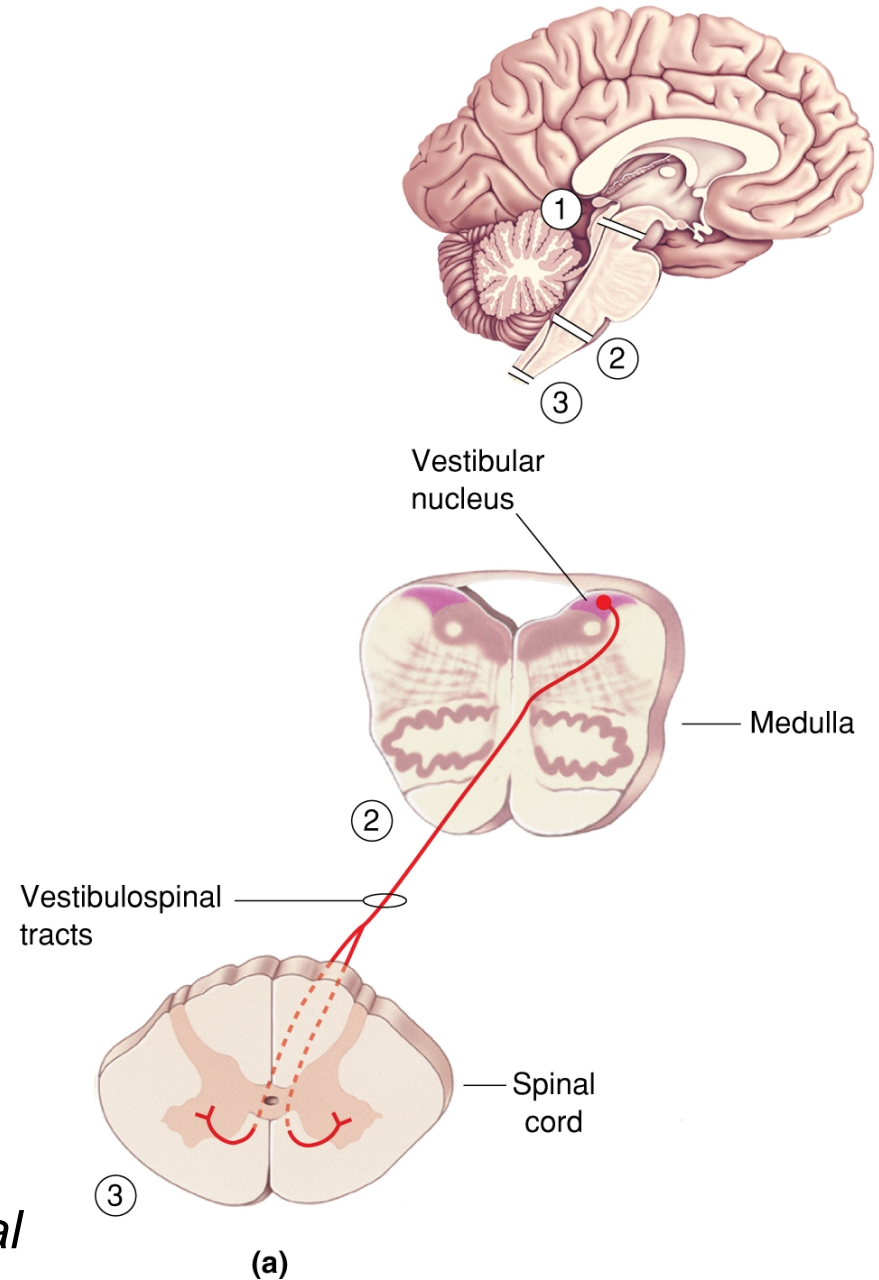
# Ventromedial pathways

Control posture, midline



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*Different pathways control different muscle groups. Notice that some of the information crosses over to the contralateral side; some stays ipsilateral*



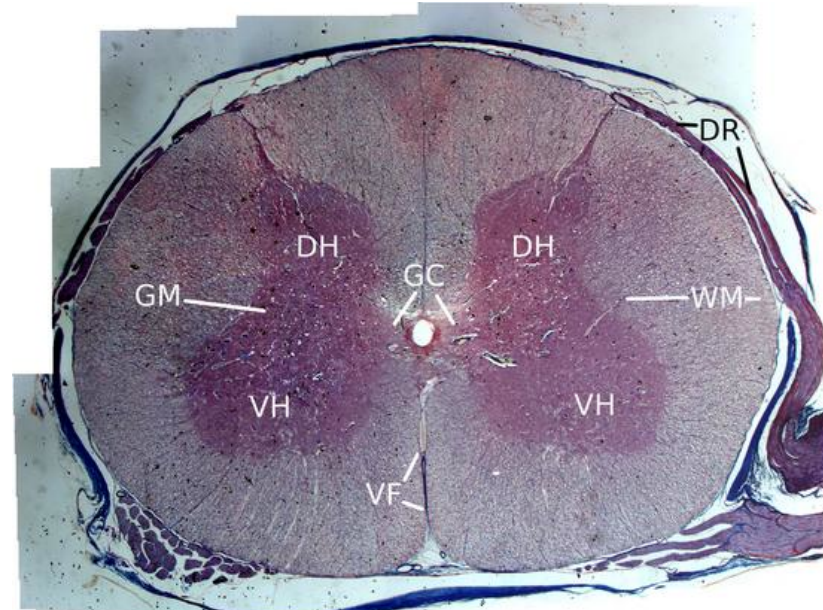
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# Spinal motor neurons

Motor neurons lie in the ventral horn (gray matter) of the spinal cord (VH in the image)

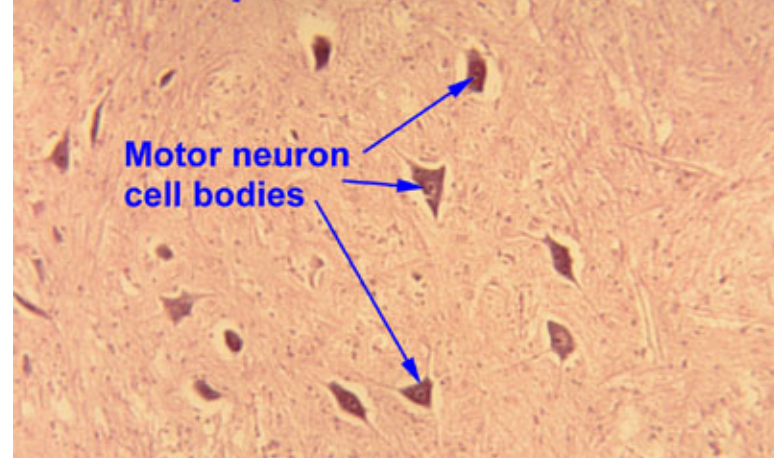
Motor neurons send their axons to muscle fibers forming the neuromuscular junction (NMJ)

- Motor neurons are some of the biggest neurons in the CNS (cell bodies  $\sim 70 \mu\text{m}$ )



<https://bcrc.bio.umass.edu/courses/spring2013/biol/biol523/content/spinal-cord-cross-section-2x>

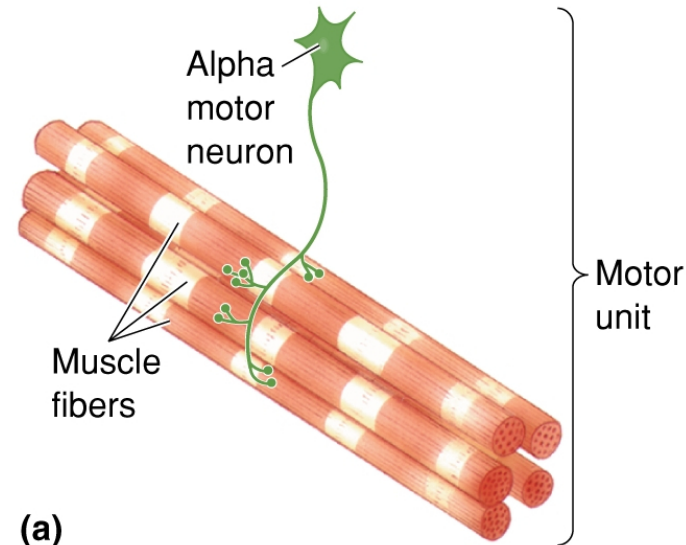
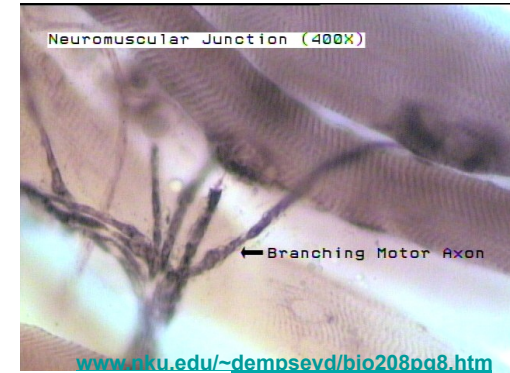
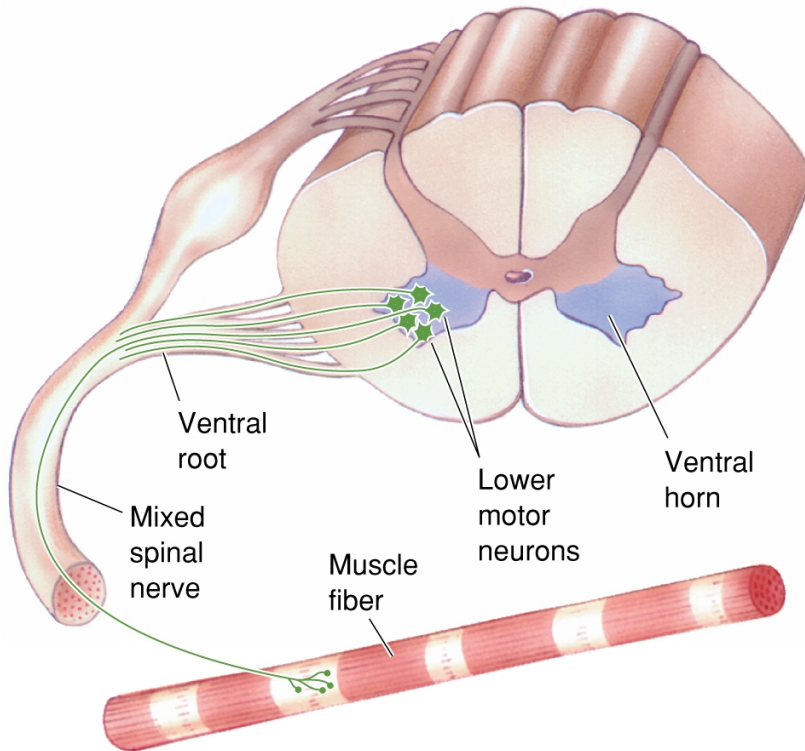
## Slide 3 Spinal cord



[http://www.ouhsc.edu/histology/Glass%20slides/3\\_02.jpg](http://www.ouhsc.edu/histology/Glass%20slides/3_02.jpg)



# Motor neuronal control of muscles



Highly myelinated and large axons (fast connection from spinal cord to muscles)

Release vesicles with ACh (acetylcholine) that causes the muscle fiber to contract

coordinated release from many neurons cause movements of the entire muscle

# Neuromuscular junction (NMJ) is a cholinergic synapse

## Acetylcholine (ACh)

- made from acetate & choline

## One of the best studied transmitter system

- at the neuromuscular junction (muscle contraction) and much of the ANS

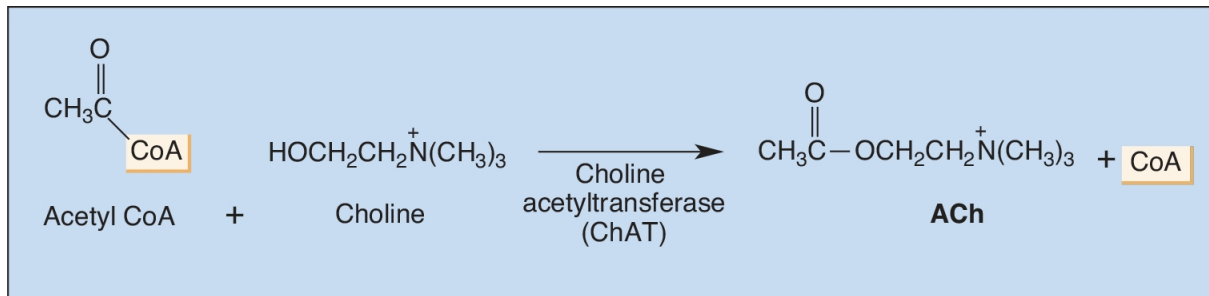
## Two receptor families

- nicotinic (ionotropic)
- muscarinic (metabotropic)



# Making & breaking acetylcholine

- Synthesizing ACh requires two enzymes
  - acetyl coenzyme A & choline acetyltransferase
- Breaking down ACh requires only one enzyme
  - Acetylcholinesterase



*Synthesis takes place within neurons*

(a)

*Degradation takes place within synaptic cleft (acetic acid and choline can then be taken back into presynaptic cell for repackaging)*



(b)

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# Acetylcholine (ACh) receptors

## Nicotinic ACh receptors

- nicotine is an agonist
- ion channel opening is **excitatory**, non-selective cations
- on skeletal muscle (all voluntarily moved muscles)

## Muscarinic ACh receptors

- muscarine is an agonist
- G-protein coupled receptor to **inhibitory** currents ( $K^+$  out or  $Cl^-$  in) or second-messengers
- on smooth muscle (heart, bladder, intestines, etc.)

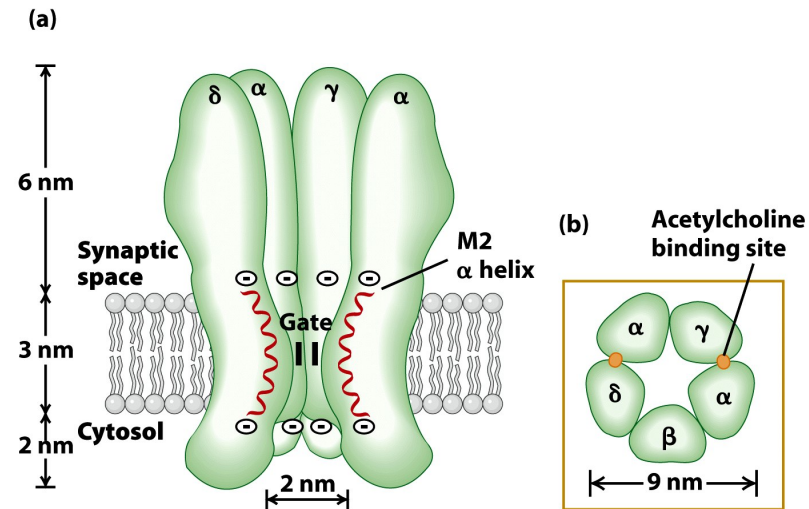
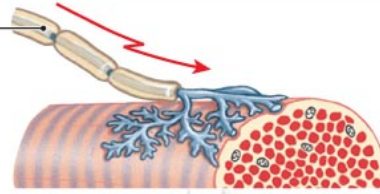


Figure 23-22  
Molecular Cell Biology, Sixth Edition  
© 2008 W. H. Freeman and Company

# The sequence of events in skeletal muscle contraction

## Neural Control

A skeletal muscle fiber contracts when stimulated by a motor neuron at a neuromuscular junction. The stimulus arrives in the form of an action potential at the synaptic terminal.



## Excitation-contraction coupling

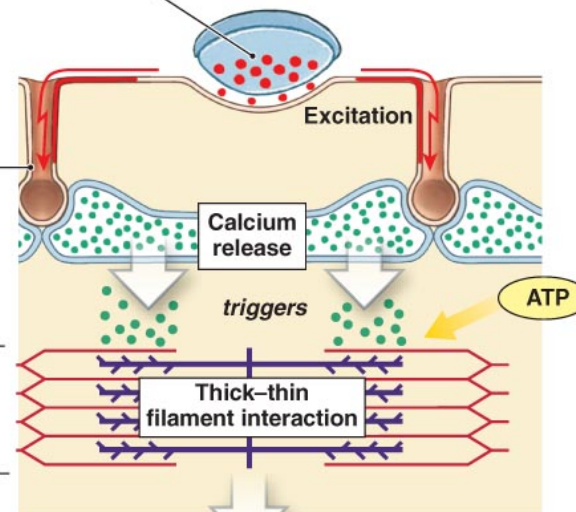
At the synaptic terminal, the action potential causes the release of ACh into the synaptic cleft. The ACh diffuses to the motor end plate, binds to receptors, and opens sodium ion channels, which leads to the production of an action potential in the sarcolemma.

The action potential in the sarcolemma travels along the T tubules to the triads, where it triggers the release of calcium ions from the terminal cisternae of the sarcoplasmic reticulum.

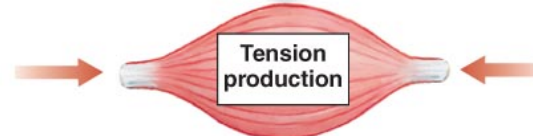
The contraction cycle then begins, and it will continue as long as ATP is available and action potentials are still produced at the motor end plate.

As the thick and thin filaments interact, the sarcomeres shorten, pulling the ends of the muscle fiber closer together.

During the contraction, the entire skeletal muscle shortens and produces a pull, or tension, on the tendons at either end.



leads to



# Congenital myasthenic syndromes (CMSs)

Neuromuscular transmission disrupted

Commonly appear at birth or early in life

Often impairment at NMJ of ocular, cranial and limb muscles

Table 1 | **Classification of CMSs**

Site of defect	Index cases
<b>Presynaptic defects (7%)</b>	
CHAT deficiency <sup>†</sup>	6
Paucity of synaptic vesicles and reduced quantal release	1
Lambert-Eaton syndrome like	1
Other presynaptic defects	4
<b>Synaptic basal lamina-associated defects (14%)</b>	
Endplate ACHE deficiency <sup>†</sup>	26
<b>Postsynaptic defects (79%)</b>	
Kinetic abnormality of AChR with/without AChR deficiency <sup>†</sup>	45
AChR deficiency with/without minor kinetic abnormality <sup>†</sup>	83
RAPSYN deficiency <sup>†</sup>	17
Plectin deficiency	1
<b>Total (100%)</b>	<b>185</b>

\*Classification based on cohort of congenital myasthenic syndrome patients investigated at the Mayo Clinic between 1988 and 2003. <sup>†</sup>Gene defects identified.

ACHE, acetylcholinesterase; AChR, acetylcholine receptor; CHAT, choline acetyltransferase; CMSs, congenital myasthenic syndromes.

# Myasthenia gravis

Autoimmune disease -  
Antibodies develop against one's  
own AChR interfering with the  
normal function of ACh



<http://www.myasthenia.org.au/assets/images/eyes2.jpg>

Nature Reviews Immunology 2, 797-804 (October 2002) |  
**Timeline: Unravelling the pathogenesis of myasthenia gravis**  
Angela Vincent<sup>1</sup>





# Loss of motor neurons leads to Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS)

## Symptoms

- general weakness, often in limb, with problems swallowing
- later, speaking problems, and loss of motor control

## Time course

- onset ranges, typically ~50 years old; death within 5 years of diagnosis



Baseball great Lou Gehrig retired because of his ALS. He died two years later.

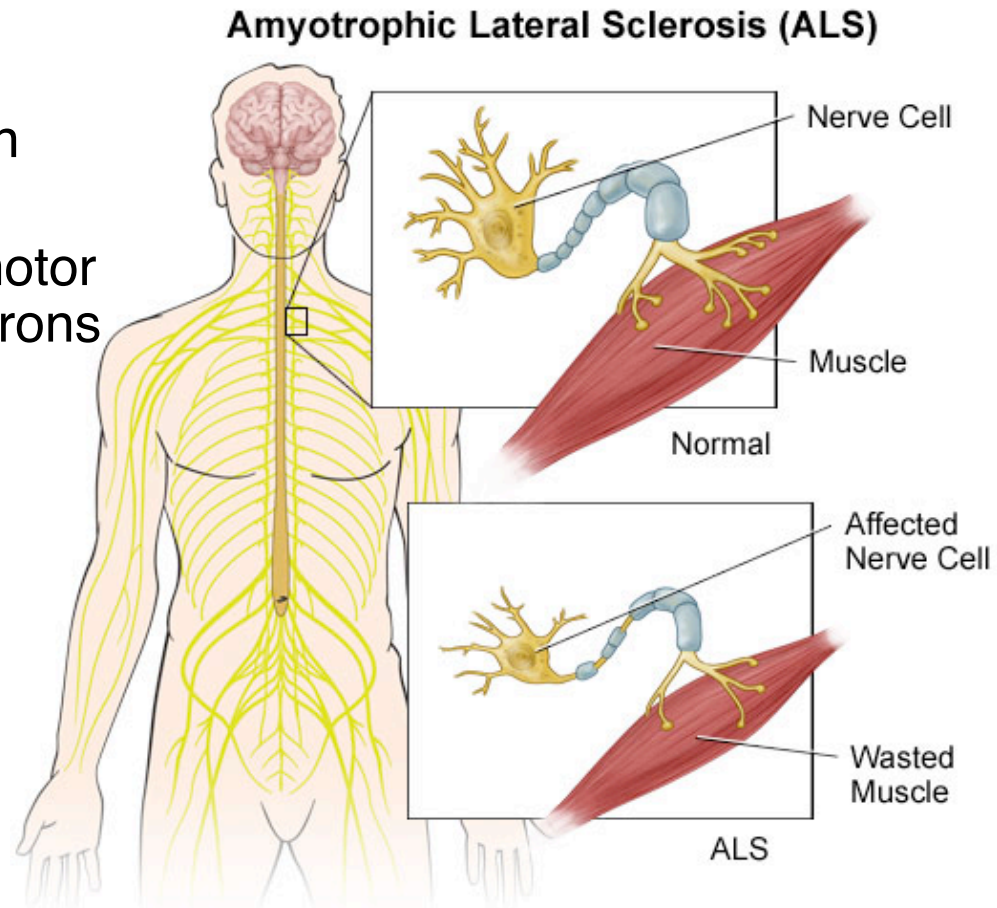
# Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis

## Cause

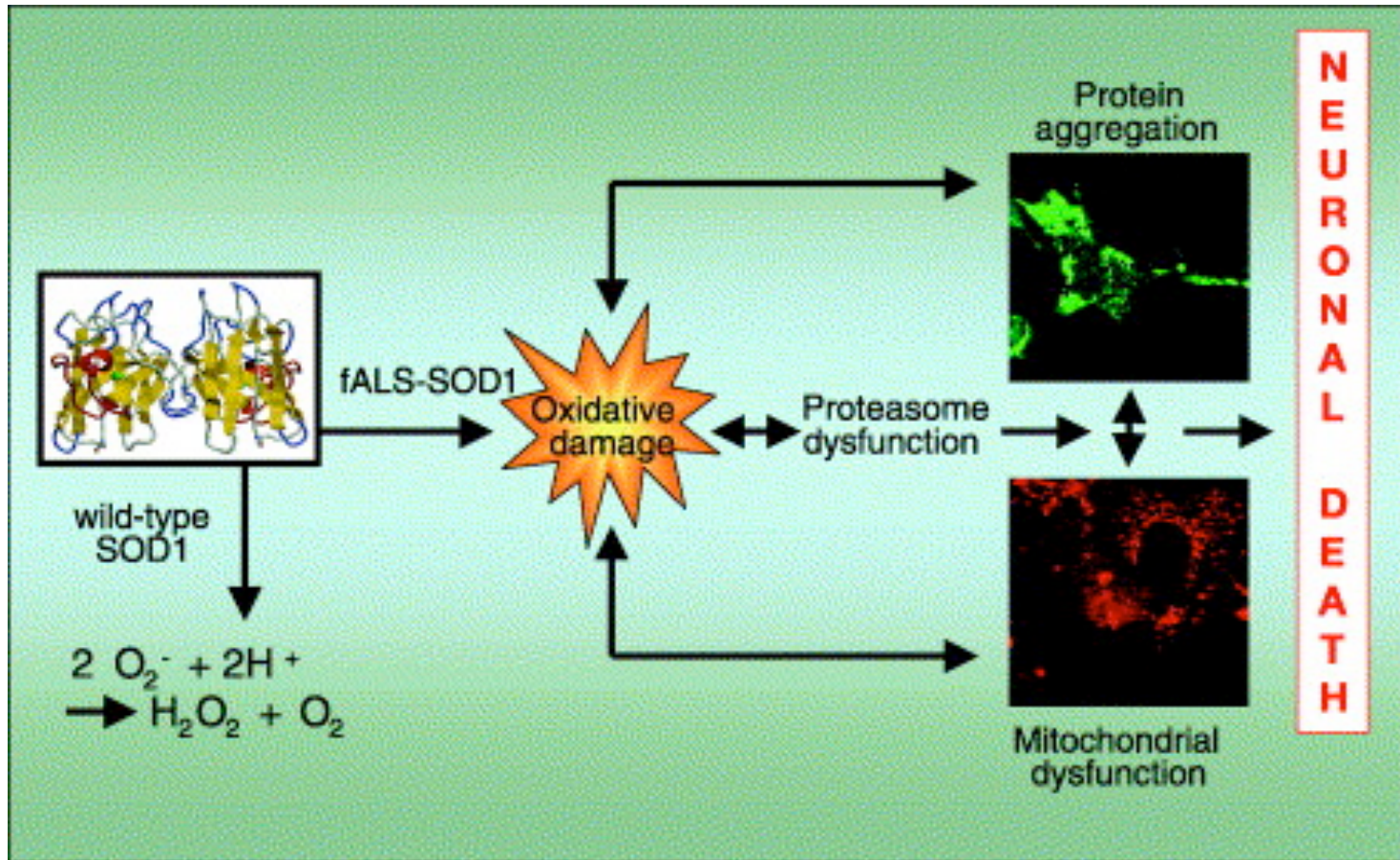
- unknown, multiple causes?
- one genetic cause (mutation in gene called *SOD1*) ~1-2%
- affects both primary cortical motor neurons *and* spinal motor neurons

## Treatment

- none currently, 90% of cases arise sporadically



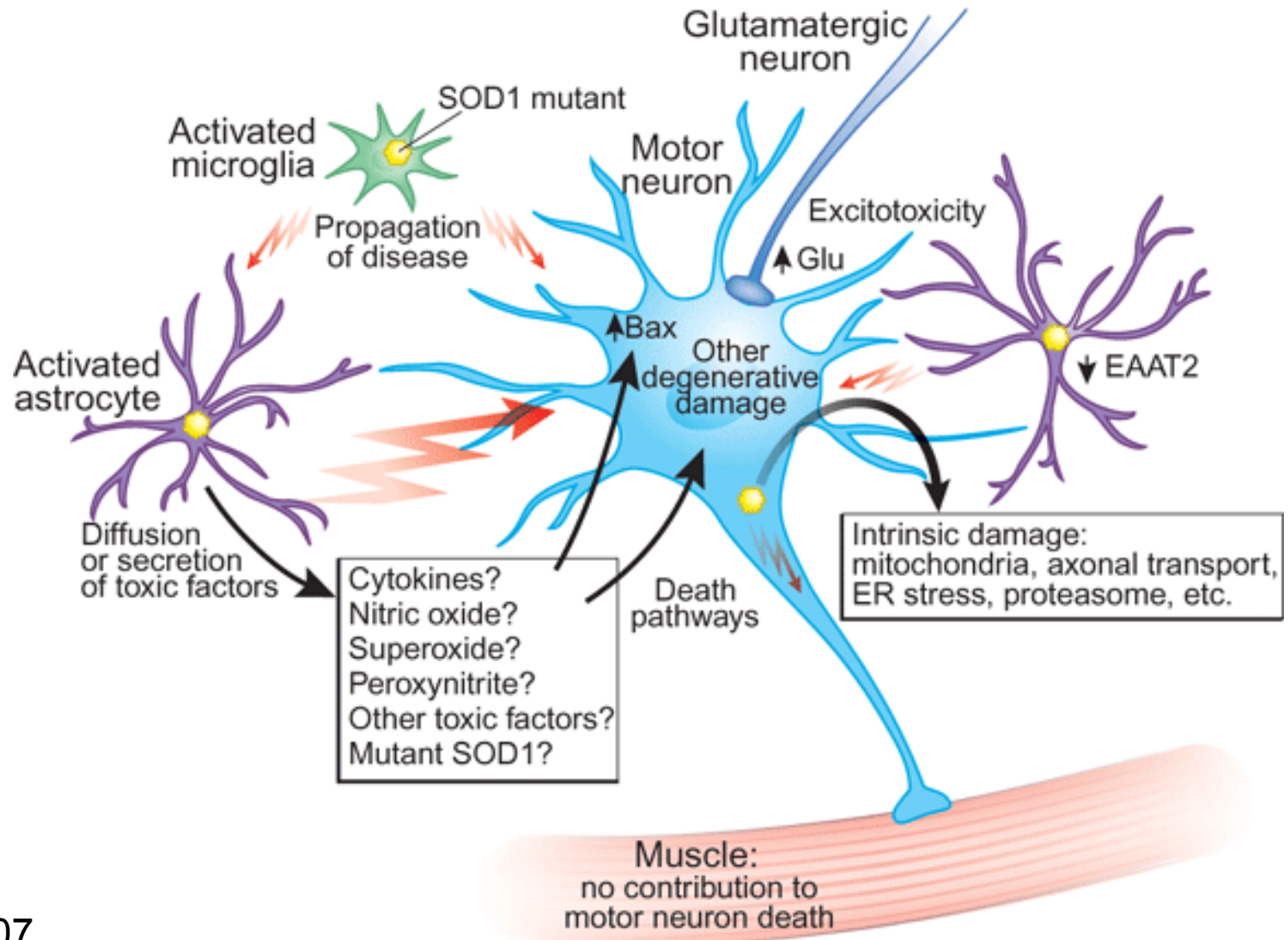
# How mutant SOD1 leads to death of motor neurons is still not fully understood



*SOD1 is an enzyme that metabolizes oxygen free radicals, helping to prevent oxidative damage*

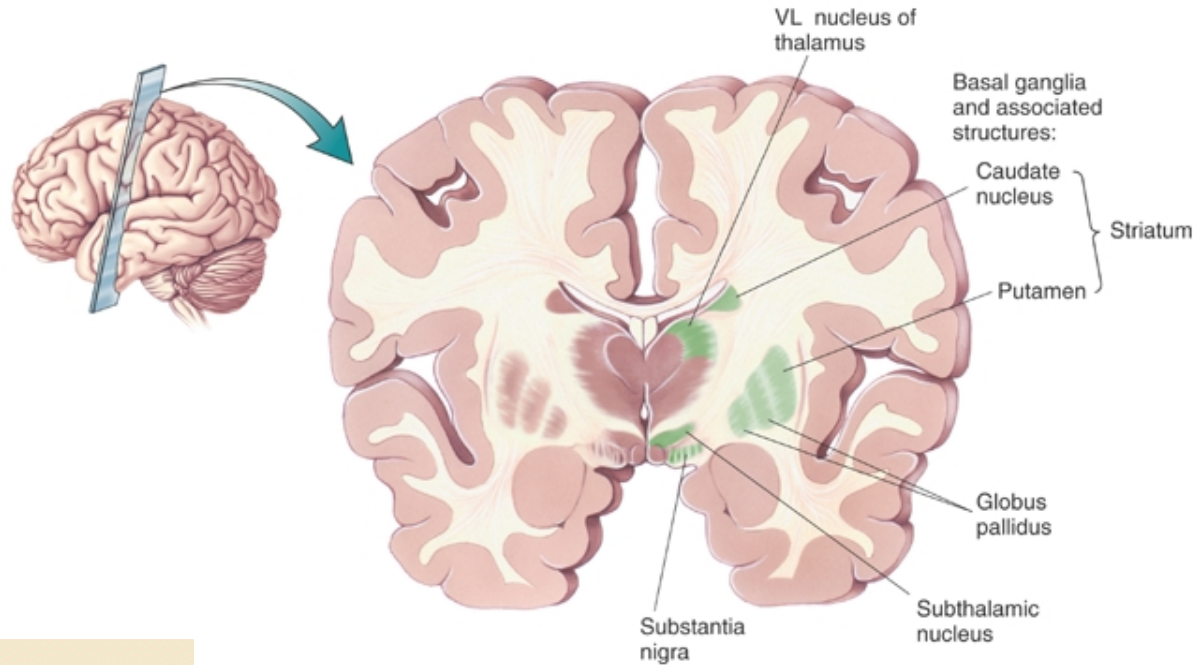


# Multiple cellular mechanisms proposed to explain how mutant SOD1 leads to disease

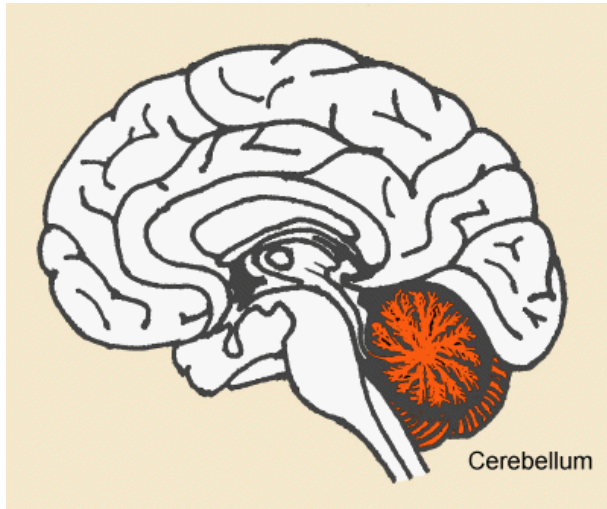


# Other brain regions involved in movement

## BASAL GANGLIA



## CEREBELLUM

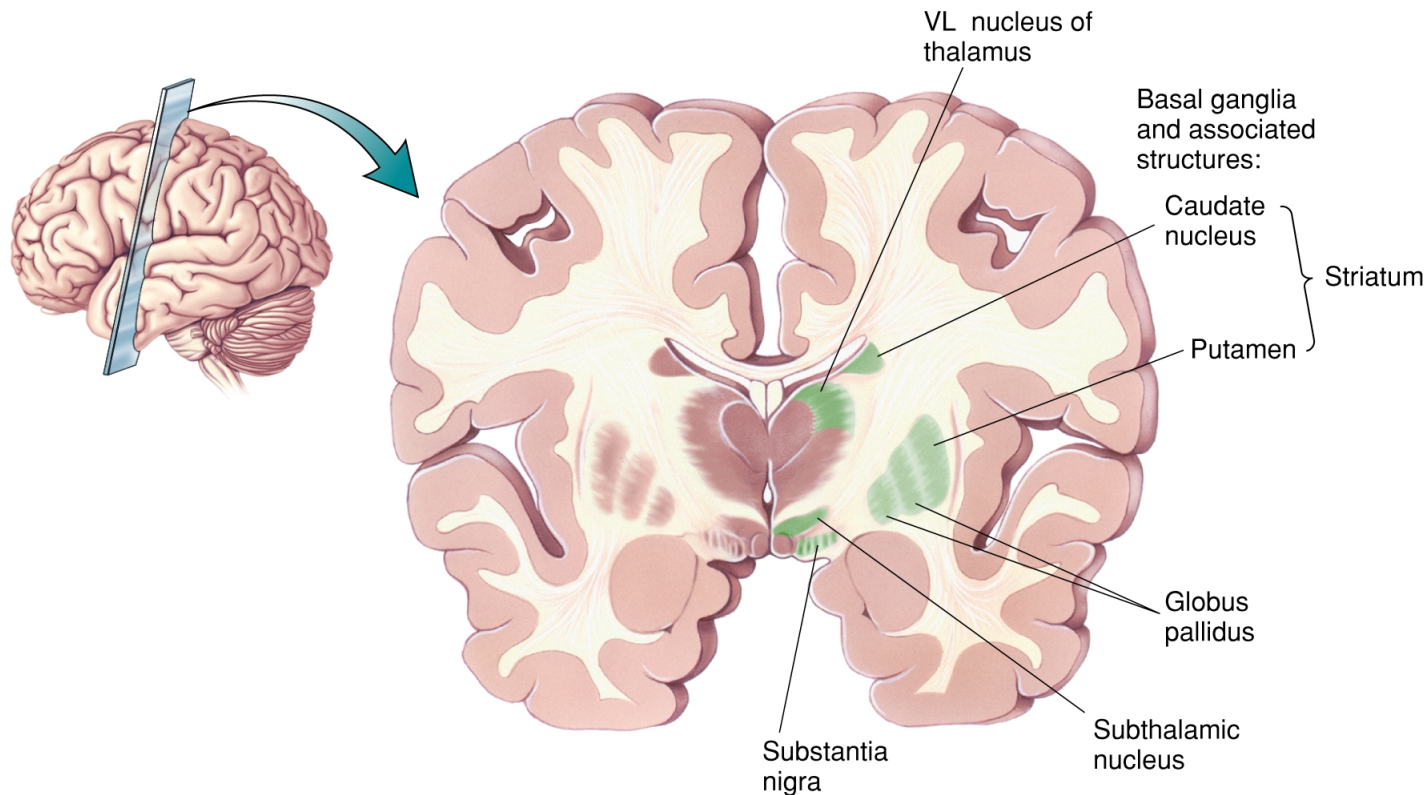


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# Anatomy of the basal ganglia

Large group of distinct nuclei (includes the **striatum** (caudate nucleus + putamen), **globus pallidus**, and **subthalamus**)



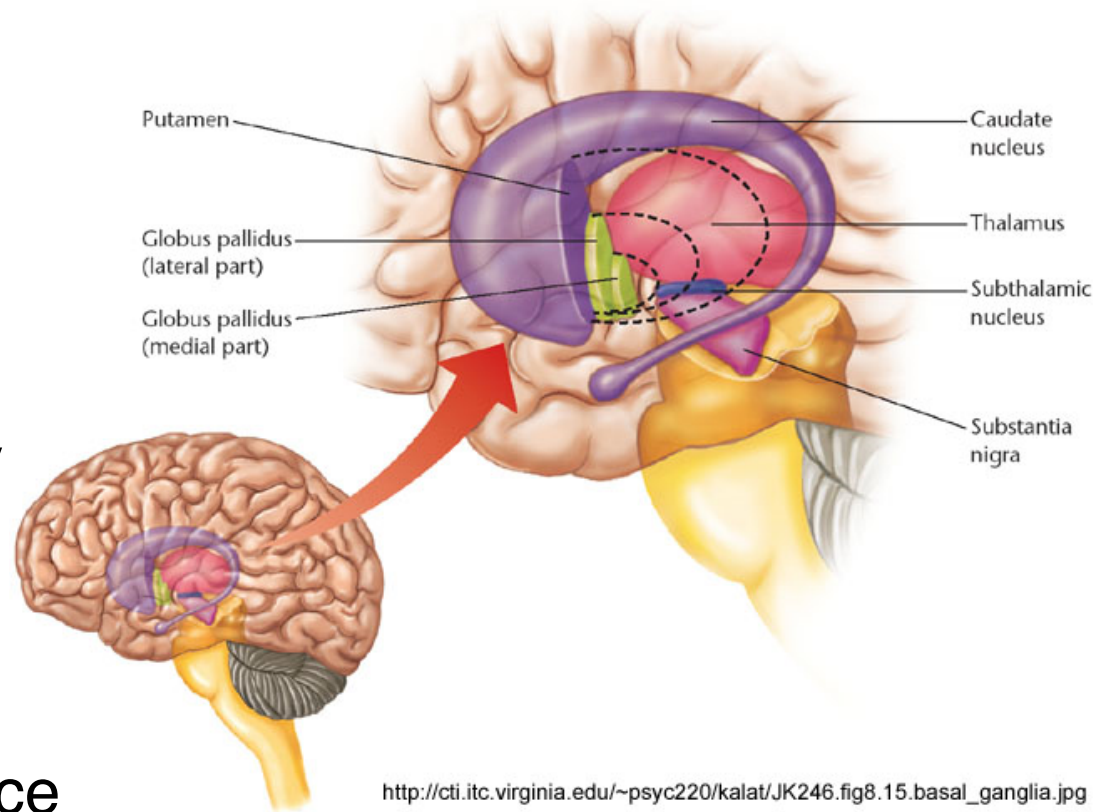
# Basal ganglia

## Damage causes many disorders

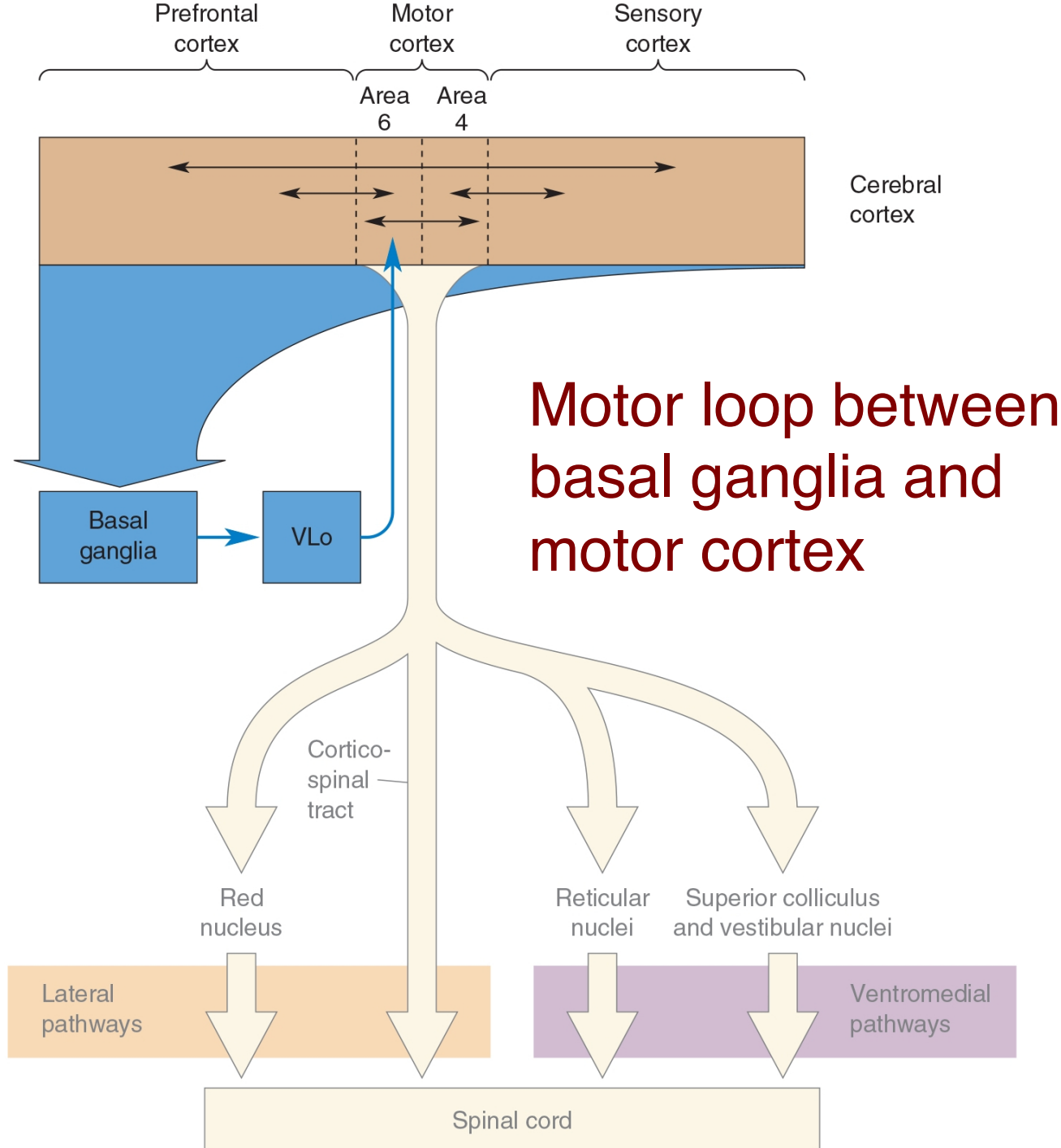
- hyperkinetic or involuntary movements
- hypokinetic or reduced movement ability

## Suggests a role in the amount of movement force

- regulating excitatory and inhibitory signals

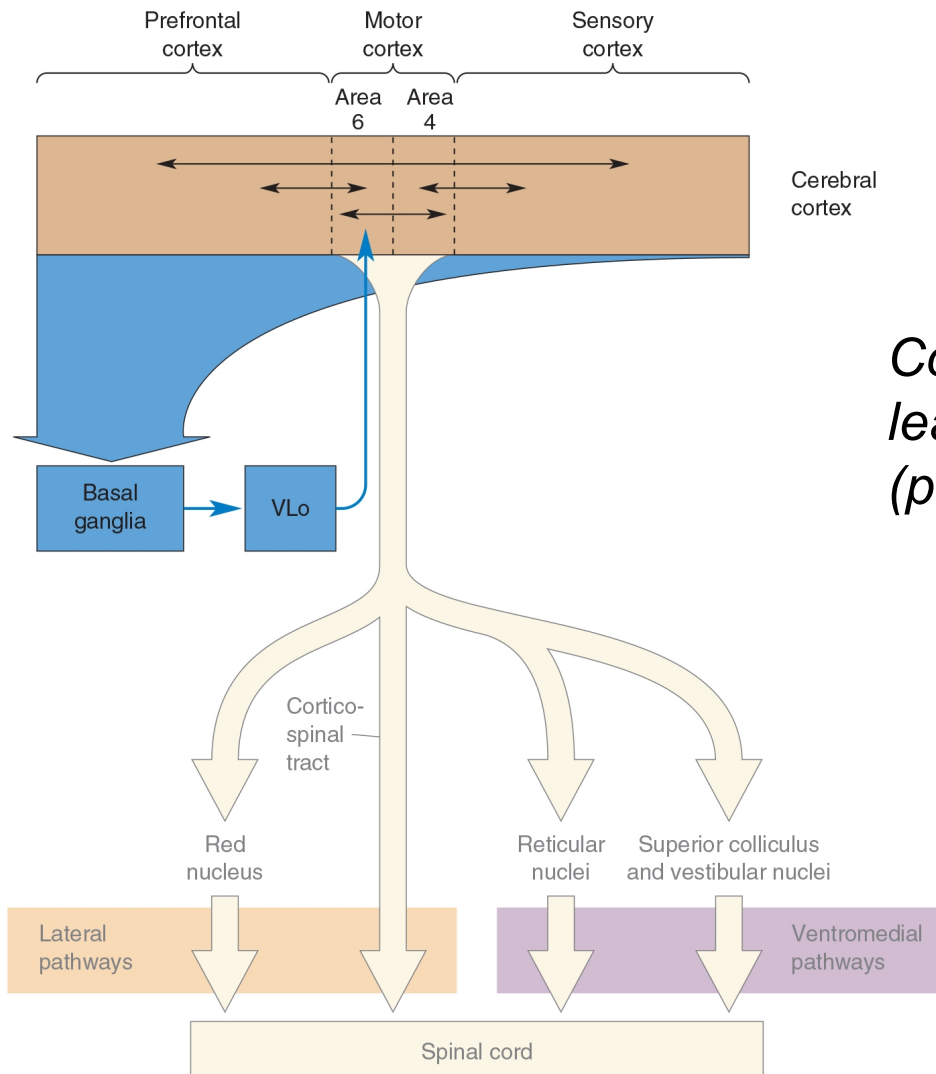


[http://cti.itc.virginia.edu/~psyc220/kalat/JK246.fig8.15.basal\\_ganglia.jpg](http://cti.itc.virginia.edu/~psyc220/kalat/JK246.fig8.15.basal_ganglia.jpg)



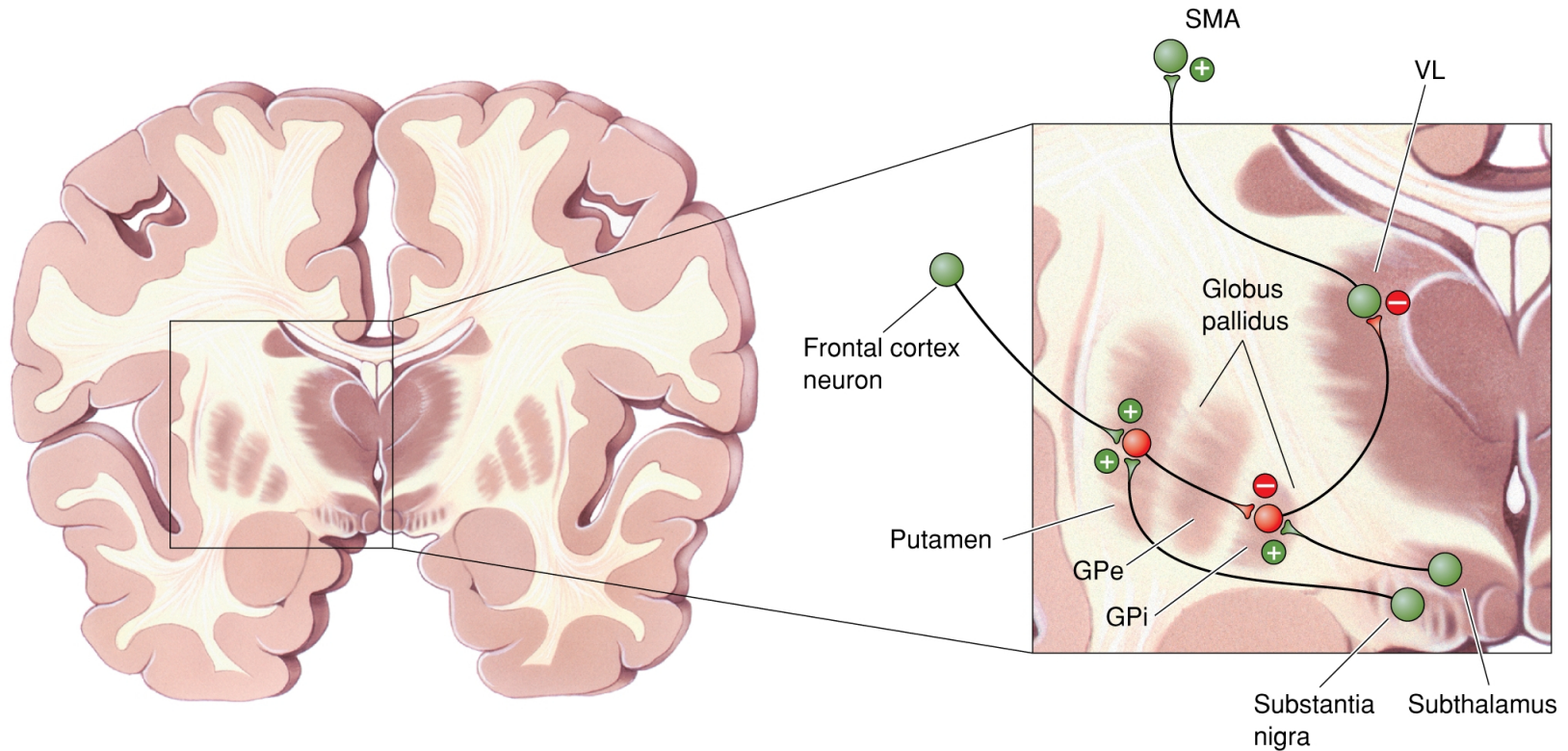
# The motor loop

**Cortex --- Striatum --- Globus Pallidus --- VLo (thalamus) --- Cortex (SMA)**



*Cortical activation of the striatum leads to excitation of the SMA (part of Pre motor cortex – Area 6)*

# Basal ganglia motor loop



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## Inhibitory pathway and excitatory pathways

Relationship between excitatory versus inhibitory may allow for the adjustment of movement force



# Disorders that involve the basal ganglia

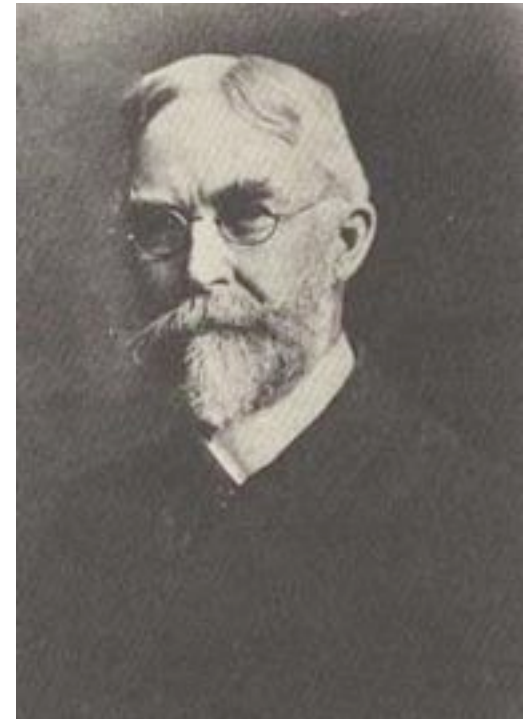
# Huntington's disease

## Symptoms

- cognitive (trouble learning, remembering old facts or skills)
- progresses to motor impairment (unsteady gait), & chorea (involuntary movements)

## Time course

- onset ~30-45 years old, dead within 10-20 years; younger onset, quicker progression
- affects both sexes; high incidence in certain families (Venezuelan town has >700 cases)



George Huntington described the disease in 1872.

# Huntington's disease

## Cause

- genetic: the CAG repeat in the *huntingtin* gene
- CAG encodes a glutamine (amino acid), should be <30 in a row, in disease, from 40-100
- targets basal ganglia

## Treatment

- none currently; simple genetic test to determine risk

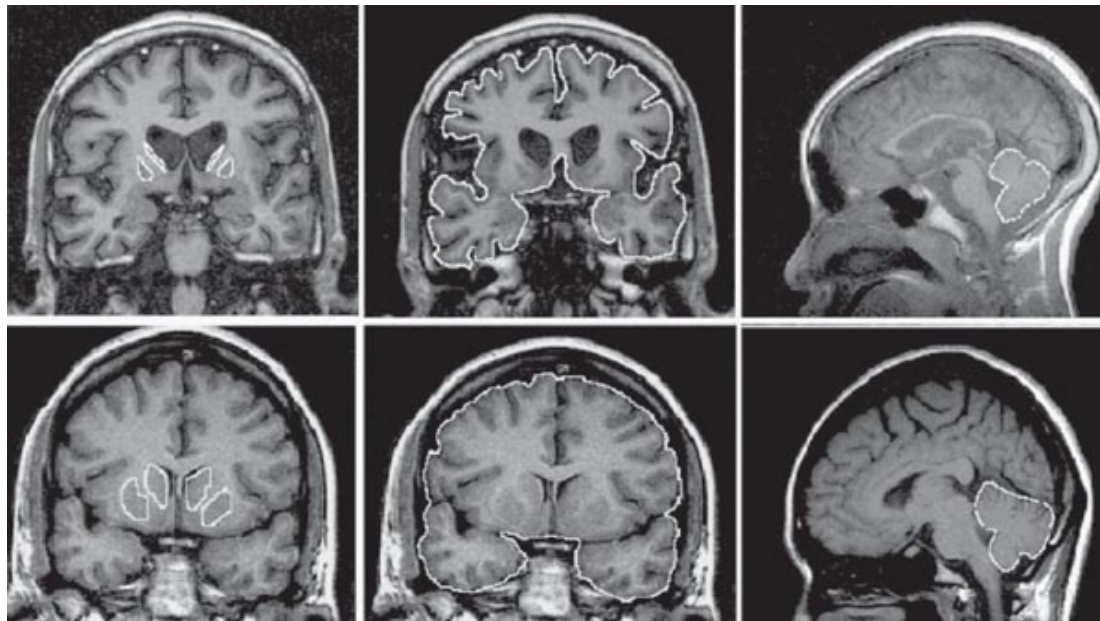
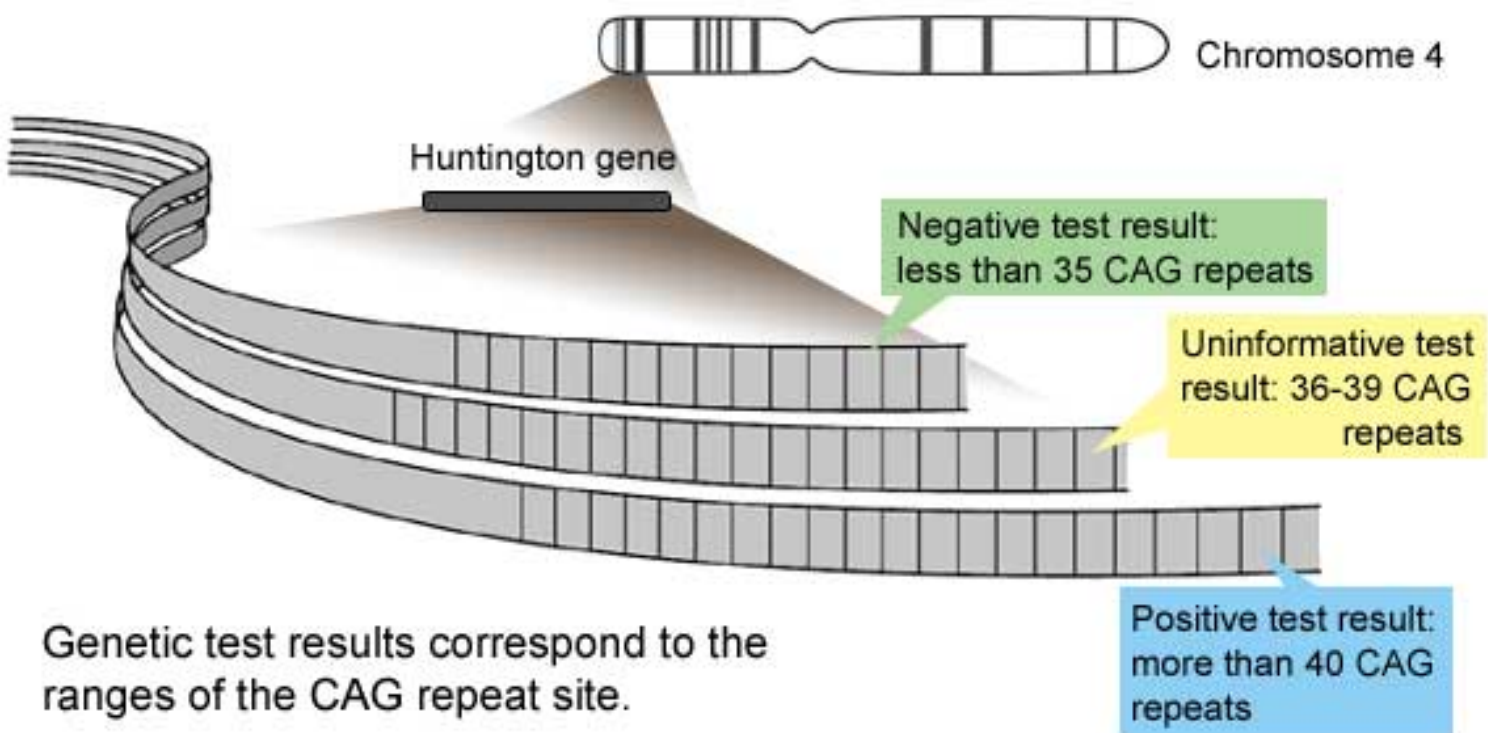


Figure S-3: CAG Repeat Counts on the Huntington gene



Expansion of CAG repeats in the *huntingtin* gene; CAG codes for glutamine in the huntingtin protein

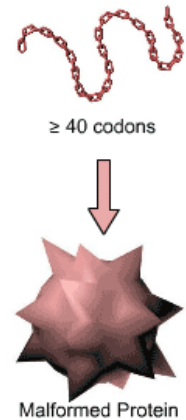
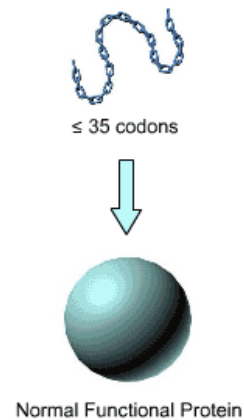


Figure D-4: Effect of HD on the Basal Ganglia

Normal Basal Ganglia

vs.

HD Basal Ganglia

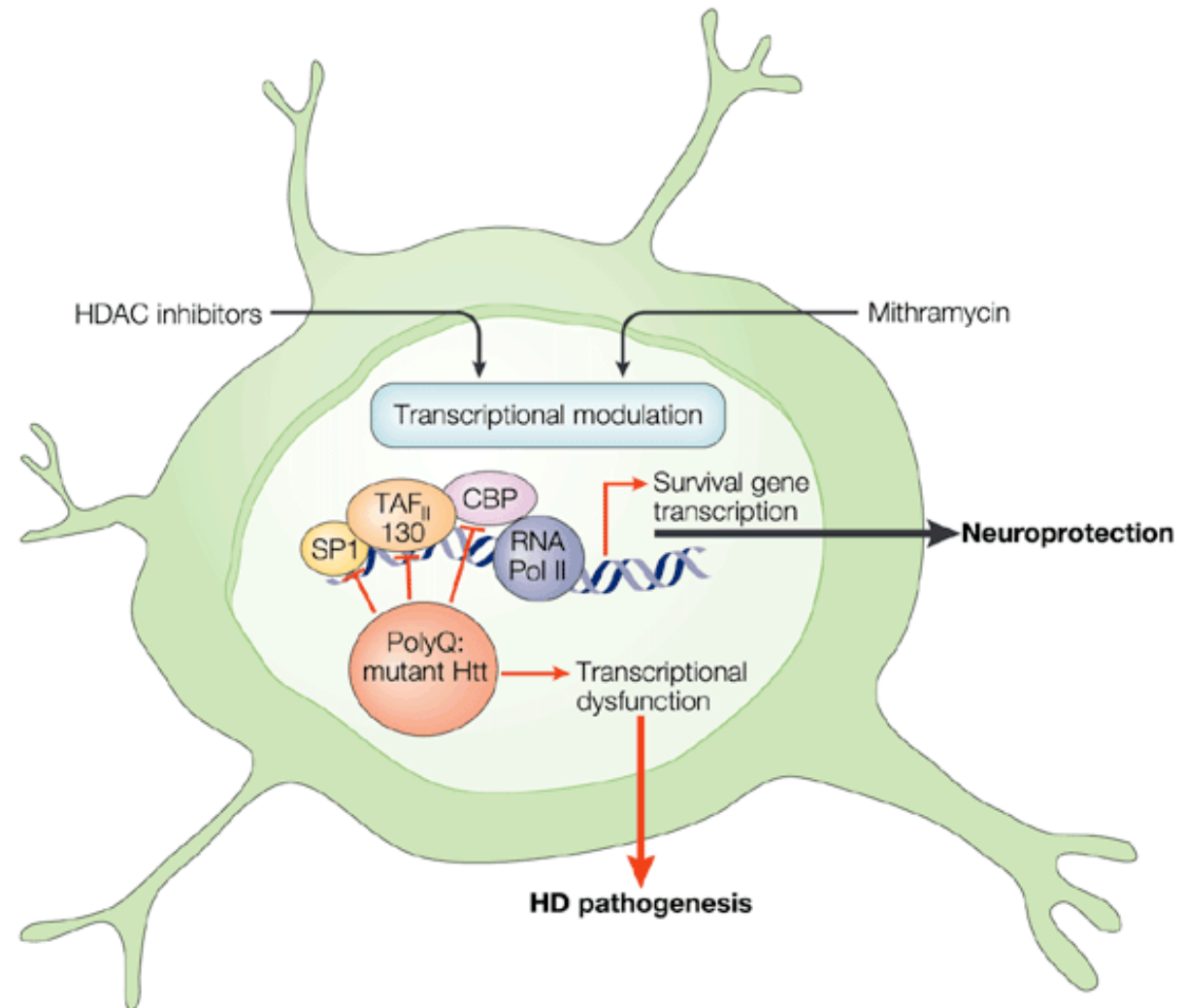


The basal ganglia of the human brain, showing the impact of HD on brain structure in this region. Note especially that the brain of a person with HD has bigger openings due to the death of nerve cells in that region.

Source: Singer, Jonathan. Huntington's Disease. Online. Available at:  
<http://ist-socrates.berkeley.edu/~jmp/HD.html>

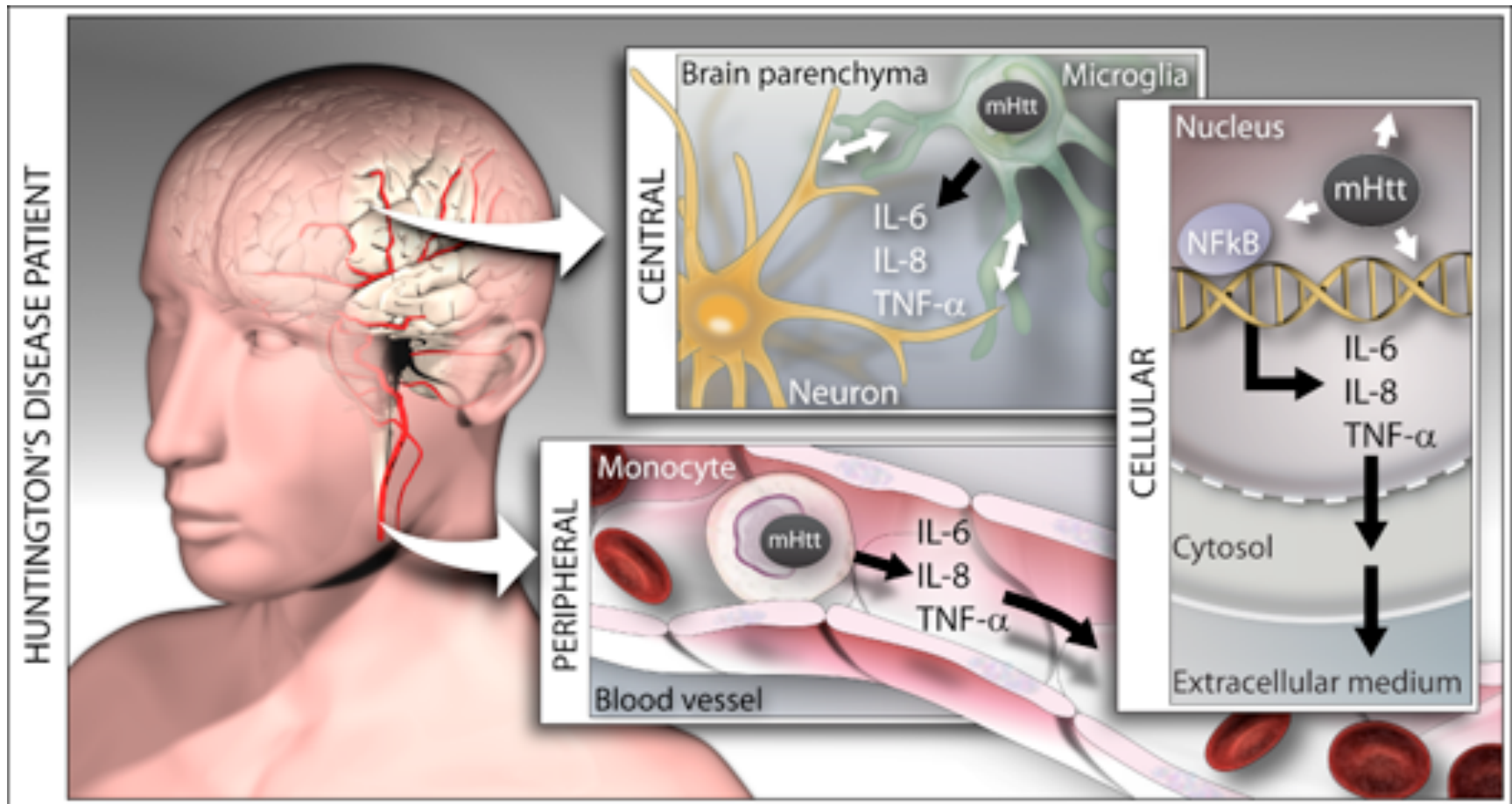


# Mutant *huntingtin* may alter gene expression by affecting transcriptional regulation



Flint Beal M., Ferrante R.J. Experimental therapeutics in mouse models of Huntington's disease. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience*. 2004; 5: 373-84.22

# Mutant *htt* may lead to increased expression of chemical signals involved in inflammation



# Parkinson's disease

## Symptoms

- four major symptoms: tremor, rigidity, slowness, & impaired balance
- leads to inability to do simple things
- cognitive loss over time

## Time course

- onset: in most cases, well over 50 years old, though some genetic start younger



Michael J. Fox has early onset Parkinson's, Muhammad Ali had a related condition.

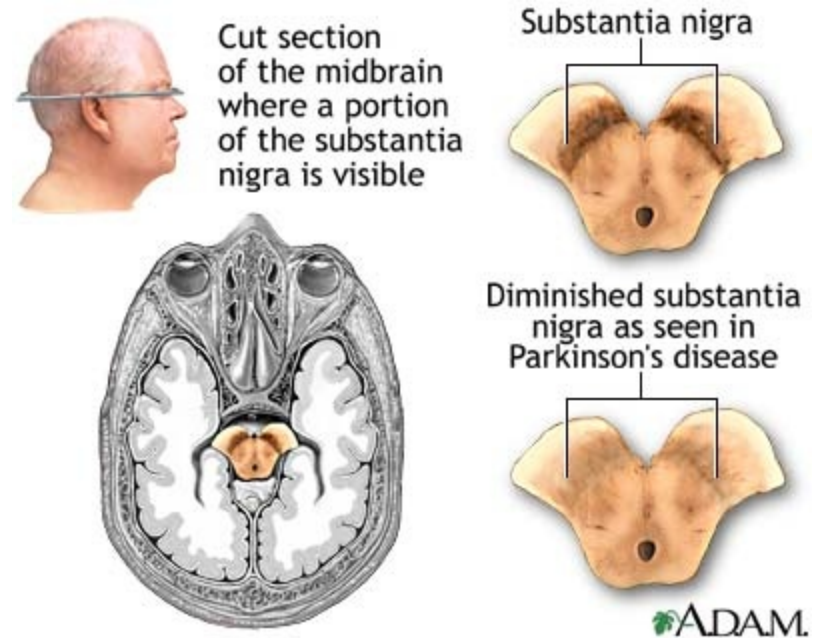
# The underlying basis of Parkinson's disease involves loss of specific dopaminergic neurons

## Cause

- loss of dopamine (DA) neurons in substantia nigra
- suggests that over life, these neurons are vulnerable

## Treatment

- no cure yet, but giving a DA precursor, L-DOPA, increases DA and motor functioning



*DA neurons from substantia nigra travel to the striatum in basal ganglia.*



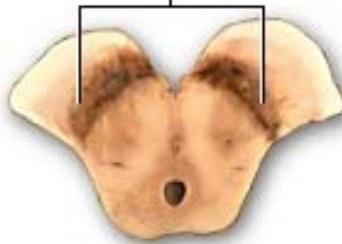
# Dopaminergic neurons from the substantia nigra are lost in Parkinson's disease



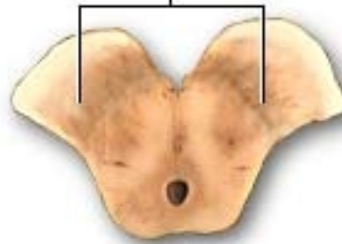
Cut section of the midbrain where a portion of the substantia nigra is visible



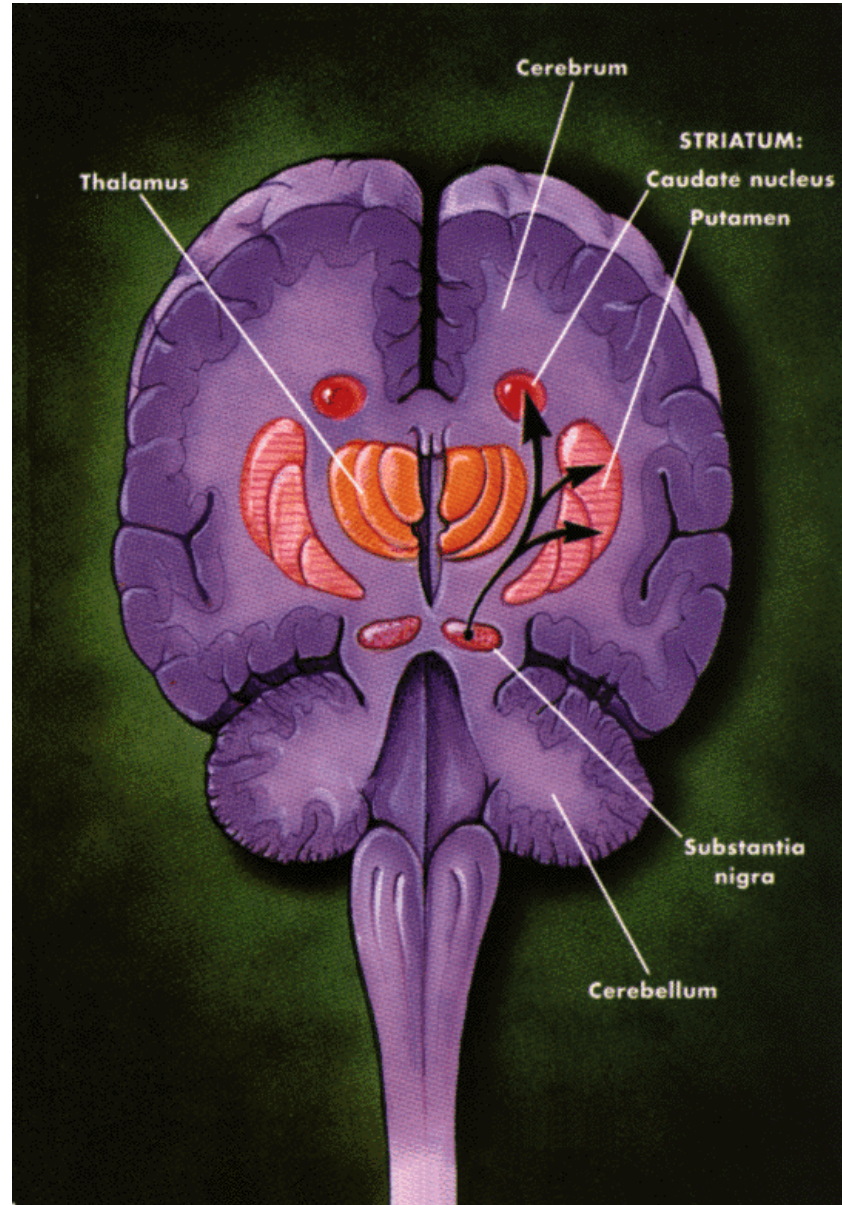
Substantia nigra



Diminished substantia nigra as seen in Parkinson's disease

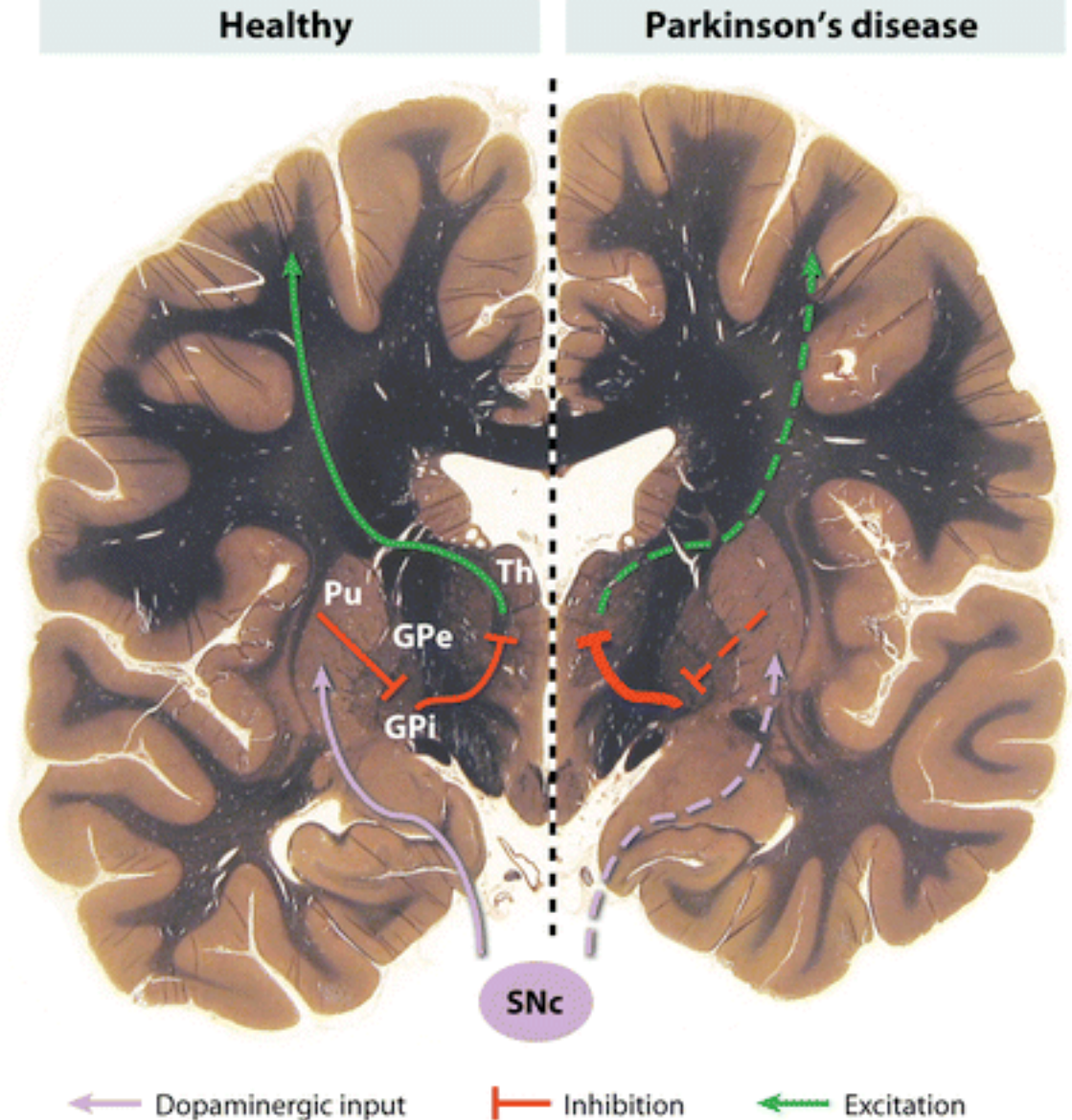


ADAM.



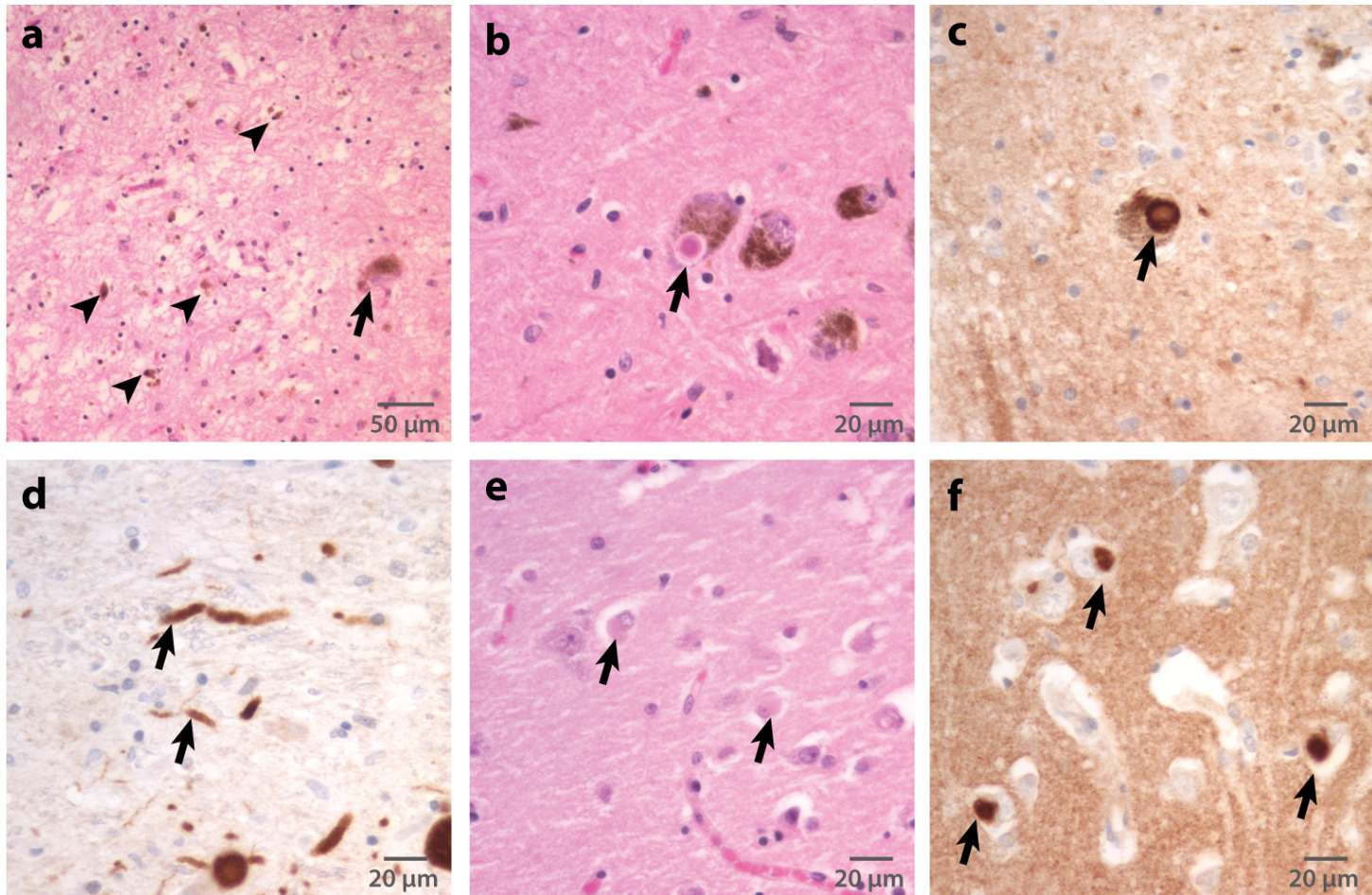


How loss of substantia nigral neurons affects the motor loop

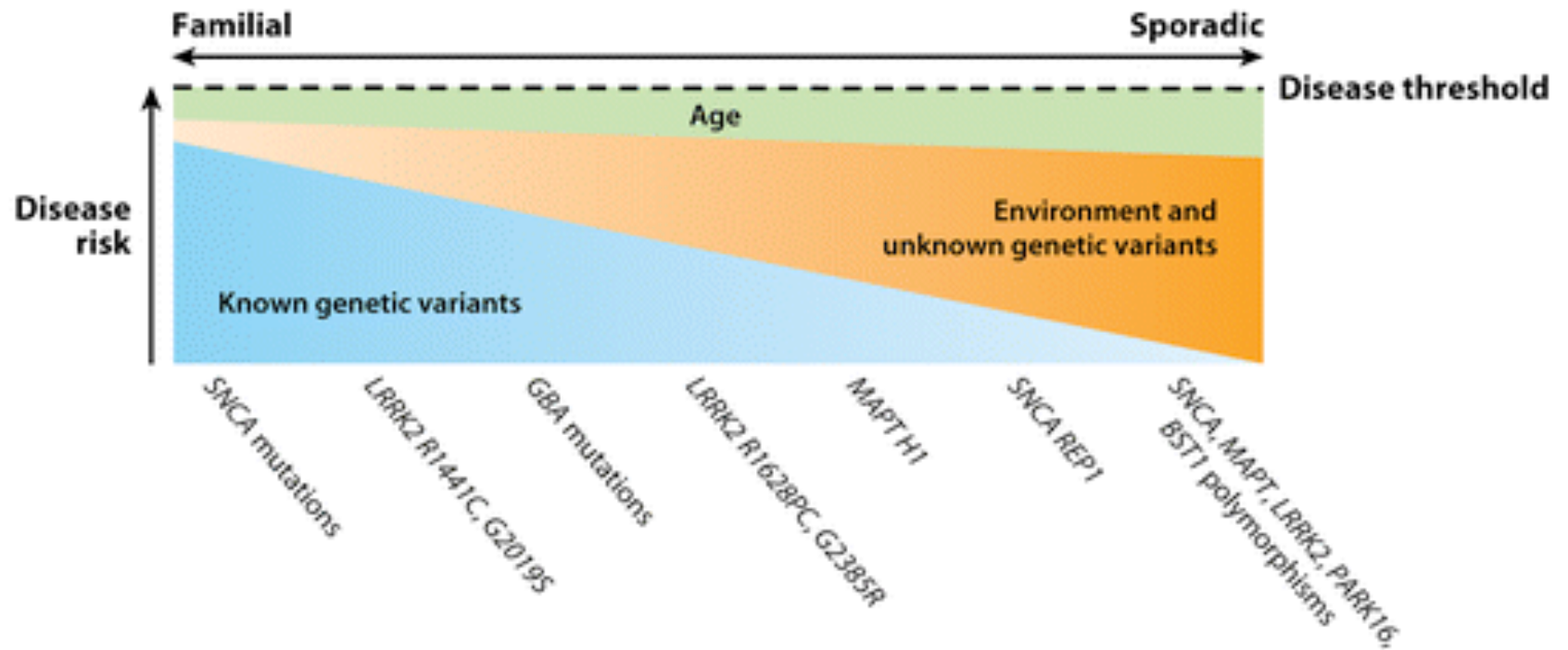



**AR** Shulman JM, et al. 2011.  
Annu. Rev. Pathol. Mech. Dis. 6:193–222

# Another characteristic of Parkinson's is the presence of Lewy bodies



# Factors that affect PD risk

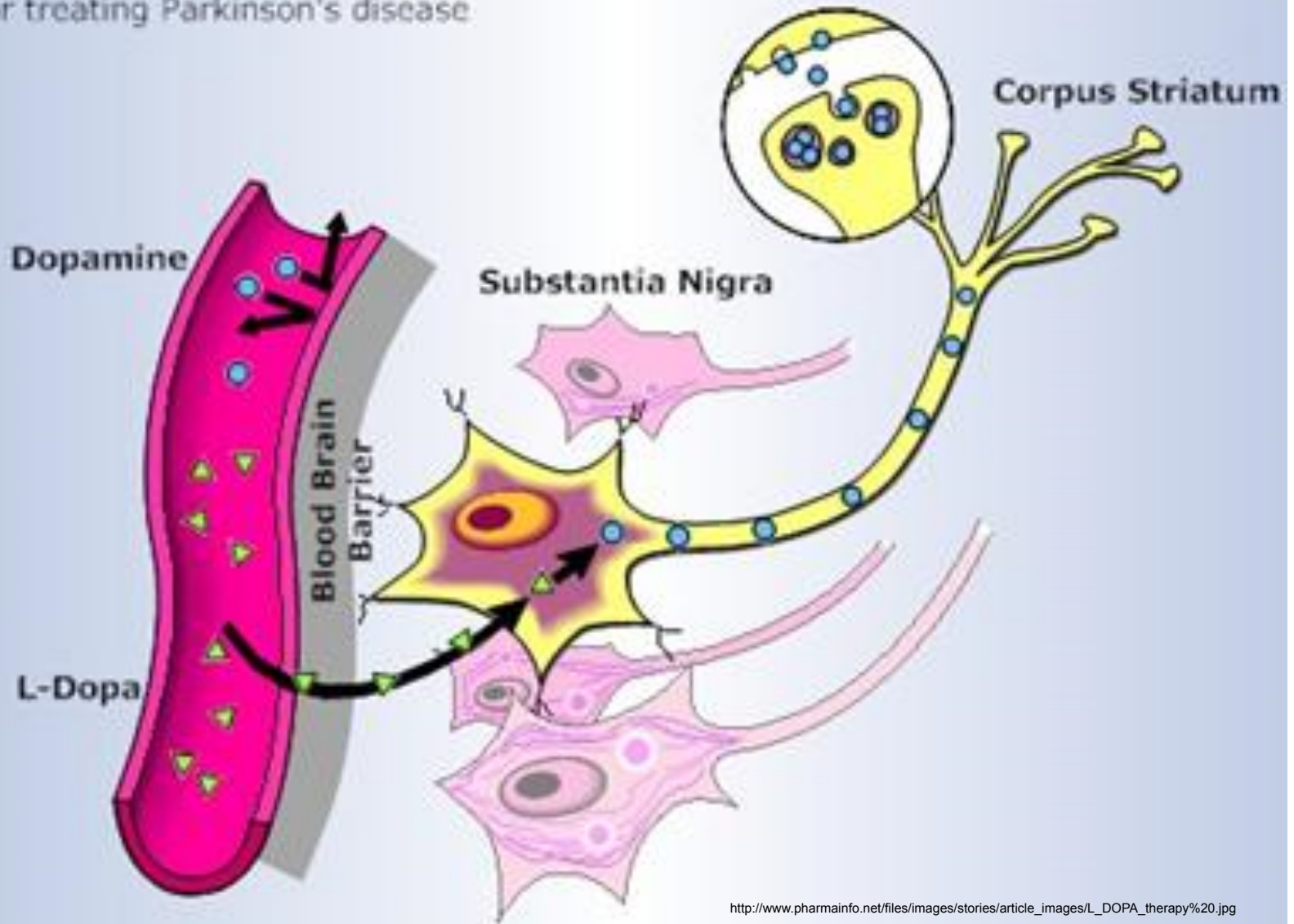


 Shulman JM, et al. 2011.  
Annu. Rev. Pathol. Mech. Dis. 6:193–222



# L-DOPA THERAPY

for treating Parkinson's disease



# Tourette's syndrome

## Symptoms

- motor (often facial) & vocal tics (grunting): can be simple (involving just a few muscle groups) or more complex
- spectrum disorder; different degrees of intensity

## Time course

- onset between 2-15 years old (males 3-4 times more often); life-long, but normal expected lifespan



# Tourette's syndrome

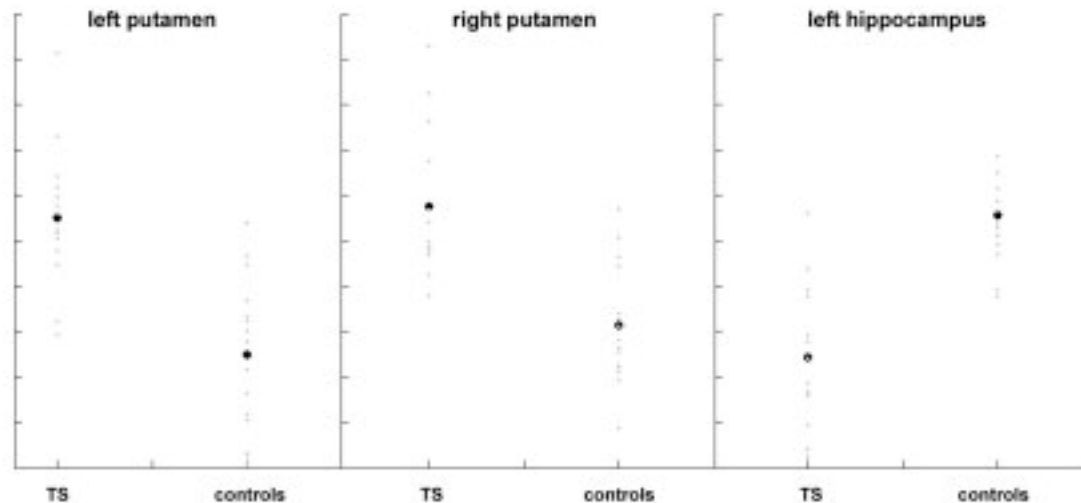
Affects basal ganglia and connecting circuits

## Cause

- Largely unknown; both genetic & environmental factors implicated

## Treatment

- most need none; many get better as they get older
- if frequent, medications are dopamine antagonists



*Structural changes in different nuclei of the basal ganglia identified – affects regulation of motor force*

Kusubeck et al., (2006)

Gray matter volumes in TS patients; higher volume in putamen

# Cerebellum

## The 'little brain'

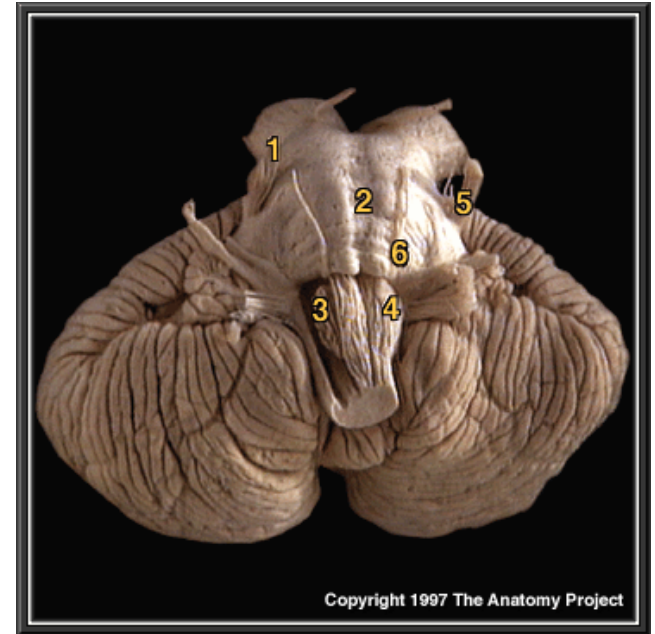
- two hemisphere and the vermis (Latin for 'worm')

Important in acquisition and maintenance of motor skills

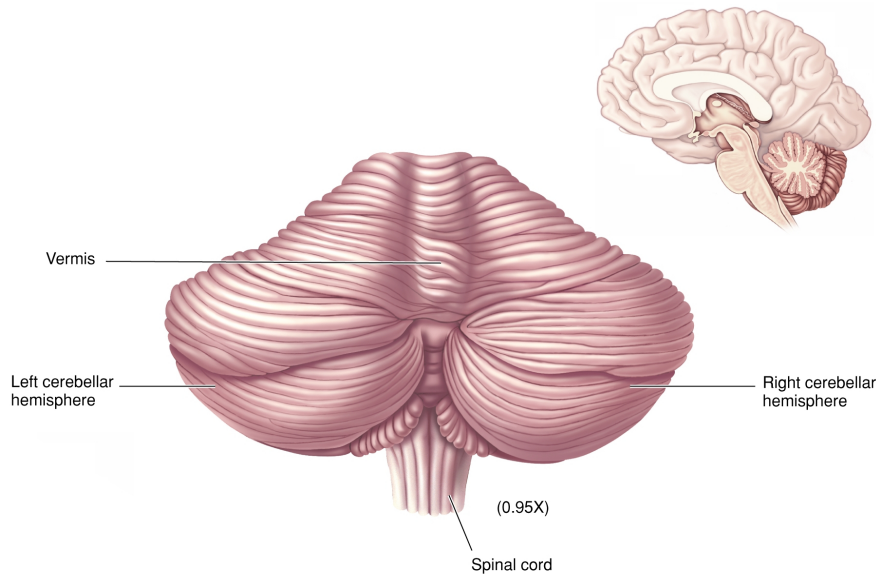
- motor timing
- error correction & movement adjustments



p130235 [10M] © www.visualphotos.com



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# Cerebellum contributes to the control of movement timing

## Cerebellum as timer

- tapping a finger in time with music requires a functional cerebellum
- anticipating length of time between stimuli

Possible that cerebellum times movement through coordination with neurons from the inferior olive in the medulla

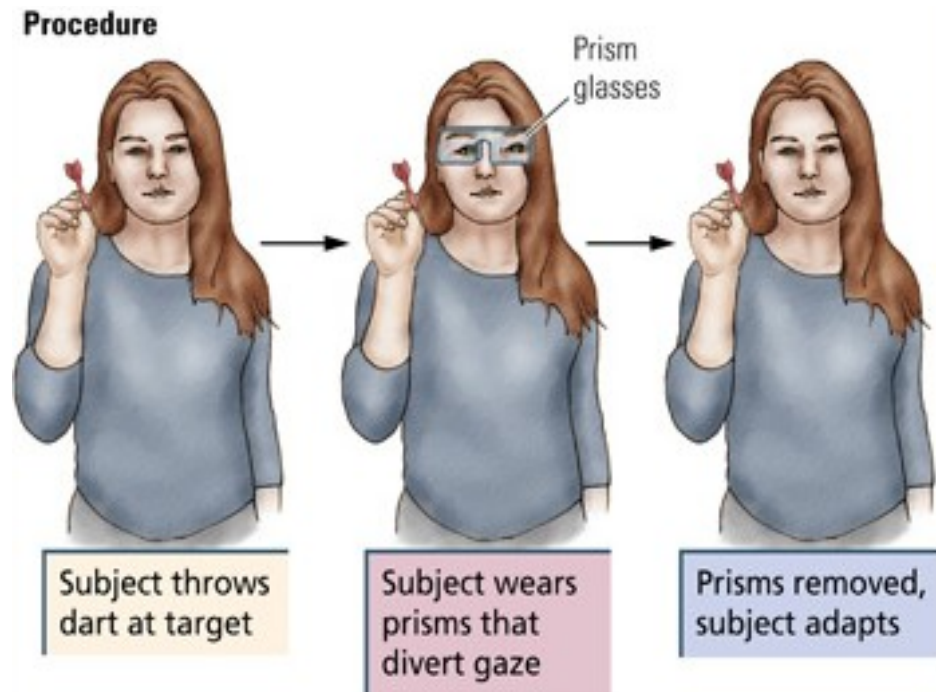


# Cerebellum also involved in adjusting movement to correct for errors

## Throwing darts experiment

- wearing distorting prism glasses throws off visual perception
- control and cerebellar-damaged subjects

How does cerebellum affect this?



Kolb and Whishaw, 2005

# Experimental results highlight the role of the cerebellum in error corrections

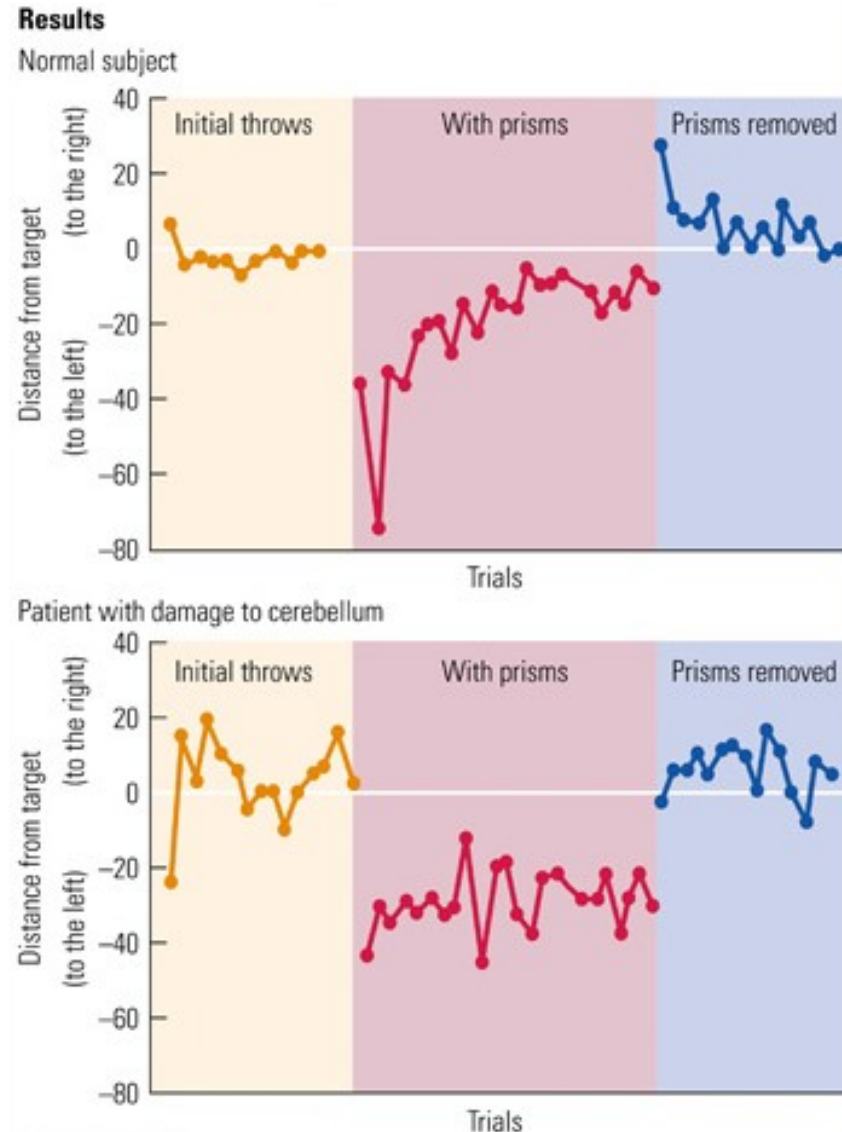
## Put glasses on

- control: 1<sup>st</sup> throw way off, get better with each throw
- damage: can't fix

## Take glasses back off

- control: miss badly, but fix
- damage: back to normal

‘Error correction’ by the cerebellum





# A neural circuit involved in error correction

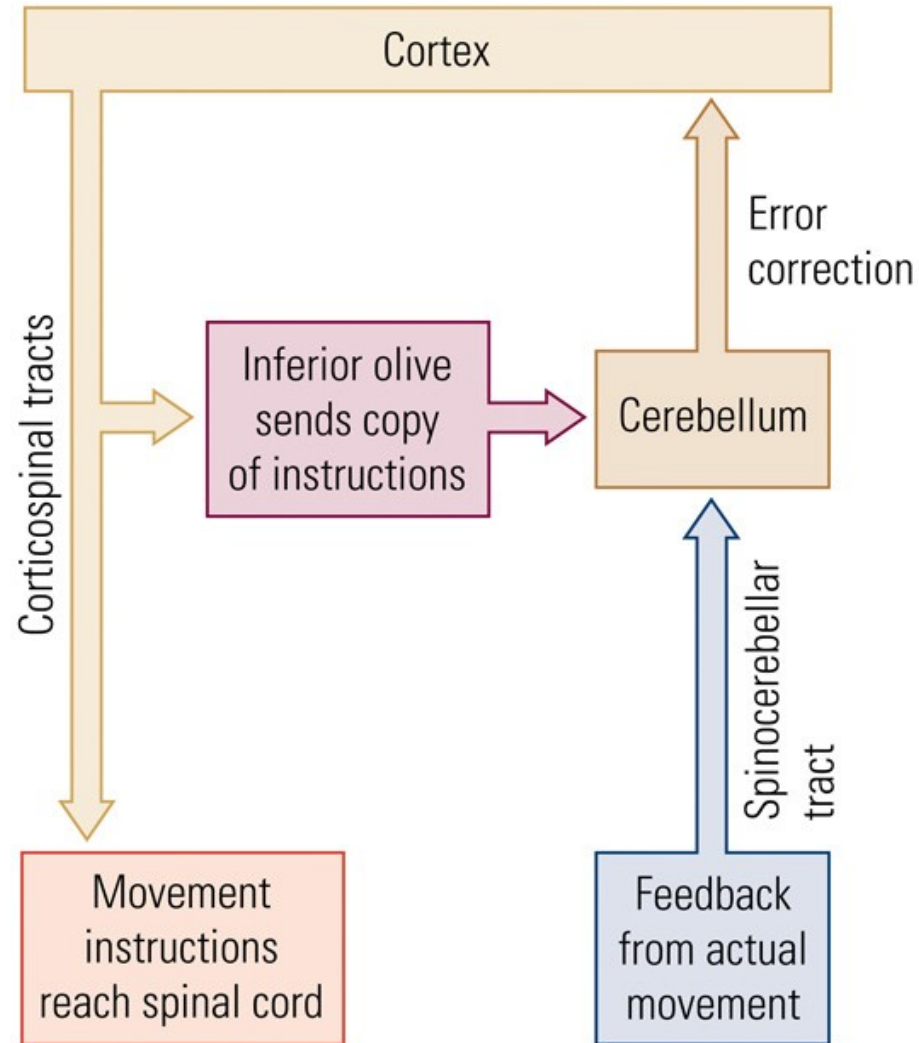
Motor cortex send signal to the spinal cord

- secondary copy sent to inferior olive (in medulla)

Cerebellum gets two signals

- inferior olive: the intended movement
- sensory input: the actual movement

Compare intended vs. actual movement



# Cerebellar ataxias

## Symptoms

- slow, but progressive lack of coordination & gait, esp. hands, speech, and eye movements

## Time course

- onset is usually >40 years old
- progression depends on particular type



The Ulas family in Turkey have a cerebellar ataxia and walk on all fours to compensate.

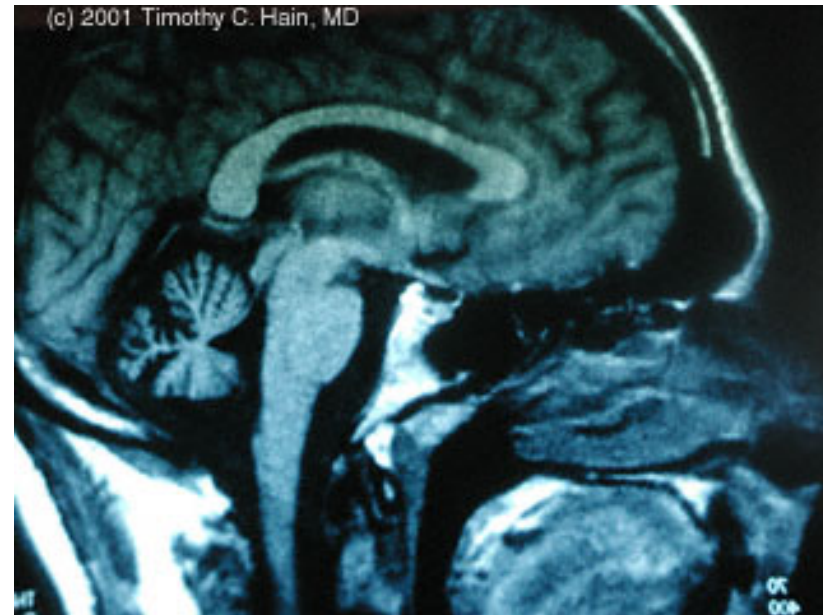
# Cerebellar ataxias

## Cause

- group of disorders
- both genetic and environmental
- genetic ones are often long, amino acid repeats (CAG/glutamine repeat; GAA/ glutamic acid repeat)
- loss of cerebellum neurons

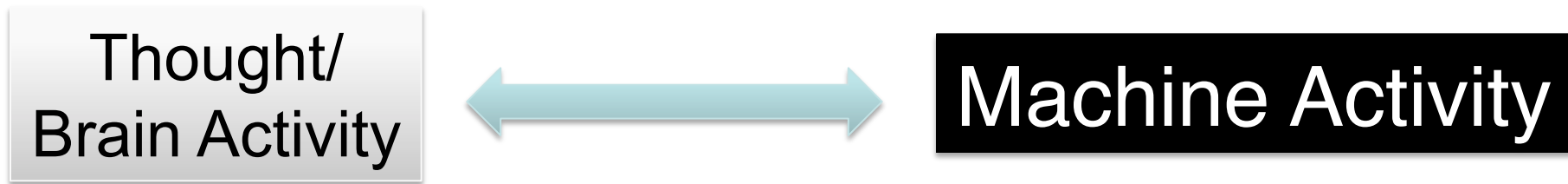
## Treatment

- none currently



Degeneration of the cerebellum

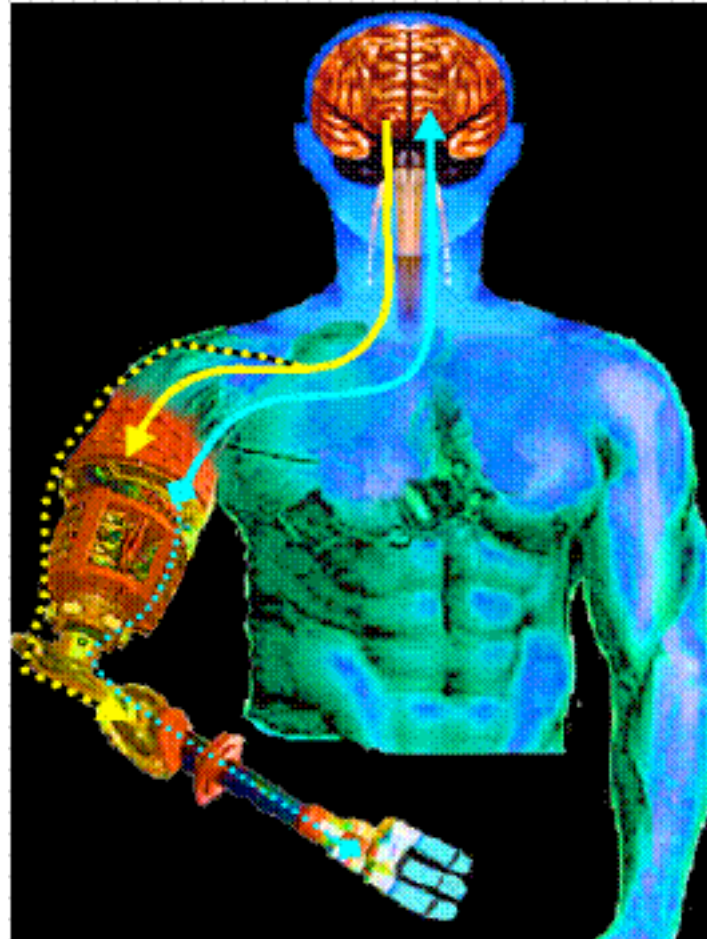
# Brain-machine interfaces (BMI) or brain-computer interfaces (BCI)



Allows for communication and interaction with the external world without relying on peripheral nervous or muscular system activity.

*Potentially useful for patients with severe brain damage, neurodegeneration, or spinal cord injury.*

# Neuroprosthetics

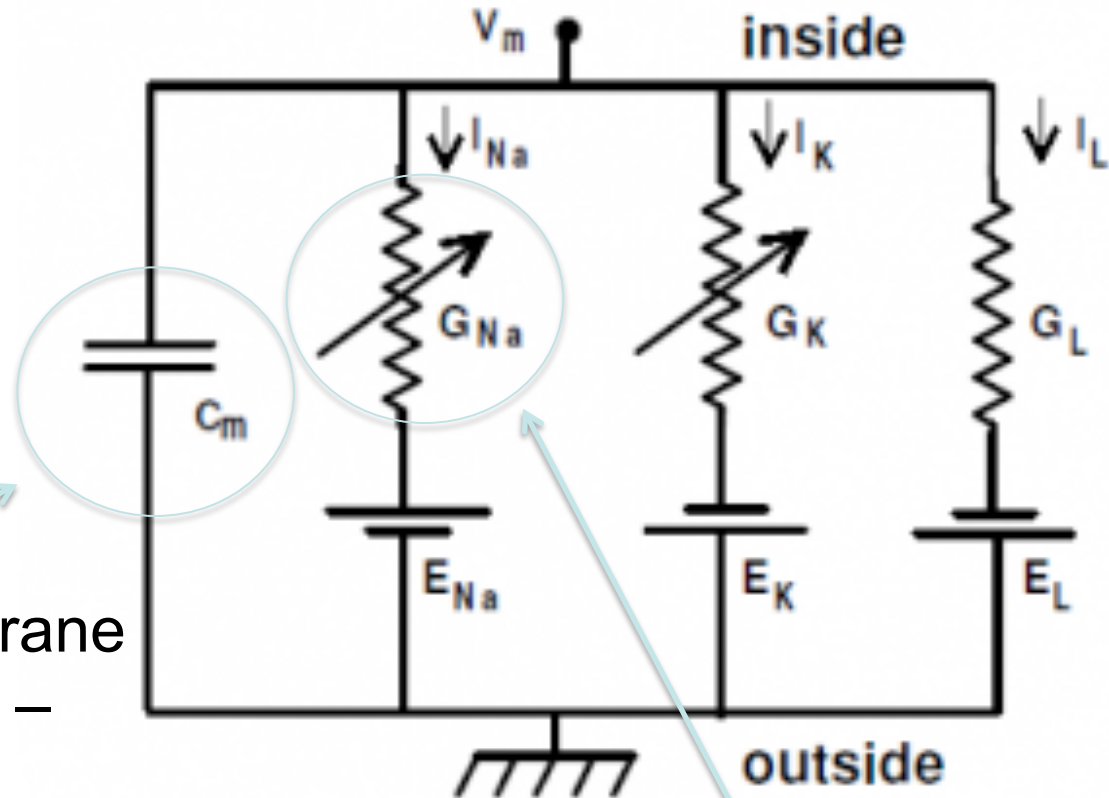




# Remember, neurons can be modeled as electrical circuits

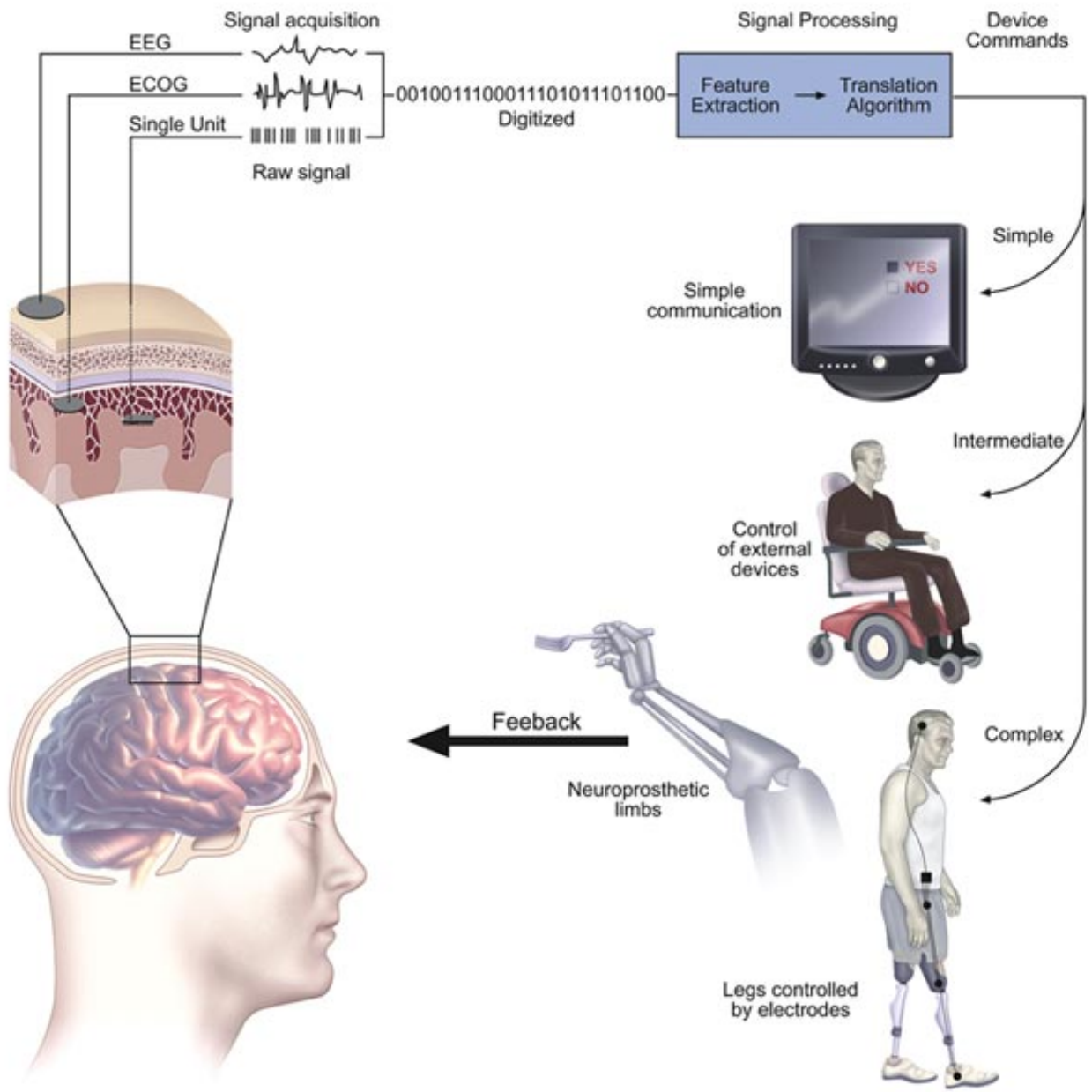
So electrical circuits can be built to fill in gaps in neural pathways

Neuron's membrane (acts a capacitor – stores charge)



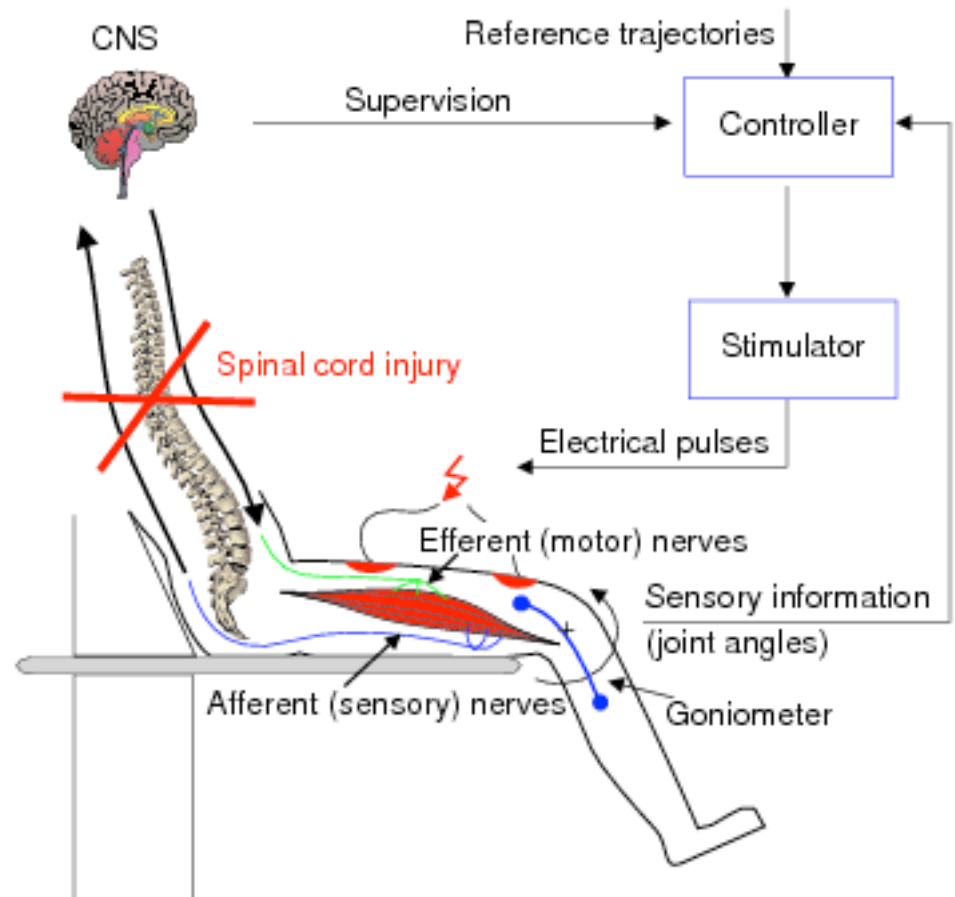
Ion channels (act as variable resistors) affecting charge movement

Signals recorded from the brain can be transformed into a signal that controls a device



# Using BMI/BCI for motor restoration

**FES = FUNCTIONAL ELECTRICAL STIMULATION:**  
electrical currents generate action potentials in motor nerves that control muscles.

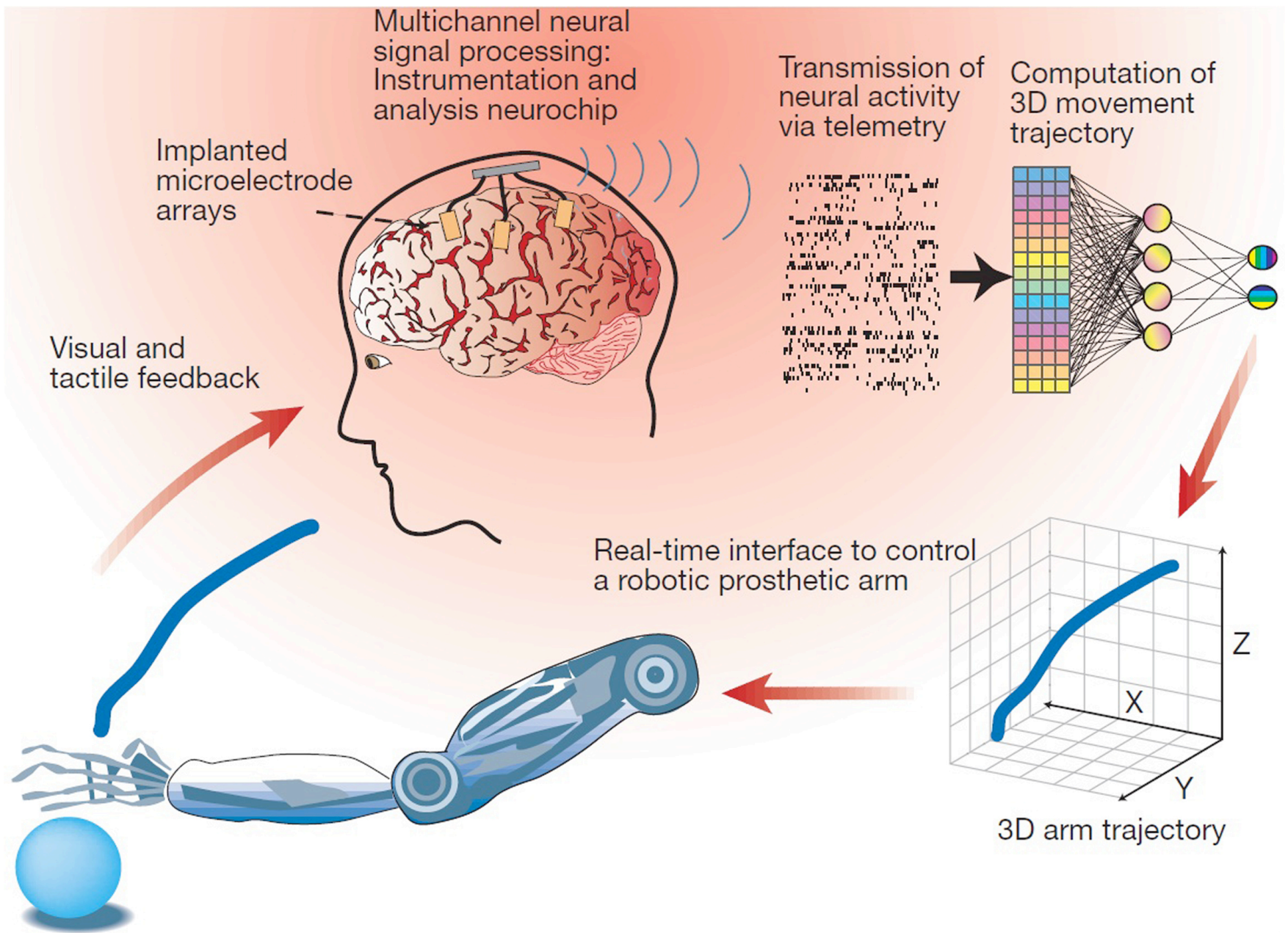


# High-performance neuroprosthetic control by an individual with tetraplegia (Collinger et al., 2013)

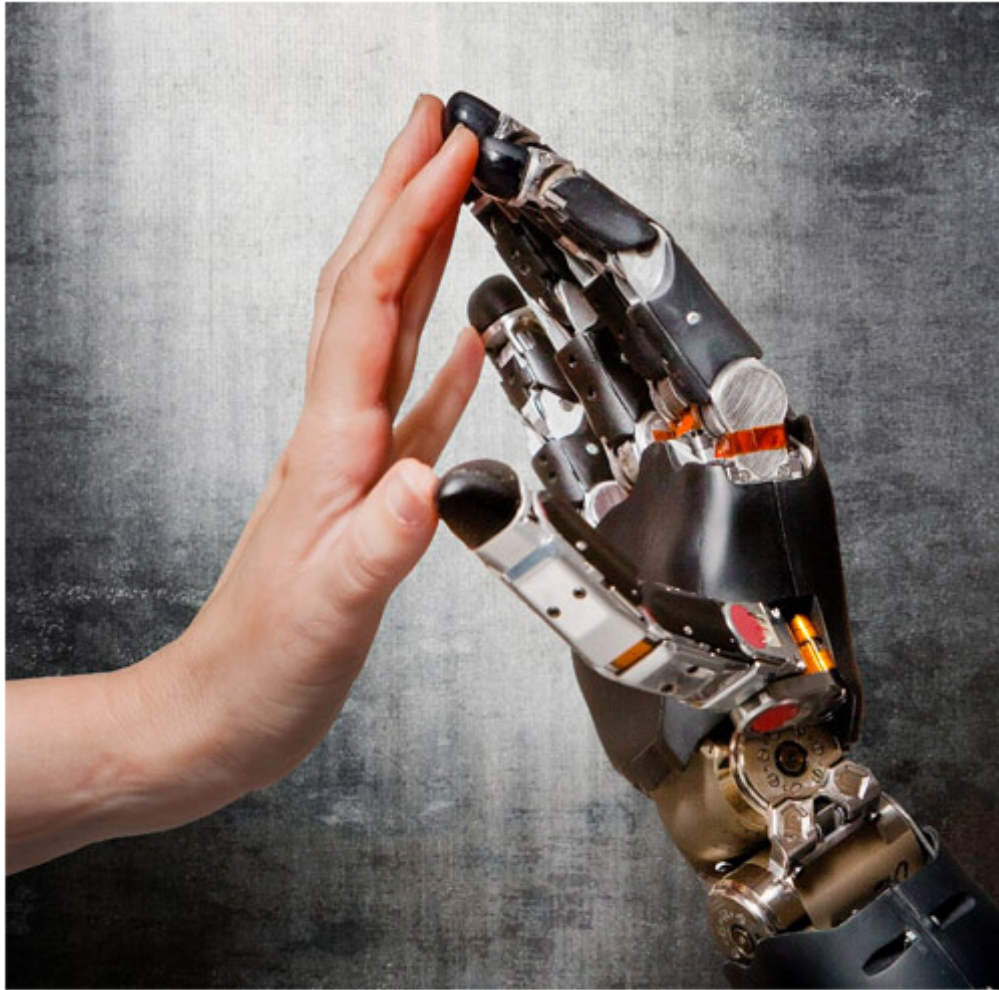
Patient: 52 year old woman with spinocerebellar degeneration and tetraplegia. Had two intracortical microelectrode arrays implanted in left motor cortex

Two cables connected the array to the recording device (to measure signals in the brain) and another cable connected the device to a prosthetic arm

Neural decoder related neural firing rate to characteristics of movement (such as velocity) to control the arm







## Neuroprosthetics

One approach to restoring sensorimotor function in amputees or tetraplegic patients consists in equipping them with anthropomorphic robotic arms that are interfaced directly with the nervous system.

To control these arms, not only must motor intention be translated into movements of the limb, but sensory signals must be transmitted from the limb to the patient. Indeed, without these signals, controlling the arm is very slow, clumsy, and effortful.

With this in mind, we develop approaches to convey meaningful and naturalistic sensations through stimulation of peripheral or cortical neurons, attempting to reproduce, to the extent possible, the patterns of neuronal activation that are relevant for basic object manipulation.

We anticipate that these studies will constitute an important step towards restoring touch to those who have lost it.