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2 NEUROSCIENCE FOREFRONT REVIEW

DYNAMIC INTERHEMISPHERIC COMPETITION AND

DYNAMIC INTERHEMISPHERIC COMPETITION AND VESTIBULO-CORTICAL CONTROL IN HUMANS; A THEORETICAL PROPOSITION

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Abstract-Neuroscientific research has made a concerted effort to determine cortical localization using various functional imaging techniques. This approach has undoubtedly yielded important novel anatomical knowledge, albeit at times contradictory, regarding the structural organization of the vestibular cortex. Unfortunately however, this knowledge has not translated to our understanding regarding how neural mechanisms control vestibular function. Based upon recent functional imaging, lesion and neuro-physiological data that have demonstrated (i) the close behavioral and neuro-anatomical relationship between cortical processing of vestibular and spatial attention signals, and (ii) that inducing interhemispheric competition can in-turn strongly modulate vestibular function akin to that observed in cortical lesion patients, I herewith propose the hypothesis that vestibular cortical processing is controlled, as per for spatial attention, via dynamic interhemispheric competition. In the first half of this review I discuss previous key findings in the field of vestibular neuroscience that can be reinterpreted to support the role of interhemispheric competition for the control of high-level vestibular functions. Contrastingly, in the second half of this review, I present previous findings that show how disrupting interhemispheric interactions can modulate the brainstem-mediated vestibularocular reflex (VOR). I conclude by speculating why interhemispheric competition induces correlated biases at the cortical and brainstem level respectively. Specifically, I propose that brainstem-mediated vestibulo-spatial and vestibulo-temporal transformations, in addition to coding for head displacement, underpin a generalized cortical magnitude estimation system which the CNS uses to construct dynamic spatio-temporal maps of the physical world,

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in-turn ensuring spatial orientation. © 2017 Published by Elsevier Ltd on behalf of IBRO.

Key words: vestibular cortex, spatial orientation, vestibular cognition, VOR, handedness, dynamic interhemispheric competition.

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BACKGROUND

Historically reviewing the vestibular neuroscientific 40 literature suggests that insights illuminating the cortical 41 processing that underpins vertigo have been made 42 since at least the 1940s. Arguably the earliest evidence 43 was provided by Hallpike and Colleagues who 44 demonstrate that cortical lesions can impact upon 45 vestibular nystagmus (Fitzgerald and Hallpike, 1942) 46 and this work was closely followed by that of the noted 47 neurosurgeon Wilder Penfield that demonstrated direct 48

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Abbreviations: cTBS, continuous theta burst stimulation; MNL, mental number line; PET, positron emission tomography; PIVC, posterior insular vestibular cortex; PPC, over the posterior parietal cortex; rTMS, repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation; SNARC, spatial numerical association response code effect; SPV, slow phase velocity; SSA, subjective straight ahead; tDCS, trans-cranial direct current stimulation; TPJ, tempo-parietal junction; VIP, ventral intraparietal area; VOR, vestibular-ocular reflex; VSM, velocity storage mechanism.

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focal cortical stimulation can induce sensations of dizzi-49 ness (i.e. ranging from rocking to spinning vertigo) 50 (Penfield, 1957). However, it was not until the 1980s that 51 the first empirical data from animal studies arose which 52 demonstrated cortical involvement for vestibular functions 53 by demonstrating neuronal discharging in the visual asso-54 ciative cortex during whole-body rotations in cats (Becker 55 56 et al., 1979; Deecke et al., 1979; Mergner, 1979; Mergner et al., 1981; Vanni-Mercier and Magnin, 1982a,b). Fur-57 ther, this work was followed by studies in primates in 58 the 1980s and early 90s which identified a large vestibular 59 network that was distributed between the parieto-60 61 temporal cortex, the retro-insular and the prefrontal cortex 62 and moreover this network was found to be directly connected to the vestibular nuclei complex (Ventre and 63 Faugier-Grimaud, 1986, 1988; Faugier-Grimaud and 64 Ventre, 1989; Akbarian et al., 1993, 1994). Indeed it could 65 be argued that precisely these primate data and the 66 desire to identify the human-analog of the posterior insu-67 lar vestibular cortex (PIVC) inspired and drove research-68 ers to undertake human studies in order to identifying 69 the neural correlates of vestibular signals, which began 70 71 in earnest in the mid-90s.

72 Neuroscientific research in humans over the past two 73 decades has focused considerable effort to determine 74 cortical localization of vestibular functions, in the main 75 via implementing various functional imaging techniques (Bottini et al., 1994; Suzuki et al., 2001; Fasold et al., 76 2002: Dieterich et al., 2003). This search has proven dif-77 ficult in part owing to the fact that vestibular signals induce 78 widespread cortical activations (Brandt and Dieterich, 79 1999; Dieterich et al., 2003; Guldin and Grüsser 1996; 80 Guldin and Grüsser 1998; Suzuki et al., 2001). In an 81 attempt to reconcile these previous disparate findings 82 from the imaging data two recent comprehensive meta-83 analysis studies have been performed independently, 84 85 which have both implicated the cytoarchitectonic area 86 OP2 within the parietal operculum as a key node for vestibular processing. Further, these meta-analyses have 87 suggested that hemispheric dominance for vestibular 88 function occurs in the non-dominant (i.e. with respect to 89 language) hemisphere (i.e. right hemisphere in right han-90 ders) (Lopez et al., 2012; Zu Eulenburg et al., 2012), a 91 92 notion initially proposed in a seminal paper by Dietrich 93 and colleagues on the basis of a positron emission tomography (PET) study (Dieterich et al., 2003). 94

Cortical localization studies can be beautifully 95 informative, as revealed by historical patient lesion-case 96 reports demonstrating the role of, Broca's area for 97 speech, or, area V5 for visual-motion perception (Zeki, 98 99 1991). However. predominantly focusina upon localization can be accompanied by an associated 100 neglect of identifying the underlying neuro-physiological 101 mechanisms that underpin cortically mediated vestibular 102 functions. This latter point is important, as such 103 knowledge regarding the neural control mechanism 104 allows us to understand; (i) how vestibular functions 105 operate under normal circumstances and why they 106 become impaired following either peripheral or central 107 and further (ii) how dysfunction, compensatory 108 neurological mechanisms can be best aided for 109

rehabilitation. Another argument against over reliance 110 upon cortical localization, especially in vestibular 111 neuroscience, is that functionality and behavior 112 inherently associated with the vestibular system, such 113 as spatial orientation and verticality perception, are 114 strictly not exclusive vestibular functions, in that they 115 additionally rely upon integrating either visual and or 116 somatosensory cues via a process termed sensory 117 integration. Functionally speaking, it is sensory 118 integration rather than a single sensory channel, that 119 informs us about the relative 'position' and 'motion' of 120 our body referenced to the external world (Brandt and 121 Dieterich, 1999). Moreover, it is the case that human per-122 ception typically requires interaction between different 123 sensory modalities, as evidenced by data that show 124 enhanced neural responsiveness when simultaneous 125 sensory signals from different modalities are congruent 126 (i.e. additive) (Macaluso and Driver, 2005). More relevant 127 to the current proposition, it is the case that electrophysi-128 ological studies have identified multi-sensory neurons for 129 visual, vestibular and somatosensory stimuli in the maca-130 que ventral intraparietal area (VIP) (human homologous 131 the posterior parietal cortex). Furthermore, studies in 132 human subjects have demonstrated that the convergence 133 of visual and vestibular signals mediates self-motion per-134 ception and that convergence of vestibular and 135 somatosensory signals can modulate temperature and 136 pain sensations (Andersen and Gnadt, 1989; Brandt 137 et al., 1998; Gu et al., 2007; Morgan et al., 2008; Stein 138 and Stanford, 2008; Cullen, 2012). 139

Accordingly, given that sensory integration is a prerequisite for vestibular cortical functions, it is consistent then and also my personal view, that (i) cortical areas associated with vestibular processing are distributed among several multisensory areas which are focused predominantly in the fronto-parietal and temporal cortices (Suzuki et al., 2001; Fasold et al., 2002; Dieterich et al., 2003; Ventre-Dominey, 2014), converging in the tempo-parietal junction (Blanke et al., 2005; Ventre-Dominey, 2014; Kaski et al., 2016), (ii) that vestibular cortical areas considerably overlap with cortical areas devoted to spatial attention (Suzuki et al., 2001; Corbetta and Shulman, 2002; Fasold et al., 2002; Dieterich et al., 2003) and additionally that (iii) although vestibular and spatial attention areas are bilaterally represented, there is considerable hemispheric asymmetry and handedness-related hemispheric dominance (Dieterich et al., 2003; Arshad et al., 2013b, 2015a; Nigmatullina et al., 2016).

Current support for the above viewpoint (i.e. points i– iii, preceding paragraph) is provided by, (i) the existence of widespread and overlapping neuro-anatomical correlates between spatial attention and vestibular processing (Suzuki et al., 2001; Corbetta and Shulman, 2002; Dieterich et al., 2003), (ii) behavioral data in both healthy individuals and patients that demonstrates strong bi-directional influences between vestibular and spatial attention mechanisms (Rubens, 1985; Miller et al., 2000; van Elk and Blanke, 2012; Arshad et al., 2013a,b; Arshad, 2014; Arshad et al., 2016b), (iii) the previous suggestions that head and eye movements are the motor

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