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# Virtual dissection and comparative connectivity of the superior longitudinal fasciculus in chimpanzees and humans

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#### ABSTRACT

Many of the behavioral capacities that distinguish humans from other primates rely on fronto-parietal circuits. 20 The superior longitudinal fasciculus (SLF) is the primary white matter tract connecting lateral frontal with lateral 21 parietal regions; it is distinct from the arcuate fasciculus, which interconnects the frontal and temporal lobes. 22 Here we report a direct, quantitative comparison of SLF connectivity using virtual in vivo dissection of the SLF 23 in chimpanzees and humans. SLF I, the superior-most branch of the SLF, showed similar patterns of connectivity 24 between humans and chimpanzees, and was proportionally volumetrically larger in chimpanzees. SLF II, the mid- 25 dle branch, and SLF III, the inferior-most branch, showed species differences in frontal connectivity. In humans, 26 SLF II showed greater connectivity with dorsolateral prefrontal cortex, whereas in chimps SLF II showed greater 27 connectivity with the inferior frontal gyrus. SLF III was right-lateralized and proportionally volumetrically larger 28 in humans, and human SLF III showed relatively reduced connectivity with dorsal premotor cortex and greater 29 extension into the anterior inferior frontal gyrus, sepecially in the right hemisphere. These results have implica-10 and tool use, and are in line with previous research suggesting a unique role for the right anterior inferior frontal 32 gyrus in the evolution of human fronto-parietal network architecture. 33

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Many of the behaviors that distinguish humans from other 40 primates - including social learning and tool use - rely on activation 41 42 of, and communication between, frontal and parietal cortical regions (Johnson-Frey, 2004; Fabbri-Destro and Rizzolatti, 2008; Peeters et al., 432009; Caspers et al., 2010). Evidence for human specializations in 44 these circuits is accumulating from a growing number of comparative 4546 studies. For example, action observation involves inferior frontal and inferior parietal regions in macaques, chimpanzees, and humans 47 (Fabbri-Destro and Rizzolatti, 2008; Caspers et al., 2010; Rilling and 48 49 Stout, 2014), but the type of detailed, methods-oriented social learning that is uniquely developed in humans may be related to increased 50activation and connectivity in inferior fronto-parietal cortex (Hecht 06 52et al., 2013a,b). Similarly, tool use involves homologous inferior frontal 53and inferior parietal regions in monkeys and humans (Johnson-Frey,

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*E-mail addresses:* ehecht@emory.edu, ehecht@gsu.edu (E.E. Hecht), dgutman@emory.edu (D.A. Gutman), B.A.Bradley@exeter.ac.uk (B.A. Bradley), tpreuss@emory.edu (T.M. Preuss), dwstout@emory.edu (D. Stout). Quallo et al., 2009; Orban and Rizzolatti, 2012), but a region of human 55 anterior inferior parietal cortex has unique response properties that 56 may support uniquely human capacities for causal understanding 57 (Peeters et al., 2009; Orban and Rizzolatti, 2012). More generally, 58 there is evidence for organizational changes and expansion of grav 59 and white matter in the frontal lobes (Smaers et al., 2010; Preuss, 60 2011; Passingham and Smaers, 2014), changes in frontal and parietal 61 white and gray matter asymmetry (Schenker et al., 2010; Gilissen and 62 Hopkins, 2013; Hopkins and Avants, 2013; Van Essen and Glasser, 63 2014) and emergence of new functional response properties in inferior 64 frontal (Neubert et al., 2014) and parietal cortex (Peeters et al., 2009). 65 Together, these studies suggest that fronto-parietal circuits were a likely 66 locus of structural-functional adaptation in human brain evolution. 67 Here we report a direct, quantitative comparison between humans 68 and chimpanzees in the superior longitudinal fasciculus (SLF), the pri- 69 mary white matter tract connecting lateral frontal with lateral parietal 70 regions. 71

2004; Ferrari et al., 2005; Hihara et al., 2006; Obayashi et al., 2007; 54

The SLF is an antero-posteriorly oriented tract located in the lateral 72 aspect of the cerebral white matter. The label "superior longitudinal 73 fasciculus" is sometimes used interchangeably with "arcuate fasciculus," 74 but distinct bundles of fronto-parietal and fronto-temporal fibers can be 75

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recognized in both macaques and humans (Makris et al., 2005; 76 77 Fernandez-Miranda et al., 2008; Gharabaghi et al., 2009; Petrides and Pandya, 2009; Thiebaut de Schotten et al., 2011a; Martino and Marco 07 79 de Lucas, in press). Here we use the term "SLF" to refer specifically to direct fronto-parietal connections and consider the arcuate to consist 80 of fronto-temporal connections (see the Comparison to previous 81 studies section for a more extensive discussion of terminology). Studies 08 in humans (Makris et al., 2005; Thiebaut de Schotten et al., 2011a) and 09 84 macagues (Petrides and Pandya, 1984, 2002; Schmahmann et al., 2007; 85 Thiebaut de Schotten et al., 2012) have identified 3 sub-tracts within the 86 SLF. The superior-most branch is SLF I, which links the superior parietal 87 lobule with the supplementary motor area, posterior dorsolateral prefrontal cortex, dorsal premotor cortex, and the rostral part of prima-88 89 ry motor cortex. SLF II is located inferior and lateral to SLF I and links posterior inferior parietal cortex with dorsal premotor cortex and 90 dorsolateral prefrontal cortex. SLF III is the inferior- and lateral-most 91 92 of these tracts, traveling in the opercular white matter. It connects the 93 posterior inferior prefrontal and ventral premotor cortex with anterior inferior parietal cortex. Functionally, SLF has been linked with motor 94 planning and visuospatial processing in humans and monkeys 95 (Petrides and Pandya, 2002; Thiebaut de Schotten et al., 2011a) and is Q10 thus one likely locus of evolutionary changes supporting uniquely 97

98 human capacities for tool-use and social learning of observed actions. 99 Although macagues and chimpanzees are capable of simple tool-use, humans are distinguished by the complexity of their tool-use and tool-100 making, including the use of tools to make other tools, the construction 101 of multi-component tools, and the accumulation of complexity in tool 102103 design through social learning (Johnson-Frey, 2003; Frey, 2007). In humans, tool use involves a distributed network of interconnected 104 frontal, parietal, and occipitotemporal regions (Johnson-Frey, 2004; 105Ramayya et al., 2010; Rilling and Stout, 2014). This network overlaps 106 107with an evolutionarily ancient fronto-parietal network for object-108 directed grasping (Rizzolatti and Fadiga, 1998) but human tool-use networks are undoubtedly more complex than macaque object-grasping 109networks. It has been proposed that use of "complex" tools (those that 110 alter the functional properties of the hand) requires additional causal 111 understanding resulting from an integration of dorsal ("how") and 112 113 ventral ("what") processing streams in a left-lateralized network of temporal, frontal and parietal areas (Frey, 2007). This capacity may be 114 supported by the evolution of new functional response properties in 115 left anterior inferior parietal cortex (Peeters et al., 2009) and by the 116 expansion of gray matter and extension of white matter in lateral 117 temporal cortex, particularly the middle temporal gyrus, which plays 118 an important role in semantic representation (Orban et al., 2004; 119 Rilling et al., 2008; Hecht et al., 2013a). 01

Beyond tool-use, actual tool-making involves longer action chains 121122with more complex, abstract goals. There has been relatively little study of such multi-step technological actions, but lesion (Hartmann 123et al., 2005) and neuroimaging (Frey and Gerry, 2006; Hamilton and 124Grafton, 2008) evidence implicate right frontoparietal cortex in the 125representation of action sequences and goals. Experimental studies of 126127stone tool-making, a behavior practiced by human ancestors for more 128than 2.5 million years, have reported left anterior inferior parietal-ventral premotor activation during simple tool-making and increased right 129inferior parietal-inferior frontal (ventral premotor, pars triangularis of 130131 the inferior frontal gyrus) during more complex tool-making. A longitu-132dinal study of stone tool-making skill acquisition identified trainingrelated changes (increased fractional anisotropy) in white matter 133 underlying these fronto-parietal cortical regions, including right pars 134triangularis (Hecht et al., in press). A "mirror-system" or "simulation" 135account of action understanding suggests that similar neural systems 136would be involved in the social learning of tool-making methods, and 137this has been supported by an fMRI study of stone tool-making action 138 observation (Stout et al., 2011). 139

140Comparative evidence relevant to understanding the anatomy and141evolution of these left and right fronto-parietal circuits is limited. In a

previous comparative DTI study, we used probabilistic tractography to 142 compare frontal-parietal-temporal connectivity in macagues, 143 chimpanzees, and humans and found a gradient in the pattern of net- 144 work organization (Hecht et al., 2013a). In macaques, frontal-temporal Q12 connections via the extreme and/or external capsules dominated this 146 network, while in humans, frontal-parietal-temporal connections via 147 the superior and middle longitudinal fasciculi were more prominent; 148 chimpanzees were intermediate. Thiebaut de Schotten et al. (2012) 149 employed a "virtual dissection" approach to obtain more detailed 150 anatomical reconstructions. They not only concluded that SLF is "highly Q13 conserved" between humans and macaques but also reported apparent 152 differences, including more anterior frontal terminations of SLF III in 153 humans. The chimpanzee condition is unknown. Human SLF III is right 154 lateralized (Thiebaut de Schotten et al., 2011a,b), but the symmetry/ Q14 asymmetry of SLF branches in both macaques and chimpanzees is 156 again unknown. Ramayya et al. (2010) used deterministic tractography 157 to examine asymmetries of a putative human tool-use network, not 158 only confirming the presence of leftwardly-asymmetric connections 159 between the middle temporal gyrus, anterior inferior parietal lobe and 160 inferior frontal cortex but also finding a strongly rightwardly asymmetric 161 pathway between the posterior inferior parietal and frontal cortex. It is 162 tempting to conclude that these patterns of asymmetry and enhanced 163 fronto-parietal connectivity reflect uniquely human adaptations for the 164 execution and social transmission of tool-use and tool-making, but 165 more detailed information on comparative anatomy is needed, particu- 166 larly from our closest living relative, the chimpanzee. We thus conducted 167 a virtual dissection study of humans and chimpanzees to assess the 168 presence/absence of differences in the relative size, lateralization, and 169 connections of SLF I, II, and III. 170

### Materials and methods

#### Subjects and data acquisition

Chimpanzees

The current study analyzed archived chimpanzee datasets from 174 previous studies. Chimpanzee subjects were 2 males and 47 females 175 housed at the Yerkes National Primate Research Center. The scans ana-176 lyzed in the current study were acquired at the Yerkes National Primate 177 Research Center under propofol anesthesia (10 mg/kg/h) using previ-178 ously described procedures (Chen et al., 2013; Hecht et al., 2013b). All **Q15** procedures were carried out in accordance with protocols approved 180 by YNPRC and the Emory University Institutional Animal Care and Use 181 Committee (approval no. YER-2001206). 60-direction DTI images with 182 isotropic 1.8 mm<sup>3</sup> voxels were acquired on a Siemens Trio 3.0 T scanner 183 (TR: 5900 ms; TE: 86 ms; 41 slices). 5 B0 volumes were acquired on 185 the same scanner with isotropic 0.8 mm<sup>3</sup> voxels (TR: 2600 ms; TE: 186 3.06 ms; slice thickness: 0.8 mm).

#### Humans

One group of human subjects consisted of 5 males and 1 female 189 recruited from the undergraduate and graduate programs at the Univer-190 sity of Exeter, all right-handed by self-report, with no neurological or191 psychiatric illness. Scans were acquired at the Wellcome Department192 of Imaging Neuroscience at University College London. All subjects193 provided written consent. The National Hospital for Neurology and194 Neurosurgery and Institute of Neurology Joint Research Ethics Commit195 tee approved the study. 61-direction DTI images with isotropic 1.7 mm<sup>3</sup> 196 voxels were acquired on a Siemens Trio 3.0 T scanner (TR: 1820 ms; 197 TE:102 ms; 80 slices). 6 B0 volumes were acquired with no diffusion198 weighting. T1-weighted images were acquired on the same scanner199 with isotropic 1 mm<sup>3</sup> voxels (TR: 1820 ms; TE: 102 ms; 80 slices).200

A second group of human subjects consisted of 58 females, 2 left- 201 handed and the rest right-handed by self-report, with no known neuro- 202 logical or psychiatric illness. Scans were acquired at the Yerkes National 203

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