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Contributions of the cerebellum and the motor cortex to acquisition and retention of motor memories 2

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ABSTRACT

We investigated the contributions of the cerebellum and the motor cortex (M1) to acquisition and retention of 22 human motor memories in a force field reaching task. We found that anodal transcranial direct current stimula- 23 tion (tDCS) of the cerebellum, a technique that is thought to increase neuronal excitability, increased the ability to 24 learn from error and form an internal model of the field, while cathodal cerebellar stimulation reduced this error- 25 dependent learning. In addition, cathodal cerebellar stimulation disrupted the ability to respond to error within a 26 reaching movement, reducing the gain of the sensory-motor feedback loop. By contrast, anodal M1 stimulation 27 had no significant effects on these variables. During sham stimulation, early in training the acquired motor mem- 28 ory exhibited rapid decay in error-clamp trials. With further training the rate of decay decreased, suggesting that 29 with training the motor memory was transformed from a labile to a more stable state. Surprisingly, neither cer- 30 ebellar nor M1 stimulation altered these decay patterns. Participants returned 24 hours later and were re-tested 31 in error-clamp trials without stimulation. The cerebellar group that had learned the task with cathodal stimula- 32 tion exhibited significantly impaired retention, and retention was not improved by M1 anodal stimulation. In 33 summary, non-invasive cerebellar stimulation resulted in polarity-dependent up- or down-regulation of error- 34 dependent motor learning. In addition, cathodal cerebellar stimulation during acquisition impaired the ability 35 to retain the motor memory overnight. Thus, in the force field task we found a critical role for the cerebellum 36 in both formation of motor memory and its retention. 37

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Introduction

44 When we interact with a novel object, we learn through trial and error to control that object, producing a motor memory that can be 45recalled the next time the object is encountered. Force field learning 46has been used as an experimental paradigm to uncover some of the pro-4748cesses that the brain relies on to accomplish this feat. In a typical experiment, the participant holds the handle of a robotic arm and makes a 49 reaching movement, experiencing novel forces that displace the hand, 5051resulting in error. This error engages short- and long-latency feedback pathways, producing a within-movement motor response to the error. 52In the subsequent reach the brain predicts some of the novel forces 53 54from the onset of the movement, resulting in partial compensation 55for the robot-induced forces. This trial-to-trial change in the motor 56commands has a specific pattern: the within-movement error feedback 57response is shifted earlier in time to produce a predictive response

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(Thoroughman and Shadmehr, 1999). With training, some of the mod- 58 ifications to the motor commands become a motor memory, as exem- 59 plified by the observation that the memory is disengaged when the 60 robot handle is released (Kluzik et al., 2008), and is recalled days 61 (Criscimagna-Hemminger and Shadmehr, 2008; Joiner and Smith, 62 2008) or months (Shadmehr and Brashers-Krug, 1997) later when the 63 robot handle is grasped.

Formation of this motor memory appears independent of human 65 medial temporal lobe structures (Shadmehr et al., 1998), but dependent 66 on the integrity of the cerebellum (Criscimagna-Hemminger et al., 2010; 67 Donchin et al., 2012; Smith and Shadmehr, 2005), and the motor cortex 68 (Arce et al., 2010b; Li et al., 2001; Orban de Xivry et al., 2011a, 2011b, 69 2013; Richardson et al., 2006). In particular, a study in humans demon- 70 strated that reversible disruption of the thalamic projections of the cere-71 bellum to the cortex produced within-subject impairments in the ability 72 to learn the force field task (Chen et al., 2006). Therefore, the current 73 evidence points to the cerebellum as one of the structures that plays a 74 critical role in the acquisition of this motor memory. 75

Here, we used transcranial direct current stimulation (tDCS) to alter 76 function of the cerebellum and quantified the effect of this disruption on 77

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the ability to learn the force field task. tDCS of the cerebellum is thought 78 79to affect the excitability of Purkinje cells (Galea et al., 2009). Anodal cerebellar stimulation, which is thought to elevate the excitability 80 81 of Purkinje cells, has been shown to increase rates of adaptation in visuomotor (Block and Celnik, 2013; Galea et al., 2010) and gait 82 (Jayaram et al., 2012) tasks, whereas cathodal cerebellar stimulation, 83 which is thought to reduce Purkinje cell excitability, has been shown 84 85 to decrease rates of gait adaptation (Jayaram et al., 2012). By contrast, 86 anodal stimulation of the motor cortex (M1) had no effect on the rate 87 of visuomotor adaptation, the size of after-effects, or the rate of 88 de-adaptation upon removal of the perturbation (Galea et al., 2011). 89 However, immediately after adaptation and removal of anodal M1 tDCS, those in the stimulation group showed a reduced rate at which 90 91the resulting memory decayed in the absence of visual feedback (Galea et al., 2011). These findings led Galea et al. (2011) to propose 92 that whereas the cerebellum may be critical for learning from error, 93 the motor cortex plays a role in retention of the resulting memory. By 94 contrast with the findings of Galea et al. (2011), Hunter et al. (2009) 95applied anodal stimulation to the motor cortex in a force field task 96 and observed a larger reduction in signed kinematic errors during adap-97 tation than in a sham tDCS condition, suggesting that motor cortical 98 stimulation increased learning from error. Therefore, whereas current 99 100 evidence suggests that stimulation of the human cerebellum can affect learning from error, it is unclear whether stimulation of the motor cor-101 tex affects learning from error and/or retention. 102

Here, we compared the effects of cerebellar and M1 stimulation on 103 the process of acquisition and retention of motor memories in a force 104 105field paradigm. Given previous observations in other motor learning paradigms, we expected that M1 stimulation would not affect the rate 106 of learning from error, whereas anodal cerebellar stimulation would 107increase this rate and cathodal cerebellar stimulation would decrease 108 109the rate of learning. In addition, to specifically test the hypothesis that anodal stimulation of M1 enhances retention of motor memories 110(Galea et al., 2011), we tested the effects of M1 anodal stimulation on 111 both short-term retention (via blocks of error-clamp trials during the 112 training blocks), and long-term retention (at 24 hours following com-113 pletion of training). 114

115 Materials and methods

Fifty healthy self-reported right-handed volunteers (21 females; 116 mean age \pm STD of 24 \pm 4.7 years, range 18–38 years) with no 117 known neurological or psychiatric disorders participated in our study. 118 All participants were naive to the purpose of the experiment and gave 119 written informed consent. The study was approved by the Johns 120 121 Hopkins School of Medicine Institutional Review Board. Participants 122were screened prior to enrollment in the study to ensure that they did not have conditions that would exclude them from a brain stimulation 123study (cardiac pacemakers, history of seizure, or aneurysm clips). 124Participants were also screened to ensure that they were not taking 125any neurological drugs. 126

127 Experiment 1: cerebellar stimulation

We recruited n = 37 participants for this experiment. They were 128divided into three groups: sham (n = 12), anodal cerebellar (n = 15), 129130and cathodal cerebellar (n = 10) stimulation. During analysis of the data we noted that one participant in the cerebellar cathodal group ex-131 hibited large errors during field trials and failed to compensate for the 132forces over the course of the experiment. Although it is possible that 133 this is related to the stimulation (as we will see, cathodal stimulation 134impaired the ability to learn), to err on the side of caution, the data 135from this participant were not included in our report. 136

tDCS (2 mA, 25 min) was delivered by a Phoresor II device (model
PM850, IOMED) through two 5 × 5 cm saline-soaked sponge electrodes
(Ferrucci et al., 2008; Galea et al., 2009, 2011). The current density was

approximately 0.08 mA/cm². For the anodal tDCS group, the anode was 140 centered on the right cerebellar cortex, 3 cm lateral to the inion (Galea 141 et al., 2009; Ugawa et al., 1995), with the cathode positioned on the 142 right buccinator muscle (i.e. on the cheek) (Galea et al., 2009, 2011). 143 For the cathodal group the electrode polarity was reversed such that 144 the cathode was placed over the right cerebellar cortex. 145

The procedures for the sham group were identical to the other146groups. Anode and cathode positions were counterbalanced between147cerebellum and buccinators. The current was increased over a period148of 30 sec and then decreased back to zero. With this procedure, partici-149pants are unable to reliably distinguish real from sham stimulation150(Gandiga et al., 2006; Kaski et al., 2012).151

Both the experimenter and the participant were blind to the type of 152 stimulation, as a third person uninvolved in the experiment controlled 153 the tDCS settings. As illustrated in Fig. 1A, stimulation began with 154 block n2 and concluded with block g2, lasting no more than 25 min. 155 Brain stimulation was applied on Day 1 only. On Day 2, all participants 156 performed block b1. Additionally, block b2 was performed by a subset 157 of participants: n = 12/12 anodal cerebellar, n = 10/12 sham, and 158 n = 8/10 cathodal.

Experiment 2: motor cortex stimulation

To determine whether the effects observed with anodal stimulation 161 of the cerebellum were unique to this structure, or could also be elicited 162 via anodal stimulation of the motor cortex, n = 14 additional partici- 163 pants were recruited. They performed the identical experiment during 164 anodal tDCS of left M1 (2 mA, 25 min, 5 \times 5 cm electrodes, induced cur- 165 rent density of 0.08 mA/cm²). The anode was positioned on the scalp 166 overlying the "motor hotspot" of the right first dorsal interosseus 167 (FDI) muscle, that is, the optimal position at which a consistent motor 168 evoked potential, as recorded via EMG, could be elicited using minimal 169 intensity transcranial magnetic stimulation (70 mm coil coupled with a 170 Magstim 200). We used FDI (rather than biceps) muscle to localize M1, 171 primarily because it is more easily activated via TMS. The size of the 172 tDCS electrode (25 cm²) makes it likely that coverage included both 173 muscle representations. The other electrode was positioned on the 174 skin overlying the contralateral supraorbital region. 175

Behavioral procedures

All volunteers participated in a standard force field task (Shadmehr 177 and Mussa-Ivaldi, 1994). Using the right hand, each participant held 178 the handle of a manipulandum and made center-out movements to a 179 target (1 cm diameter, Fig. 1). The reach was perturbed by a velocity 180 dependent clockwise curl force field that pushed the hand perpenlist dicular to the direction of motion: f = B where f is force on the 182 hand, B = [0, 13; -13, 0] N s/m, and/dis hand velocity. In the starting 183 posture, the hand was positioned such that the shoulder and elbow 184 were at 45° and 90° respectively (Fig. 1). Participants were unable to 185 see their hand, which was occluded by an opaque horizontal screen. In-(0.5 cm diameter) that was continuously projected onto the horizontal 188 screen. 189

On each trial (except generalization trials, see below), one of the two 190 targets appeared on the screen (pseudo-randomized with equal proba-191 bility). Targets 1 (T1) and 2 (T2) were positioned at 10 cm at 135° and 192 315° (Fig. 1). The trial was successful if the hand arrived at the target 193 within 400–500 ms after movement onset, with success indicated by 194 an "explosion" of the target (an animation). Feedback regarding move-195 ments that were too fast or too slow was indicated via changes in target 196 color. After completion of the trial, the robot brought the hand back to 197 the start position. Participants were instructed to maximize the number 198 of successful trials.

In some trials, an "error-clamp" was applied (Scheidt et al., 2000). In $_{200}$ these trials, the force field was turned off. Normally, removal of the field $_{201}$

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