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FROM COGNITIVE MOTOR PREPARATION TO VISUAL PROCESSING: 2 THE BENEFITS OF CHILDHOOD FITNESS TO BRAIN HEALTH 3

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Abstract—The association between a fit body and a fit brain 14 in children has led to a rise of behavioral and neuroscientific research. Yet, the relation of cardiorespiratory fitness on premotor neurocognitive preparation with early visual processing has received little attention. Here, 41 healthy, lower and higherfit preadolescent children were administered a modified version of the Eriksen flanker task while electroencephalography (EEG) and behavioral measures were recorded. Event-related potentials (ERPs) locked to the stimulus onset with an earlier than usual baseline (-900/ -800 ms) allowed investigation of both the usual post-stimulus (i.e., the P1, N1 and P2) as well as the pre-stimulus ERP components, such as the Bereitschaftspotential (BP) and the prefrontal negativity (pN component). At the behavioral level, aerobic fitness was associated response accuracy, with higherfit children being more accurate than lowerfit children. Fitness-related differences selectively emerged at prefrontal brain regions during response preparation, with larger pN amplitude for higher than lowerfit children, and at early perceptual stages after stimulus onset, with larger P1 and N1 amplitudes in higher relative to lowerfit children. Collectively, the results suggest that the benefits of being aerobically fit appear at the stage of cognitive preparation prior to stimulus presentation and the behavioral response during the performance of a task that challenges cognitive control. Further, it is likely that enhanced activity in prefrontal brain areas may improve cognitive control of visuomotor tasks, allowing for stronger proactive inhibition and larger early allocation of selective attention resources on relevant external stimuli. © 2015 Published by Elsevier Ltd. on behalf of IBRO.

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Key words: ERP, cognition, fitness, adolescence, motor preparation

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INTRODUCTION

Interest in physical activity as a health behavior to 17 improve or maintain brain health first emerged in the aging literature, where a large body of literature exists (Colcombe et al., 2004: Hillman et al., 2008: Erickson 20 et al., 2013), whereas physical activity and cognition 21 research in preadolescent children is still in the early 22 stages. Several studies have consistently shown that chil-23 dren with higher cardiovascular or aerobic fitness[†] have 24 better academic achievement (see Keeley and Fox, 2009; 25 Fedewa and Ahn, 2011 for reviews) and perform better 26 on tasks tapping aspects of cognitive control and memory 27 (Buck et al., 2008; Chaddock et al., 2011; Wu et al., 28 2011; Raine et al., 2013; Crova et al., 2014). In the last dec-29 ade, a neuroscientific line of research has flourished, high-30 lighting the impact of fitness-enhancing physical exercise 31 (Davis et al., 2011; Hillman et al., 2014; Krafft et al., 32 2014) and exercise-related fitness (Hillman et al., 2009; 33 Pontifex et al., 2009; Kamijo et al., 2010) on children's brain 34 function and health (see Ahn and Fedewa, 2011; Chaddock 35 et al., 2011; Hillman et al., 2011 for reviews) that also gen-36 eralizes to special populations as overweight children 37 (Davis et al., 2011; Krafft et al., 2014). The present work 38 investigates aerobic fitness-related effects on the neural 39 correlates of cognitive control in preadolescent children 40 during a modified flanker task, which modulates cognitive 41 control requirements through manipulation of interference 42 control and response inhibition parameters. To this aim, 43 we used event-related potentials (ERPs), which directly 44 measure the electrical responses of the cortex to sensory, 45 cognitive or motor events with a high temporal resolution. 46

Accordingly, Hillman and colleagues (2005) observed 47 that in a stimulus discrimination (i.e., oddball) task, high-48 erfit preadolescent children had larger amplitude of the 49 P3-ERP component and better task performance than 50 lowerfit children. The P3 is a positive component occur-51 ring between 300 and 800 ms after stimulus onset over 52 central-parietal brain areas, whose amplitude is related 53 to the allocation of attentional resources during stimulus 54 engagement, and its latency is associated with stimulus 55 classification and evaluation and processing speed 56 (Verleger et al., 2005; Polich, 2007). In subsequent 57

Abbreviations: ANOVA, analysis of variance; CNV, contingent negative variation; EEG, electroencephalography; EOG, electrooculography; ERN, error-related negativity; ERPs, event-related potentials; PB, Bereitschaftspotential; pN, prefrontal negativity; pP, prefrontal positivity.

[†] The term "fitness" refers to aerobic or cardiovascular fitness throughout the manuscript.

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studies, the authors (Hillman et al., 2009, 2014; Pontifex 58 et al., 2011) confirmed that higherfit children had larger 59 P3 amplitude and were more accurate than their lowerfit 60 counterparts during a modified flanker task. These results 61 indicated that performance accuracy is sensitive to indi-62 vidual differences in children's fitness, and that more effi-63 cient cognitive control subtends this behavioral outcome 64 65 of fitness. Childhood fitness effects have also been observed in response-locked ERPs, showing more flexi-66 ble attention toward errors and higher performance accu-67 racy in higher compared to lowerfit children (Hillman et al., 68 2009; Pontifex et al., 2011). 69

70 Pontifex et al. (2011) manipulated cognitive load of the 71 flanker task through the inclusion of compatible and incompatible stimulus-response conditions. They found 72 larger P3 and smaller error-related negativity (ERN) 73 amplitude in high-fit than low-fit children, as well as a 74 greater modulation of P3 and ERN between compatible 75 and incompatible conditions, that were paralleled by 76 higher accuracy especially under the incompatible condi-77 tion. The authors interpreted the results in support of the 78 dual mechanism of cognitive control theory proposed by 79 Braver et al. (2007), postulating that cognitive control dur-80 81 ing working memory tasks operates via two strategies: 82 proactive control (i.e., anticipatory process over the dura-83 tion of a given task) and reactive control (i.e., transient 84 process after stimulus perception). To interpret their fit-85 ness-related finding, Pontifex et al. (2011) proposed that higherfit children had greater reliance on the proactive 86 control strategy, because they were able to flexibly up-87 regulate their control across conditions, while maintaining 88 stable response accuracy. On the contrary, lowerfit chil-89 dren seemed to rely on a more reactive control strategy, 90 because they presented difficulties in both the up-regula-91 tion required to process increased task demands and the 92 flexible modulation required by the proactive control. 93 Together, these results suggest that aerobic fitness may 94 95 modulate task strategy, fostering the allocation of attentional resources during stimulus engagement and reduc-96 ing the resource load devoted to action monitoring, 97 98 which was associated with a more successful task performance through an efficient proactive control strategy. 99 Another research has examined the contingent negative 100 variation (CNV), which is a negative slow wave elicited 101 during the interval between warning (S1) and imperative 102 (S2) stimuli associated with the cognitive preparatory pro-103 cess during stimulus anticipation. A fitness-related 104 enhancement of the CNV has been observed in children 105 (Kamijo et al., 2011), adolescents (Stroth et al., 2009), 106 and young adults (Kamijo et al., 2010), whereas fitness 107 108 effects on brain function of preadolescent children during the pre-stimulus response preparation and early post-109 stimulus ERP periods have not been investigated yet. 110

Recently, studies conducted with young and older 111 adults (Berchicci et al., 2012, 2013, 2014; Perri et al., 112 2014a,b) have distinguished the contribution of two main 113 components during the preparation of a motor response 114 durina visuo-motor discrimination tasks: 115 the Bereitschaftspotential (BP) over medial central sites, 116 which is a slow-rising negativity beginning more than 1 s 117 prior to movement onset and reflecting motor preparation, 118

and the prefrontal negativity (pN), maximal over prefrontal 119 sites, which is a negative component beginning immedi-120 ately prior to the BP and reflecting cognitive preparation 121 of the response. Following stimulus onset, another large 122 positive component - peaking between 200 and 300 ms 123 over the prefrontal cortex - known as the prefrontal positiv-124 ity (pP) has been proposed to reflect the stimulus-re-125 sponse mapping processing. In a recent study combining 126 ERP and functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) 127 measures (Di Russo et al., 2014), the origin of pN was 128 localized in the inferior frontal gyrus within the prefrontal 129 cortex, and this activity was associated with proactive con-130 trol during response inhibition processes and predicted 131 stimulus onset. Further, the pP was localized in the anterior 132 insula, whose activity may represent the accumulation of 133 evidences needed to complete the final stage of the deci-134 sion-making process that leads to overt responding. The 135 BP origin has been localized in the supplementary motor 136 area and in the cingulated motor area (Shibasaki and 137 Hallett, 2006; Di Russo et al., 2014). Nevertheless, the 138 contribution of the prefrontal cortex during cognitive-motor 139 control in preadolescents is still scarcely understood. 140

Critical questions remain regarding (1) how functional maturation in preadolescence is manifested during both motor and cognitive anticipatory processes (BP and pN components) and early perceptual processing (pP, P1, N1 and P2 components) in the preparation–perception–action cycle, and (2) how these processes and their behavioral outcomes are modulated by aerobic fitness. We hypothesized to find aerobic fitness-related changes in early visual processing, because of the specific fitness-related improvements in visual discrimination abilities, visual-search skills and visual concentration to environmental demands (Zwierko et al., 2014).

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Participants

Forty-one healthy preadolescent children (mean \pm SD: 155 10.0 ± 0.6 years of age; 23 female) were recruited for 156 this study. Participants were classified as lowerfit 157 (N = 20) and higherfit (N = 21) on the basis of whether 158 their VO₂max fell above the 70th percentile or below the 159 30th percentile, according to normative data provided by 160 Shvartz and Reibold (1990), which apply to most of the 161 industrial world. Thus, the adjective "fit" that identifies 162 the groups specifically refers to aerobic or cardiovascular 163 fitness. All participants were right handed (Edinburgh 164 Handedness Inventory; Oldfield, 1971). The participants 165 were free of neurological diseases, attentional disorders 166 and physical disabilities, and had normal or corrected-167 to-normal vision, as reported by the participants' guar-168 dians. Legal guardians provided written informed consent 169 and participants provided written informed assent in 170 accordance with the Institutional review Board of the 171 University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. 172

Task

Participants completed a modified version of the Eriksen 174 flanker task (Eriksen and Eriksen, 1974). The stimuli were 175

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