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Inhibition and impulsivity

Q1 Behavioral and neural basis of response control

Q2 Andrea Bari*, Trevor W. Robbins

Behavioral and Clinical Neuroscience Institute, Department of Experimental Psychology, University of Cambridge, Cambridge CB2 3EB, UK

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ABSTRACT

In many circumstances alternative courses of action and thoughts have to be inhibited to allow the emergence of goal-directed behavior. However, this has not been the accepted view in the past and only recently has inhibition earned its own place in the neurosciences as a fundamental cognitive function. In this review we first introduce the concept of inhibition from early psychological speculations based on philosophical theories of the human mind. The broad construct of inhibition is then reduced to its most readily observable component which necessarily is its behavioral manifestation. The study of 'response inhibition' has the advantage of dealing with a relatively simple and straightforward process, the overriding of a planned or already initiated action. Deficient inhibitory processes profoundly affect everyday life, causing impulsive conduct which is generally detrimental for the individual. Impulsivity has been consistently linked to several types of addiction, attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder, mania and other psychiatric conditions. Our discussion of the behavioral assessment of impulsivity will focus on objective laboratory tasks of response inhibition that have been implemented in parallel for humans and other species with relatively few qualitative differences. The translational potential of these measures has greatly improved our knowledge of the neurobiological basis of behavioral inhibition and impulsivity. We will then review the current models of behavioral inhibition along with their expression via underlying brain regions, including those involved in the activation of the brain's emergency 'brake' operation, those engaged in more controlled and sustained inhibitory processes and other ancillary executive functions.

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Abbreviations: 5-CSRTT, 5-choice serial reaction time task; 5-HT, serotonin; ACC, anterior cingulate cortex; ADHD, attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder; BA, Brodmann area; DA, dopamine; DNAB, dorsal noradrenergic bundle; DRD2, dopamine receptor 2 gene; ERP, event-related potentials; FEF, frontal eye field; IFC, inferior frontal cortex; IFG, inferior frontal gyrus; IFJ, inferior frontal junction; LC, locus coeruleus; M1, motor area 1; MDMA, 3,4-methylenedioxy-N-methylamphetamine; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging; NE, norepinephrine; OCD, obsessive-compulsive disorder; OFC, orbitofrontal cortex; Pre-SMA, pre-supplementary motor area; PFC, prefrontal cortex; RT, reaction time; SMA, supplementary motor area; SSD, stop-signal delay; SSRI, selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor; SSRT, stop-signal reaction time; SST, stop-signal task; STN, subthalamic nucleus.

Q3 * Corresponding author. Present address: Department of Neurosciences, Medical University of South Carolina, 173 Ashley Ave, BSB 409 Charleston, SC 29425, United States. Tel.: +1 8438134839.

E-mail address: andbari@gmail.com (A. Bari).

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11 **1. Historical introduction**

12 In the words of the father of American psychology William
 13 James (1842–1910) inhibition [Lat. *inhibere*, to restrain] is “... not
 14 an occasional accident; it is an essential and unremitting element of
 15 our cerebral life” (James, 1890; p. 583). Scientists and philosophers
 16 have long been interested in the nature of inhibitory processes at
 17 the psychological, neurophysiological and cognitive level. Plato’s
 18 allegory of the human soul viewed as a charioteer driving a chariot
 19 pulled by two horses having opposite characters, well represents
 20 the inhibitory function of will. In order of being able to drive the
 21 chariot in the intended direction, the inclination of the two horses
 22 has to be tightly controlled. Similarly, in 1650 Descartes wrote
 23 that: “if anger makes us rise our hand to strike, our will can usually
 24 hold it back; if fear incites us to run away, our will can stop us, and so
 25 on with the other passions” (as cited in Diamond et al., 1963; p. 15).
 26 Inherent to this philosophical view of inhibition is the existence of
 27 a choice between conflicting courses of action, which has been
 28 extensively discussed in their influential book ‘Inhibition and
 29 choice’ by Diamond et al. (1963). The concept of inhibition was
 30 introduced in the scientific literature at the beginning of the 19th
 31 century to explain a large number of phenomena, from simple
 32 spinal reflexes to more abstract psychological processes, although
 33 it became commonly used in neuroscience only in the second half
 34 of the century (Smith, 1992). Before then inhibition was thought to
 35 derive from some form of excitation or by its cessation (Macmillan,
 36 1992), and even when directly observed during controlled
 37 experiments, it was ignored, rejected as an error in the
 38 experimental procedure or as deriving from fatigue (‘exhaustion’)
 39 of the nerves (Meltzer, 1899).

40 **1.1. Development of the concept of inhibition**

42 “When physiologists have solved the problem of inhibition,
 43 they will be in a position to consider that of volition”. (Morgan,
 44 1891; p. 461)

45 According to Smith (1992) the word ‘inhibition’ initially made
 46 its appearance in the scientific literature as the mechanism by
 47 which intellect controls passions and the will wins over impulses,
 48 in an intellectual context influenced by Plato and Aristotle’s moral
 49 psychology. In the first half of the 19th century, making the first
 50 steps towards an empirical psychology with his controversial
 51 work, Franz Joseph Gall thought that “The laws of nature, for
 52 instance, ordain that the faculties of an inferior order should obey
 53 those of a superior order...” (Gall, 1835; Vol. I, pp. 230–231).
 54 Although Gall did not explicitly consider inhibitory interactions
 55 between the different ‘faculties’, his hierarchical view of mental
 56 processes resembles most modern conceptualization of inhibitory
 57 control. On the contrary, the German philosopher-psychologist
 58 Herbart (1776–1841) extensively used the term inhibition
 59 (‘hemmung’) in a non-hierarchical fashion to describe the force
 60 that prevents cognitive contents to aggregate indiscriminately by
 61 keeping dissimilar ideas momentarily out of consciousness
 62 (Dunkel, 1970; Macmillan, 1996). However, while he used the

concept of ‘associative inhibition’ as an umbrella term for what we
 now call proactive and retroactive inhibition in the context of
 learning and memory, various theorists after him tried to explain
 the loss of consciousness during hypnosis as some sort of cerebral
 inhibition (Bramwell, 1903). In psychiatry, the concept of
 inhibition was soon adopted to describe the behavior that
 characterizes certain mental disorders. As reported by Macmillan,
 in 1843 the German psychiatrist Griesinger “adopted a straightfor-
 ward physiological explanation” suggesting that “Ideas passed into
 normal action whenever they were not hindered by this [volitional]
 control but in the two main classes of insanity – the depressive and the
 excited – there was either too much or not enough inhibition,
 respectively. In this conception, will and inhibition were virtually
 equated and symptoms were interpreted physiologically” (Macmillan,
 1996; p. 9). The common idea in the early theorizing about
 inhibition seems very much linked to the concepts of will and
 consciousness, such that only with high levels of self-awareness is
 possible to exert (or contrast) inhibitory control over one’s
 behavior. Things were different in neurophysiological theories.

One of the first observations of the inhibitory action of nerve
 impulses was made by John and Charles Bell in the muscles of the
 eye. They did not use the term inhibition and wrote as a footnote:
 “The nerves have been considered so generally as instruments for
 stimulating the muscles, without thought of their acting in the
 opposite capacity...” (Bell and Bell, 1827; Vol. 2, p. 223). Similarly,
 drawing from his experiments on the frog’s sciatic nerve
 stimulation, in 1838 Volkmann wrote: “It becomes clear [...] that
 the brain contains the cause for the hindrance in the activation of the
 nervous principle...” (as in Smith, 1992; p. 77). However, it is
 generally acknowledged that it was the early observations on the
 effects of vagal nerve stimulation on heart rate that posed the
 foundations for the first theories on the inhibitory action of nerve
 impulses (Gaskell, 1886; Weber and Weber, 1966). This phenom-
 enon was first observed by Volkmann, who subsequently
 dismissed it as resulting from an invalid procedure (Volkmann,
 1838a,b, 1842). Weber and Weber (1845) made the same
 observation, but were the first to define it ‘inhibition’, whereas
 the concept of ‘inhibitory system’ in physiology was first discussed
 by Lister in a communication to the Royal Society of London (Lister,
 1858). Thus, while Smith (1992) emphasizes the description of
 peripheral inhibition by the Weber brothers in 1845, according to
 MacLeod et al. (2003), the observation made by Sechenov (1863)
 that stimulation of certain areas of the frog’s brain inhibits spinal
 reflexes can be considered the point of origin of the concept of
 (central) inhibition in physiology. Finally, in 1874, the concept of
 inhibition was included by the father of experimental psychology
 Wilhelm Wundt (1904) in his seminal textbook: “The two mutually
 supplementary forms of energy that we designated, from their
 mechanical effects, excitation and inhibition [...] appear throughout
 as the simple substrate of nervous function.” (Vol. 1, p. 324); “The
 whole course of the [nerve] stimulation is then dependent upon the
 constantly varying play of excitation and inhibition.” (Vol. 1, p. 70).

Still widely cited, the classical definition of inhibition formu-
 lated by Brunton in 1883 is reported in the Oxford English

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