Emory-Tibet Science Initiative





Neuroscience Primer III

สิสสาฮีรารรรสาย

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*พิ*ลฺพ_ิฮัฐรารรารสาย



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ETSI Neuroscience Primer III Emotion & Memory

Written and organized by Jennifer Mascaro, Wendy Hasenkamp, and Carol M. Worthman

Translated by Geshe Dadul Namgyal

Emory - Tibet Science Initiative SCIENCE PRIMERS

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ਝੱਕਾਂਬੇਗਾਂਸ ਵੇਂਬੇ ਖ਼ਤਰੇ ਆਂਤੀ ਖੇਬਟੇ ਨੇ ਕੇਰਾਂਗੇਕਸ ਸਿੱਤਿਕਾਬੋਤ। ^{ਘੇਗ}ਬੁਤਾਂਸ ਸੀ ਸੀ ਸੀ ਕਾਰੀ ਕਾਰੀ ਕਾਰੀ ਕਾਰੀ ਕਾਰੀ ਕ

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(Book authored by Emory faculty with Tibetan translation created by Emory and LTWA)

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A joint project of the Library of Tibetan Works and Archives, Dharamsala, India and Emory University, Atlanta, Georgia.

≨ੁਕਾ <u>ਰ</u> ੀਅ.⊓\	૬ે વે ત્વર ગ્રે સે ગા રી લેવટે છે સેવ ગો અવા વિ રે ભ સે ર છે તેવા
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Written by:	Jennifer Mascaro, Wendy Hasenkamp, and Carol Worthman
Translated by:	Geshe Dadul Namgyal
Translation Reviewed by:	Geshe Lhakdor, Tsondue Samphel, and Karma Tenzin
Layout and design by:	Tenzin Migmar

The cover picture is of Paul Ekman, an American psychologist who advanced contemporary study of human emotions and their relation to facial expressions.

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Foreword and acknowledgements



THE DALAI LAMA

FOREWORD

Despite their obvious differences, science and Buddhism share several key features in common. Both are committed to empirical observation, the testing of hypotheses, avoiding blind adherence to dogma, and cultivating a spirit of openness and exploration. Most importantly, Buddhism and science share as a fundamental aim the contribution they can make to humanity's well-being. While science has developed a deep and sophisticated understanding of the material world, the Buddhist tradition has evolved a profound understanding of the inner world of the mind and emotions and ways to transform them. I have no doubt that improving collaboration, dialogue and shared research between these two traditions will help to foster a more enlightened, compassionate, and peaceful world.

I have long supported the introduction of a comprehensive science education into the curriculum of the traditional Tibetan monastic educational system. When I first heard that Emory University proposed to develop and implement such a science education program for Tibetan monks and nuns in collaboration with the Library of Tibetan Works and Archives, I thought it would take many years. When I visited Emory University in October 2007, I was genuinely surprised to be presented with the first edition of a science textbook for Tibetan monks and nuns, the result of more than a year's work by a team of dedicated scientists and translators at Emory.

By extending the opportunities for genuine dialogue between science and spirituality, and by training individuals well versed in both scientific and Buddhist traditions, the Emory-Tibet Science Initiative has the potential to be of great meaning and significance to the world at large. Once more, the creation of this primer series, presented in both Tibetan and English, is a clear tribute to the commitment and dedication of all those involved in this project. With the preparation having been done with such care, I am confident that the long-term prospects for this project are bright.

I congratulate my friend Dr. James Wagner, President of Emory University, the science faculty and translators of the Emory-Tibet Science Initiative, and everyone who has lent their support to this project for achieving so much in such a short time and offer you all my sincere thanks.

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4 October 2010

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THE DALAI LAMA

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Translation

Office of the President





Education is one of the most potent tools we have for ensuring a better world for ourselves and for generations to come. To be truly effective, however, education must be used responsibly and in service to others. This ideal of an education that molds character as well as intellect is the vision on which Emory University was founded, and the challenges of our time show that the need for such education is as great as ever.

This vision is one that His Holiness the Dalai Lama shares deeply, and it is the reason for the close relationship that has emerged between His Holiness and Emory over the past two decades. On October 22, 2007, it was my pleasure and privilege to welcome His Holiness to Emory to be installed as Presidential Distinguished Professor and to join our community as a most distinguished member of our faculty.

The interdisciplinary and international nature of the Emory-Tibet Science Initiative, the most recent and ambitious project of the Emory-Tibet Partnership, is an example of Emory University's commitment to courageous leadership for positive transformation in the world. This far-reaching initiative seeks to effect a quiet revolution in education. By introducing comprehensive science instruction into the Tibetan monastic curriculum, it will lay a solid foundation for integrating insights of the Tibetan tradition with modern science and modern teaching, through genuine collaboration and mutual respect. The result, we trust, will be a more robust education of both heart and mind and a better life for coming generations.

The Emory-Tibet Partnership was established at Emory in 1998 to bring together the western and Tibetan traditions of knowledge for their cross-fertilization and the discovery of new knowledge for the benefit of humanity. This primer and its three companion primers are splendid examples of what can be accomplished by the interface of these two rich traditions. We at Emory University remain deeply committed to the Emory-Tibet Science Initiative and to our collaboration with His Holiness and Tibetan institutions of higher learning.

To the monastic students who will benefit from these books, I wish you great success in your studies and future endeavors.

ans W. Wagner James W. Wagner

President

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हेर्र केंग

નર્યેવન્દુ ગ્વલુગુરુષ્ય પ્રસ્યવેશ્વશ્વ શ્વર્ય ગ્રુદ વાદ્વે ગ્વનુગાં ક્રોં ક્ષુન્ય ન્દ્ર વ્યર્થન વ્યયવા

กลิสาพิร



Office of the President

Translation

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Robert A. Paul Emory-Tibet Science Initiative (ETSI) grew out of the longstanding vision of His Holiness the Dalai Lama and is sustained by His Holiness's continued guidance and support at every step of the way. Not only has His Holiness provided annual operational funds, but he has also provided \$1 million towards the ETSI endowment fund thereby ensuring the long-term sustainability of the program. The ETSI also owes its existence to the patronage of Dr. James W. Wagner, President of Emory University, who has allocated considerable funding on behalf of Emory University and from his personal discretionary fund.

The Emory-Tibet Partnership (ETP) was established in 1998 in the presence of His Holiness the Dalai Lama through the collaborative vision and work of Dr. Robert Paul and Geshe Lobsang Tenzin Negi. ETSI is the most ambitious project to grow out of the Emory-Tibet Partnership, and in 2010 ETSI was renamed the Robert A. Paul Emory-Tibet Science Initiative in honor of Dr. Paul's visionary leadership and guidance. We express our heartfelt thanks to both these individuals for helping to establish the many programs of the Emory-Tibet Partnership, including ETSI.

We gratefully acknowledge Geshe Lhakdor, Director of the Library of Tibetan Works and Archives, Dharamsala, India, whose leadership has been invaluable to the establishment and development of this initiative.

The project would also not have been possible without the support of Dr. Gary Hauk, Vice President and Deputy to the President at Emory University, who has guided ETP from the beginning and continues to be one of ETSI's strongest supporters. Additionally, ETSI is greatly indebted to Dr. Robin Forman, Dean of Emory College of Arts and Sciences, for providing critical resources and faculty from Emory College, which houses this initiative, to assist the ongoing development and implementation of the ETSI.

We thank also the ETSI science faculty, who have worked tirelessly to develop the science textbooks and who have traveled to India each summer to teach the science intensives, and the ETSI science translators who have given of their skills and time to contribute an entirely new scientific vocabulary to the Tibetan literary tradition and lexicon. In particular, Drs. Carol Worthman, Arri Eisen, John Malko, and Mark Risjord, team leaders for neuroscience, biology, physics, and philosophy of science respectively, oversee all of the curricular aspects of the ETSI and have been integral to any success experienced by the ETSI. Additionally, the principal ETSI translators, Tsondue Samphel and Geshe Dadul Namgyal oversee the entire translation of all ETSI materials, and with the assistance of ETSI staff members Michael Romano and Carol Beck, manage logistics for the production of the video lectures and textbooks. Without this dedicated team of exceptional faculty members and translators, the ETSI would not be where it is today.

Along with the hard-working staff of the Emory-Tibet Partnership, everyone has labored far beyond the call of duty, showing time and again that their efforts are not only work, but also an act of love.

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We thank all those who have contributed the financial support needed to operate ETSI and ensure its longterm sustainability. We are particularly indebted to Joni Winston for her long-term generous support to ETSI and for her unwavering conviction in the worth of this endeavor. Funding for ETSI has also come from Emory University and Emory College, including the Office of Global Strategy and Initiatives.

Generous support has also come from:

- The Dalai Lama Trust
- The Joni Winston Fund
- The John Templeton Foundation
- Judith McBean Foundation
- Lostand Foundation
- Jaynn Kushner
- Drepung Loseling Monastery, Inc., Atlanta, Georgia

We would also thank these individuals for their guidance and advice:

- Dr. Gary Hauk, Vice President and Deputy to the President, Emory University
- Geshe Thupten Jinpa, Principal English Language Translator for H.H. the Dalai Lama and President, Institute of Tibetan Classics
- Geshe Lhakdor, Director, Library of Tibetan Works and Archives
- Dr. Alan Wallace, President, Santa Barbara Institute
- Dr. Preetha Ram, former Associate Dean for Pre-Health and Science Education, Emory University
- Dr. Arthur Zajonc, former President, Mind and Life Institute
- Dr. Richard Davidson, Director, Center for Investigating Healthy Minds, University of Wisconsin, Madison
- Dr. Robert A. Paul, Charles Howard Candler Professor of Anthropology and Interdisciplinary, Emory
 University
- Geshe Lobsang Tenzin Negi, Director of Emory-Tibet Partnership, Emory University

We would like to thank the venerable abbots and the administration of the Tibetan monastic institutions for embracing the ETSI curriculum and incorporating this material into the Tibetan monastic core curriculum. Lastly, we thank the highly dedicated monastic students of the Emory-Tibet Science Initiative, who are not only beneficiaries, but also essential collaborators in the success of this program. May the knowledge that they gain through this program and these materials benefit them greatly, and through them, all of humankind.

<u>হ</u>ল'ণ্ডি||

- קײַสישׁקישֿק׳בֿידָשי׳רָדיבּיבּיבּיבּי פָא־ילין שון בַּןָּמון
 שׁיצֿיב׳יחַבּּקיימשיאַקירשייקֿבישביישוּאַנאַיביר־יבּרישַטוּפַקיבטימצֿשיישֿטין בּטַיקטירשישיקֿביישביישאָקימצֿביריבאַישאישֿקן

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- हु'ने'वे'येण'ईव'नगे'हा
- हॅव'रेस'मल'र्रेव'नमें'ङ।
- हॅं'वे'सेव'भे'र्टेव'वेनभ'ङ।
- ਨੂ'ਕੰ ਨੇ ਸ਼ੂ'ਕੰ ਕੇ ਸ਼ੇ ਸ਼ ਸ਼

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SUPPORT AND INSPIRATION

This primer was written by Jennifer Mascaro, Wendy Hasenkamp, and Carol Worthman, based on curricular materials developed by a group of Emory faculty along with graduate students and post-doctoral fellows at Emory University and Georgia Institute of Technology. Carol Worthman led this group, which also included Gaelle Desbordes, Dieter Jaeger, Michael Iuvone, Michael Kuhar, Todd Preuss, Lena Ting, Leah Roesch, and Nicole Taylor. These thoughtful, generous scientists and educators are responsible for many of the ideas and much of the substance as they are elaborated in this primer.

Concepts, evidence, and graphics also were drawn widely from the literatures of neuroscience, a global, diverse, multi-disciplinary field whose findings continually expand our understanding of brain, mind, experience, behavior, and the nature of sentience in living beings. Geshe Dadul Namgyal translated this primer, and Tsondue Samphel led the translation of all Year 3 course materials. They, along with translators at the Library of Tibetan Works and Archives (LTWA), are creating a new science lexicon in Tibetan, a historic undertaking whose fruits are evident in this text. LTWA translators include Karma Thupten, Tenzin Paldon, and Nyima Gyaltsen. These skilled scholars (along with Tenzin Sonam and Sangey Tashi Gomar) also participated in the pilot teaching program that led to this primer. In the process, they have not simply translated our words, but have managed to convey complex systems of thinking and knowing from one culture to another. Such a dual act of translation-first of words and second of meaning is utterly essential to our project. Reciprocally, the authors and other participating scientists have been educated and humbled by the wealth of ideas and insights gleaned from the translators and the monastic students themselves, whose questions and drive for clarity and understanding motivate the approach and content of this primer.

The spiritual leaders and guiding lights of the Emory-Tibet Science Initiative are Geshe Lhakdor and Geshe Lobsang Negi. The seed and inspiration is His Holiness the 14th Dalai Lama of Tibet.

The Emory-Tibet Science Initiative Neuroscience Team Emory University 2017 ર્વેગ અંદે સુવાર્ સેંદ ૬ દ જી ન સુંગ્

ᡪᡶ᠋᠈ᢂᢄᢅ᠆᠋ᡰᡆᠵᡃ᠋᠊᠋ᢆ᠋ᡎ᠊ᢩᢣ᠋ᠴ᠊ᠴᠼᢌ᠋᠉᠂᠋᠊ᢧᢆᢣ᠂ᡏᢅ᠆᠉ᡪ᠋᠋ᠮᡱ᠋᠋᠋ᡨ᠆ᡬᠴᠴᠴᢁᡃᢍᢋ᠋᠊ᡘ᠋᠋ᡎ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡎ᠋᠋ નેન બને વે છે ન દેશ જા અદેવ ગાય જ રા ગાય છે ના ના ગાય દેવા તે અદે તે તે અદે તે તે આ પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્ สมพารรา พรพาสูพารปิพาลัฐารมราวงพา)ปิพาลัฐาริการริการริกาล์ริลาล์สินส์สินส์กาลรายเกาสุรายหมาลูกพาสูพา <u>भ</u>्दा में) मुःगावना हे। नर्म्सना से रहेना में प्रमुर नरा ने दश्य में र्म्द में प्रमुर मरुश महिंगा कर नरे दे रेन हैं दे สมพายิพาศที่สารนิเริ่มๆรารกรสมารุฏิรายิารามรีรารๆายายริสาสพารราชมิเชีมารสมพารรายมาริมานริรา ૹૡ઼૱ૡૢਗ਼ૹ੶ਗ਼ਫ਼ੑੑੑੑੑઽ੶૱ૡ૾ૺ੶ૹૻਫ਼੶૽૾ઌૺૢૻૻઌૻૡૡ૱ૡૹૹ૾૾ૡૡઽ૽ૡ૱ૡૢ૽ૢૺૹૻ૽૽૽ૢૺૼૻૹ૽ૢૡૻ૽ૡૼૻૢૡૼૡૻૡૼ૱ૡ૽ૼ૱ૡૢૼ૱ૡ૽ૼ૱ૡૢૹ૽ૡ૽ૼૺૻઽૺ૱ૡૹૹ૽૽૽૽ૢૡૺઽૹૻ พิมพาธตานาระวัลโข้พาสูพานาราพิลา โข้ะเสมพาขิพาวกัสานนิวรัตพาริเทศาระา ๆเคลาพระทพงนาธาระทั่า ગઠશ્રાવ્યવર્ત્સુવાર્સેટ્ટરેશ અતું લેવા કેવશાર્થેદ્વા

ૹે ચેં 'રે 'ન્દ્ર-'વેંન્'શે 'જવ' રેવા બ્યય 'રેચ'શે 'ન્વન્દ' જ જવ' રેવા ચે જવ વશ્વ છે ચેં 'રે 'વાર્ઢ વા બવા ર્સે ન 'વાં કે રાવદ' ! કે 'વેં ' ૧૦૧²' બા

Neuroscience Primer III

Emotion & Memory

ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑ <u>ੑੑੑੑ</u> ੑੑ<mark>ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑ</mark> אੑੑ<mark>ੑ</mark> אੑੑੑੑੑੑੑ

Introduction

You're walking along a road near your home during the hot season and see a large snake by the road up ahead. Its muscular tan and brown body stretches across the hot surface of the roadside path you are using. You walk up to see the snake more closely. The snake strikes your leg with its fangs. You jump back quickly not realizing it could reach you. Your leg starts throbbing with pain as you start to return home.

What a story tells

An important feature of the human mind is imagination, through which we can think about and experience the not-real as though it were real. Read the story again and use your imagination to strongly put yourself in the story. Pay close attention to your reactions as you read.

Now, were you able to imagine that it was you who saw and was bitten by the snake? Examine your experience closely, and consider these questions. Did you notice any changes in your body or mind? Did your heart beat faster? Did your skin feel colder or warmer? Did your breathing change? Did you recoil or move back in your chair? Did you have any additional thoughts associated with the story, for example, "Oh, what if the snake is poisonous" or "I really don't like snakes." How was your energy level after imagining the scenario? Is there a word you would use to describe the set of changes that occurred as you read it?

Another important human trait is our use of language. We won't discuss language until Primer V, but note for now how much we humans, including scientists, rely on language in interpreting and communicating experience. Many people in the west would use the word 'fear' to describe the set of sensations and thoughts that occurred while they imagined being bitten by the snake. If you didn't feel fear while reading the scenario, you probably can imagine that you would feel fear if you were actually bitten by the snake. Yet, although we easily identify the mental and bodily effects of seeing the snake as the emotion of "fear", it is another thing altogether to clearly define what we mean by the term 'emotion'. As one very accomplished researcher on the neuroscience of emotion, Joseph LeDoux, stated, "Unfortunately, one of the most significant things ever said about emotion may be that everyone knows what it is until they are asked to define it." (LeDoux, 1996, p. 23) What are the essential components of an emotion? How are emotions different from longer lasting phenomena such as moods or traits?



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ઐવે·એઅઅઃગ્રૈ'શિક્ત ર્જેઅઃગભાર દે'લેવાં વે પ્લ્રદ્ર સ્ક્રાન્સ ક્રુન ક્રું ને 'રેન શુન્ દેર્જે અપરે વે પ્લક્રેન્સ ક્લેશ્વ કે બાયકે લેવાં વે પ્લ્રદ્ર સ્ક્રાન્સ ક્લેશ પ્લે પ્લે પ્લ્રદ્ય પ્લે સ્ટ્રાન્સ ક્લેશ પ્લે પ્લે પ્લે પ્લ્રદ્ય સ્ટ્રાન્સ સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્રાન્સ સ્ટ્રાન્સ સ્ટ્રાન્સ સ્ટ્રાન્સ સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્રાન્સ સ્ટ્રાન્સ સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્રાન્સ સ્ટ્રાન્સ સ્ટ્રાન્સ સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્રાન્સ સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્રાન્સ સ્ટ્રાન્સ સ્ટ્રાન્સ સ્ટ્રાન્સ સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્રાન્સ સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્રાન્સ સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્રાન્સ સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્સ્સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્સ્ય સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્સ્ટ્સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્સ્સ્ટ્ર સ્ટ્ર સ્

ૻ૱ૼૹૢઽૻ૱ઽૼૡ૾ૹ૾ૢૼૼૼૼૼઽૻૡ૾ૺ૱ૹૹૼૼૼૼૼૹૻૹૣ૱૱ૡૢૻૺ૾૾૱ૡૢૻૡ૾ૺ૱૱ૡ૾ૢૻૡ૽ૻ૱ૡ૾ૻૡ૽ૼ૱૱ૡ૾૾ૡૼ૱૱ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾૱૱ૡ૽ૼ૱૱ૡ૽ૼ૱૱ૡૼ૱૱ૡૼ ᠊ᡭᠡᡭᡃᡅᡆᠯᢅ᠋᠋ᠴᡃᠷᠯᢂ᠉ᡚᢂ᠆ᡪ᠆᠋᠄ᡅᢆᡀ᠆ᡆ᠉ᢓᢆᡎᡊᡆᢆᡅ᠉᠊᠋᠊᠊ᡍᡎ᠋ᠴ᠋᠆᠆᠆ᡎᡊᢋ᠉᠋ᠴᢄᢆᡃᢓ᠆᠋ᠴ᠋᠇ᠴᢌᢂ᠈᠋ᠿᢂᠴᢂ᠈ᢂ᠆᠋᠆ᠴ᠋ᢞ᠉ᡃ᠋ᢒ᠂ᡐ᠋᠋᠋ᠫᡭ ૻૠૻૹૢૹૻૻૡૻૻૠૻૻૡૡૡૻૻૻૡ૽ૺૹૢૻૡૹૻ૾ૹ૽ૺઌૻૡ૽ૼૡૻૹ૾ૻૡૻૻૹૻૡૹૹૻઌ૽૿ૺ૱૾ૺૼૡૻૹ૾ૡૻૡ૾ૡૡ૾ૻૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡૡ૾ૻૡ૽૾ૡૡ૾ૻૡૡ૽ૺૡૡૡૡૡૡૡ ર્વેલે ફ્રીંસ્અ 'વદ્દેવાયા સૂન'' વી એસઆ ફ્રેન્ટન્ટ વ્વવેળ વર્ષ્યેનુ 'ભુવાય બેંદુ' સવતા 'એસ આ ફ્રેન્ટ' લેય બંધે વસ્ટ્રુન છે 'વે દેસવાન' ૾ઌ૾૱ૡૹ૽ૡૻૹઌઽૻૹ૾ૢઌૻૹૢ૽ૻ૽૽ૢ૾૽ૼઽૺૹૻૹઌૹૻૹૣ૾ૻ૾ૼૡ૽ૺૼૼૼઌૻૹ૾ૺ૱ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌ૾ૺૹ૾ૹૹૻ૾ૹ૾ૢૺૼૼઽૻૡઽ૽૱ૻ૱ૡૼૺૻ૱ઽૻૹ૽૾ૼૡ૽ૻઌ૱ૹૡ૾ૡ૽૱ૻ૱૾ૢૺૼૼૼૼૻ ଐ୶୕ୠ୶୲ ୬ୗ୶୶ୄୖୄଈ୕୵୕୴୶୕ୢଌ୕୵୕ଽୄୄୢୄ୷ୠ୕୳୕ଽୠ୕୳୳ୖ୳୲ଌୄ୵ୖୖୖଈ୕୶୲ୖୣ୷୳ୖ୵୶୲୳୶୶୶୲୶୶୲ ୴୵୕୶୲ୄଌ୵୕୴ୖୄୖୄ୶୶୲୵୰୰୶୲୵ୣ୵୕୲୲୵୵ୖ નસૂર સંસેયશ શેંદ સ્યય દે ભૂર સે ભ્દા ના ખેતુ સ્ય

Defining what we mean by the term 'emotion' becomes even more difficult when we ask if and how conceptions of emotion differ across diverse populations of people. For, while the concept of 'emotions' is central to Western thought, it is not clear that all cultures think of or even experience emotions in the same way. Consider the slightly different but equally interesting question of whether there is such a thing as a 'universal emotion'. A universal emotion would be one in which all people, regardless of the culture in which they live, respond to a similar situation with a relatively identical set of responses in the brain and body. In the west, 'fear' is considered an emotion. As we will see, many western scientists regard fear as one of the primary emotions for three reasons. First, it occurs in all cultures. Second, the trigger or elicitor of the feeling (such as the snake) is relatively consistent. And third, the physiological (elevated heart and respiration rate) and mental states ("I don't like this and I want it to stop") that accompany this feeling also are guite consistent. Here is another way to ask the guestion: If you saw someone from another culture making the facial expression shown in Figure 1, could you assume that they are having the same thoughts and sensations that you have when you make that facial expression?



Figure 1: Your turn: Try making the same expression as the man in the picture, and carefully observe how you feel as you do so. Think about the relationship of emotion and emotion expression in light of this self experiment.

Neuroscience and human experience

In this primer, we begin to explore the neuroscience of human experience beginning with the study of emotion. As we shall see, the neuroscience of emotion has led to insights about other mental phenomena, including why humans are able to share, remember, and understand stories. Returning to the snake scenario will illustrate how. Imagine yourself, some weeks later, as you are out walking and find yourself approaching the same stretch of road. You reach the spot where you met the snake, but nothing is there.

- What were you thinking and feeling as you imagined approaching that fateful spot? What did you think of doing?
- What were your thoughts and feelings as you imagined that the place was empty?
- How was the experience different than the first time?

These questions involve your memory of the snake scenario, but your answers probably tell you something about connections between memory and emotion.

In what follows, we discuss neuroscientific answers to all of these questions. Doing so brings us to scientific discoveries not only about emotion but also to related phenomena like memory, decision making, motivation, and imagination, or the ability to simulate. To begin, we offer some defining features of an emotion and discuss the history of the study of emotions as well as the methods that are used to understand what they are, how they relate to behavior, how they are modified by the environment, and what happens when emotions go awry. Our aim is

<u>ڔ</u>ڝؚڂۥٛۼۥڝؚۼ؞ۑڣٵۑڂٵ؞ۼ؋ۑ؞ۼ



*बे*श्र'ग्र'धेवा

ᠵ᠆᠋᠃᠋ᡎᢆᡆ᠋᠊᠋ᢋᢎ᠋ᢁ᠄᠋᠋᠊ᢄ᠈ᢩ᠙ᡔ᠄ᡱ᠂᠋᠋᠋ᠬᢒᡆ᠋ᡃᢎᡃ᠋ᠬ᠈᠋ᢩᢜ᠆᠋ᠵᡃᠴᢂᢂ᠋ᡃᡅᡭᡆ᠋᠋᠋ᡃ᠋᠋ᢓ᠆᠋᠋᠋ᠴ᠋᠋᠋ᢋ᠋᠃ᡬ᠕ᢂᢂ᠄ᢓᢧ᠆᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡃᢆᡜᢁᡩ᠓᠋ᢓ᠋᠋᠋᠂ᡬᢩ᠉ᢓ અહુંદર્ભ ખેત્ર સેત્ર ગામવા નાયેના ને માંચા ગામ માંચા વિદ્વ ને પ્રાથમિય છે. આ ગામ માંચા સાથે માંચા સાથે માંચા સ ૻ૱ૡૢૻઽૹ^ۥૡ૽૾૱ૻૹ૾૱ૡૹૻૻ૱૱ૡૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡૻ૽ૡૻઌ૾ૻૡૻ૽ૡૻઌ૾ૡ૱ૡ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ ਸ਼[ੑ]ਖ਼ਖ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼ੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਖ਼ਖ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਗ਼ਗ਼ੑਖ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਗ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਖ਼ਸ਼ਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ਸ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ਖ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਖ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਖ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ ᠋᠊᠋᠋ᡦ᠋᠆᠋ᡃᠴ᠋ᠵ᠄ᠱᡎᢂ᠂ᡆᡃ᠉ᠻᢩᠯᢂᡃᠴ᠋᠋ᠵ᠋ᡃᠬᠯ᠋᠋ᡘᢂ᠄ᢣᢓᡄᢂ᠄ᠽᢆ᠋ᡎᢂ᠈᠕ᡩᡄᢂ᠋ᠴ᠋᠄ᡬᡎᢂ᠋᠉ᡬᢓᠴ নন্দ্ৰিবা *વલિ'*રેસ'ગ્રૈ'એસસ'ર્ફ્રેટ'વે'વ્રસ'સુ'નવઽ'ઞ'રેઽૢ ઽઽઽ૾ૼૼ૾ૣૻ૾ૡ૾૾૾૽ૡ૾૾ૡૻૹૻૻ૱ૻઽ૽ૼઽ૾૽ૼઌૻૡૡૢઽૻઌ૽ૻ૱૿૽૱ઽ૾ૡૻઽૼૻઽૻ ૡઽૣૣਗ਼ ઽૹ੶ૡઽ૾ૺ੶ઽ੶ૡૢ੶ૻઽઽૻૹૹૼૹૹ੶ૻૡૡૡૻૻ૱ૡઽ૾૽ૼઽૢૻૢૻ૾ૡૢૻ૿૱ૢૻૻૼૹ૾ૹૹૻૻૹૻૻ૾ૹૻૹૹૻૹૹૻૹૹૻૹૹૻૻૡૡૢૻ૱ૹૣૻઽૻઽૼ૾ૣૹૣ૱ ઽૼૼઽૢૢૢૢૢૹૹૻૹૣઽ૽ૻ૽ૣ૾૾ૡઽ૽૱૽૽ૢૺૼ૾ૡઽૼ૽ૡ૽૾ૢ૽ૡૢૻૡૻૺૼ૾ૺૼૺૼૹૻ૽ૼૼૼૻ[ૢ]ૡઽૻૹૣઌૹૻ૽૽ૢૺૼૻૡૣઌૣૢૻૼૻઌૡ૽ૢૢ૾ૼૼૻઌ૽૿ૢૡૼૻ૽ૼ૾૾ૼઌૻ૾ૢૹૻ૾૽ૼૼૻૼૼૻૼ૱ૡ૽ૻ૱ૻૻૡ

that you become familiar with not only what neuroscientists know about emotions, but also how they know it, by examining the methods used in the study of emotion.

In order to understand what emotions are, we also explore their evolutionary history. As we have seen in the previous primers, evolutionary processes select traits that enhance relative survival and reproduction; therefore, much can be learned about why phenomena such as emotions and the expression of emotions exist by considering their adaptive bases and history. Recall that the nervous system is designed to help us successfully know, understand, and behave in the world.

Once we have a better understanding of how emotions are conceptualized and studied, we turn our attention to the neural systems related to the experience of emotions. First we investigate what happens when sensory information from the environment enters the brain. To do this, we must consider two levels of organization, the fine-grained cellular and molecular level, at which important neurotransmitters initiate cascades of neural events, and the larger level of the brain and body systems, where information is relayed, filtered, appraised, and infused with significance. It might be helpful at this point for you to review the lessons from Neuroscience Primer II that detail the mechanisms by which stimuli from the environment are translated into electrical and chemical signals at the level of the synapse, thus becoming 'information'.

Equipped with this knowledge about emotions, we then examine memory and the neural systems that support it. We survey different types of memory and look more closely at how certain types of memory are stored, or encoded, in the brain. We then trace how emotion and memory interact. As has been evident throughout the first two primers, much of what scientists know about neural systems has come from studying these systems when their function is disturbed by injury, illness, or other conditions. Case studies therefore have provided crucial insights into the processes involved in memory and emotion, and we review the two most important ones. Finally, we enter a field called social neuroscience and begin exploring the neurobiology of social cognition and relationships. We examine how it is that we are able to understand another person's (or non-human animal's) emotions and mental states, and we will ask how these social cognitive skills guide our behavior.

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Box 1. IN-DEPTH: ARE THERE UNIVERSAL EMOTIONS?

Charles Darwin suggested that emotional facial expressions evolved as rapid responses to events that affect survival. In this way, he suggested, they are genetically programmed and universal. This idea was based, in part, on his observation that emotional facial expressions in humans bear a striking resemblance to some expressions made by animals. Notice the



similarity of the young chimpanzee's play face to the face made by a human child at play.

Yet, the idea that emotions and emotional facial expressions are biologically determined and universally expressed had not been systematically tested until a clinical psychologist named Paul Ekman took up the task. To test this hypothesis, Ekman traveled the world showing photographs of facial expressions to people

of diverse cultures. After showing each facial expression, he asked people to choose the emotion label that best fit the expression. He found that certain core expressions, including anger, disgust, fear, happiness, sadness and surprise, appeared to have the same meaning to people in every culture he



tested. The most convincing evidence came when he visited South Fore tribesmen in Papua New Guinea, who had never been exposed to outside cultures in any way. Here when he asked people to choose which pictured face expressed a specific emotion — anger, disgust, fear, joy, sadness or surprise — they made the same associations as people living elsewhere. He also described various situations and asked them to make the facial expression they would make in that situation. Results suggested that the Fore made and understood the core expressions as had every other culture previously tested. There was one exception, though. The South Fore people did not distinguish between fear and surprise, and Ekman speculated that they may have had trouble telling these two emotions apart because: "In that culture, anything totally unexpected is going to be threatening."



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Of course, it remains possible that individuals within a culture learn to make and understand facial expressions by watching one another. If this were the case, emotional facial expressions would not be biologically determined. However, additional evidence for the universality of emotional facial expressions comes from the comparison of facial expressions of individuals who were born blind (congenitally blind), those of individuals who had become blind but had been born with the ability to see, and sighted individuals. These two women have just competed in the Paralympics and the photograph was taken immediately after they lost the gold medal. Can you tell which one of these women is blind and which is sighted?

Researchers systematically analyzed the movement of each facial muscle in photographs taken of victorious and defeated athletes from many different countries. The fact that there were no observed differences between congenitally blind, non-congenitally blind, and sighted athletes, in emotional



Adapted from: http://www.sfsu.edu/news/2009/spring/1.html

facial expressions is cited as more evidence supporting the universality of facial expressions, because it suggests that our specific facial expressions are not the result of observing others around us. By the way, the woman on the left is blind.

Just because there are biological bases for emotion expression does not mean that there will be no variation in the ways that some emotions are expressed across cultures and even between individuals within a culture. Variation is particularly evident for those non-core expressions such as embarrassment. Notice the different people below expressing embarrassment. In what ways are their expressions different? Do they share any similarities? Notice how their expressions may differ depending on their age, ethnicity, and gender. In addition, Ekman and others have suggested that different populations vary in their display rules, or the culturally specific rules that determine when and how people express emotion, at times amplifying an expression and at other times masking or neutralizing an emotion.





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What are emotions?

Our discussion of emotion begins by defining the term. Scientists do not completely agree on any one definition, but there is some general agreement about the characteristics that describe an emotion. First, emotions are brief: they do not last for hours or days, as would be the case for a mood. Second, emotions are a relatively specific response to a relatively specific stimulus. Each specific response can be a complex combination of both unconscious and conscious mental and physical events. The specificity of emotional response distinguishes an emotion from a mood, which generally does not result from one specific stimulus. Third, emotions have a motivational component that leads the person who is having the emotion to either pursue or avoid the eliciting stimulus. For this reason, emotion is sometimes referred to as an evaluative response, because it is a response to a particular event that helps one evaluate whether the stimulus is good/ bad, dangerous/safe, desirable/undesirable. As we will see in a moment, this evaluative aspect often causes researchers to think of emotions as adaptations that enhance fitness by motivating the person to pursue or avoid things that affect their evolutionary fitness.

Reflecting back on our scenario using these criteria, your reaction to the snake is classified as an emotion (fear) because it was a brief response (on the order of seconds or minutes) that involved a specific set of mental and physical events (heart racing, alertness, shallow breathing) elicited by a specific stimulus (the snake) and that motivated a response (jump away or recoil).

Changing views of emotion

As we learned in Primer I, early Greek philosophers, most notably Aristotle, tried to explain the biological systems supporting emotions. Aristotle identified the heart as the location for thought and emotion. Reflect for a moment: why might he and many others have thought so? Keep this in mind as you learn more about emotions.

William James (1842 – 1910), trained physician, philosopher, and father of modern psychology, offered an early theory to explain emotions. He began with a thought experiment that you can do also: What would be left of an emotion if the body's reactions were removed? For example, in the story with the snake, what would remain if you took away the racing heart, the muscle tension, and the other feelings from the body?



Figure 2, left side: Schematic of the James-Lange Theory of emotion, which proposes that perception of a stimulus (snake) elicits bodily changes (racing heart) that constitute an emotion (fear).



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James concluded that without the body's responses, you wouldn't have an emotion. This led him to suggest that an emotion happens when a stimulus elicits bodily feelings and motor responses, which are then experienced by the brain (Figure 2). To James, emotions are nothing but the conscious experience of the body's response to a stimulus. In the case of our snake scenario, James would explain that the snake elicited a somatic (heart pounding, sweaty palms) and motor (shallow breath, recoiling muscles) response in the body. Next, the brain received feedback from the body and became aware of these somatic and motor responses, and that awareness is the experience of an emotion. To James, the stronger the bodily response, the stronger the emotion will be.

James' theory revolutionized the study of emotions and stimulated research, critique, and competing ideas. As we will see in the next section, his theory has resurfaced in the last decade as neuroimaging has allowed researchers to understand the neural systems that track the state of the body. It appears that this process of 'feeling' the state of the body is a crucial component to emotion processing.

However, you may at this point be wondering about several potential problems with William James' theory. First, very similar bodily responses accompany different emotions. For example, you have probably noticed that your heart races when you are scared, but also when you are angry. If emotion were simply the conscious awareness of this sensation, then fear and anger would be the same thing. Recall from Primers I and II that the thalamus is a structure in the middle of the brain that serves as the gateway for incoming sensory information and for outgoing motor information.



Two thalamus figures (translucent brains with red structures).





มิฦฑิพ ฐณพรีราฦ

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Second, you probably notice that there is tremendous variety of each type of emotion. Sadness in response to reading a bittersweet story about someone's mother dying feels different from sadness when you say goodbye to your mother after a visit, which feels distinct from the sadness when your mother dies. Is it really possible that the differences among all of these feelings are simply a difference in the body's response?

Problems such as these motivated a physiologist named Walter Cannon (1871 – 1945) and his student Philip Bard to conduct experiments with animals to disprove James' theory. They found that artificial induction of bodily changes (for example, by injecting a drug that increases heart rate) did not produce "real" emotions. He also noted that severing the connection that brings somatic feedback from the organs to the brain does not eliminate emotions. They suggested that emotions, rather than being a result of the body's response to a stimulus, are triggered entirely by the brain. The brain, and more specifically the thalamus, causes emotional experience at the same time that it triggers bodily changes. Because the experience happens simultaneously with the changes in the body. Now you can begin to see why Aristotle regarded the heart as the organ of emotion and thought.

The Cannon-Bard theory attempted to localize emotions in particular neural systems. The thalamus was central to this theory, based on experimentation showing that removal of the thalamus disrupted emotional expressions in animals. We will see that this thalamo-centric view has largely been unsupported, but around the same time a neuroscientist named James Papez developed another model of emotion and the brain, which helped explain the role of the thalamus. He proposed that emotional experience is supported by loops that project from the hippocampus to the



hypothalamus via the fornix, then to the anterior portion of the thalamus, on to the cingulate gyrus, and back to the hippocampus (see figure 4).

Not long thereafter, another scientist, Paul MacLean, modified Papez' model of the circuit to add the amygdala and septum. While MacLean's model serves as the foundation of the limbic system studied today, it is a simplistic model that misrepresents the complexity inherent in the brain. The amygdala is a perfect example of this complexity. To understand the role of the amygdala in emotion involves appreciating that it is not a single structure but a collection of nuclei, each of which contains different inputs and outputs. We look more closely at these nuclei in action later in this primer, and it will become clear that although the collection of brain regions that make up the limbic system are important for emotion, there is not a

Figure 4: The Papez Circuit, consisting of connections between the hippocampus, hypothalamus, thalamus, and cingulate cortex.

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 simple circuit of one-way connections at work in emotional experience.

At that point in the history of emotion research, there were two major conflicting accounts of what constitutes an emotion. One, the James-Lange theory, gave primacy to the body, the other, the Cannon-Bard theory, gave primacy to the brain. It took Staley Schachter and Jerome Singer to integrate both theories and propose the Two-Factor Theory of Emotion. This theory posits that there are two components to an emotion. One is a physiological process, and the other is cognitive appraisal of the bodily feeling and of contextual features associated with the emotion-eliciting event. Now go back to our scenario of an encounter with the snake, and compare and contrast the three different theories. Figure 5 will help you trace the differences, but see if you can trace them using Buddhist techniques for introspection.

Figure 5, far right side: Schematic of the Two-Factor Theory of emotion from Singer and Schachter, which proposes that emotions consist of both a physiological component and the cognitive appraisal of the emotion-eliciting event. Compare and contrast the three different theories of emotion.




Emotion in adaptation and survival

As you imagine coming upon our snake in the road, think for a moment about what might happen if you did not respond at all to the snake's appearance. Instead of a racing heart, muscle recoil, and thoughts like "I'm in danger", your body and brain responded as though you had happened upon a harmless stick. We've already noted that the evaluative side of an emotion involves judging the eliciting stimulus as good or bad, dangerous or safe. If the evaluation is coupled with preparatory bodily responses and a motivation to act upon the evaluation, you can see how emotions would be adaptive if they caused an organism to either pursue something advantageous or avoid something harmful.

It was this reasoning, in part, that inspired Charles Darwin to propose that emotions and emotional expressions are the product of evolutionary pressures and natural selection. Darwin was especially interested in expression of emotion, and carefully compared emotional expressions across species, human and non-human. In his principle of serviceable habits, he stated that the human facial expressions that we can observe today are derived from the facial movements observed in other species, including human ancestors, and which conferred an evolutionary advantage.

How might emotions confer an evolutionary advantage? Keep this question in mind as you go through this primer, as we will return to it later.

How do we know?

Recall from Primer I that Galen (131 – 201 AD) revolutionized the study of emotion by examining the effects of brain injuries and discovered that the brain, not the heart, was the primary system supporting thoughts and emotions. The practice of investigating the effects of localized and specific brain injury, or lesions, remains invaluable to neuroscientists. The cases of Phineas Gage and Henry Molaison [HM] are discussed in detail later, in box 6 and box 8 respectively. These case studies have provided powerful evidence for the neural systems supporting emotion and memory.

As we have seen in the first two neuroscience primers, much of what we know about the way the brain works has come when scientists have "taken a look around". Recall the illustrations in Primer II of different neuron types in the brain. These drawings were made after the discovery of staining methods that allowed individual neurons to be visualized. Notice how much you can predict about the function of a particular neuron based on appearance. **Figure 6:** Purkinje and Spindle cell drawings based on reconstructions and drawings by Ramón y Cajal.





ન્વેં તેઓ ૯ સુલ્વનશ્વન્સેં ત્રાહે ગાન્ડવા શેશ વસુર સેવા દુશ પડ્ટર રે ચેંત્ર સેશ પાંત્ર શ્રશ गविष्यानवगामवेषम्रगीवाद्यासुरान्दास्रा इ.स्...गु.म.म्

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By way of an example, compare the form of a Purkinje cell with that of a spindle cell (figure 6). In Primer II we learned that the Purkinje cell is a particular type of neuron specific to the cerebellum. What does its structure suggest to you about its function? Given the number of dendrites and dendritic spines, you might correctly predict that Purkinje cells receive extensive input from nearby cells.

In contrast, the spindle neuron has a large cell body with a single axon and dendrite facing opposite directions, a morphology (form) that likely facilitates rapid communication across a great distance. With this in mind, you might predict that spindle cells are important for connecting distant neural regions in species of animals that have relatively large brains, and in fact, spindle neurons have been observed only in relatively large-brained species such as humans, elephants, and chimpanzees. These cells are thought to be important for some of the complex emotional processing that will be discussed in this primer.

To further illustrate the power of visualization, now that you know the role of spindle cells, imagine the information that can be inferred if a scientist were to observe spindle cells in the brain of an animal that was previously thought not to possess this type of cell. In the example of the spindle cell, we see not only how the ability to visualize the shape of a cell tells us about its function, but also how the ability to locate and identify a specific class of cells in an organism's brain tells us about the cognitive operations of which that animal might be capable.

Neuroimaging

With an appreciation of the importance of visualizing the brain at various levels of detail, we now will spend some time discussing the methodologies that neuroscientists use to visualize brain morphology and function. Each method has strengths and weaknesses. As we shall see, these usually come in the form of a trade-off between spatial resolution, or the ability to discern two components of the brain that are located in close proximity, and temporal resolution, or the ability to discern two distinct neural processes that occur in close chronological proximity. Below we will explore the major methodologies used to investigate emotions, keeping in mind the strengths and weaknesses of each method.

New methods for imaging the body have aided major breakthroughs in neuroscience by

permitting us to "see" things not visible to us before. Recall what the discovery of the telescope did for physics or of the microscope did for biology. The brain is particularly difficult to study because it is encased in bone and any interference with it may have disastrous effects on the organism's functions.

Figure 7: MRI images of a human head and foot. Notice that different types of brain tissue (cortical gray matter vs. white matter fiber tracks vs. bone) have characteristic contrast, or a difference in brightness.



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<u>न्येःरेश</u> ² [मन'येद'र्ह्सेना'न्यर'व्य्युव्य'ळश'ग्रेश'ङ्ग्रदश' શે રેગ્ર ગે લે લ્ડા ગે લે (ડ્રેન્સ્સ્ સ્ટ્રાસ્ટ્રેન્સ્ગે સુટ્ર શ્ર मानठकार्ग्रे))ननमावाकर्द्र रहुवार्ग्री हिन्दानमाहे। नग्रनाः અન્દર્શ છે હુદ થી હિન બર પોર્થન ન ને સ્ટેં સુદ હોન જે આ

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Appreciation of the brain's complexity, and hence its likely functional significance, was stimulated in the early Twentieth Century by anatomist Ramón y Cajal's studies of dead tissue using staining techniques that revealed fine structural details of the brain (Figure 6). But the study of living, working brains only became possible with the rise of neuroimaging later in the century.

In the 1970's two scientists, Paul Lauterbur and Peter Mansfield, independently discovered that a strong magnetic field and radio waves could be used together to create images of the tissue inside of a body. The technique, called Magnetic Resonance imaging (MRI), relies on physical properties of water molecules and the fact that water molecules behave differently in a magnetic field depending on the type of tissue in which they are found (for example, bone verses brain tissue).

MRI is used to visualize and explore the structure of the brain, and has become extremely important for identifying and diagnosing pathology and disease. But think for a moment about this amazing innovation, which allows researchers to acquire detailed images of the brains of people who are alive, and which is safe enough to use many times and on people of all ages.

For example, MRI can be used to distinguish very subtle changes in cortical thickness that occur during development (see figure 8), as well as differences in cortical thickness among individuals or between groups of people. This method has revealed that long-term practitioners of loving-kindness meditation have increased gray matter in the temporo-parietal junction, a region of the brain thought to be important for understanding others' thoughts, desires, and emotions.



Figure 8: MRI scans were obtained from children every 2 years in order to explore the maturation of cortical gray matter, which generally involves loss of gray matter volume as excess neurons are pruned. Parts of the brain associated with more basic functions (motor and sensory) matured early. Last to mature were areas involved in planning and problem solving. The scale on the right is gray matter volume, with the areas that have the greatest volume appearing pink and red. Adapted from: http://www.pnas. org/content/101/21/8174.full

શેમાસ્વર્માં મારે સુરાગ ફ્રેન સમય તે સાર ભુત સેરા ગે છું ๚฿ฺพาสินิามสมพาพูาฮิกพาสิสาฐกพาราติๆาเพิสา શું મંત્ર ભેં ત અર્થે મુખ્યો મેત્ર ખાલેત નનમ જ સાગા રાજ્ય ગયા *ই*৾৽৽৽ৼ৾৾য়৾৾য়৾৾৽৾৾৾ৼ৾য়৾৾য়৾৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾৾য়৾৾য়৾৾য়৾ इश्राग्रे पर्वे र के दुर दु पर्वे न रे म दे भार (प्याया ૡૹ੶ઽઽૻૡૣૢૣ૾ૡ੶ઽૡ૽ૺૠૢઽૻઽૡ૽ૺ૾૾ૼૼૼ૱ૡૢૡૡ૱ૹૻ૱ૼૡૼૡૡ૽૾ૹ૽૾ૢ૱ શું ભેંનુ નર રેયા શું બેંચા શું જોય તાલે છા સુવા તે વઢન व्योनिन्ननगवार्श्वेन्ननरश्चेष्यमन्नणध्येका नये देशः <u>ઽૹૻૻઽૻૡૼૻૹૢૹૡૡ૱</u>ૹૹૡૡૼૼૼૼૼઽૹૼઽૹ૽ૼૼૼૼૡૼૼૹૡ૽ૻૼઽૹ नगाभोता ळाप्सेतापरीगामात्रा पळा क्रें मानेनापते हिन्रगंते द: त्रगायने भोता http://www.pnas. org/content/101/21/8174.full

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Box 2. IN-DEPTH: THE PHYSICS OF NEUROIMAGING

MRI: Recall that the human body is 60 % water and therefore is full of water molecules, each of which has two hydrogen nuclei containing one proton. Under normal circumstances, when a body is not in an MRI, these protons are randomly oriented in all directions. However, when that body is placed in the presence of a very strong magnetic field (commonly used MRI scanners contain a magnetic field that is 50,000 times greater than the Earth's gravitational field), a small percentage of the protons become aligned with the direction of the field. After a person is placed in this field, radio frequency pulses are applied, causing the protons to move perpendicular (at right angles) to the magnetic field and rotate, or **precess**, about the field's axis. Rotation by the precessing protons now generates an electrical current. Crucially, protons precess at characteristic but varying speeds and with characteristic voltage, depending on the type of tissue they are in. For example, protons in bone precess at a different rate than protons in cerebrospinal fluid. When the radio frequency is turned off, the protons return to alignment with the magnetic field and release energy, again at a speed characteristic of the type of tissue the proton is in. These differences are used to create **contrast**, or a difference in brightness, between differing types of body tissue.

Functional MRI: You learned in Life Sciences Primer II that oxygen is consumed in active cells and is transported throughout the body by hemoglobin in red blood cells (pictured in the figure to the left). When hemoglobin is oxygenated, as shown in the figure below, it is diamagnetic, meaning it would be pushed away, or repelled, by a magnet. In contrast, when it is deoxygenated, it is paramagnetic, or attracted to magnetic fields. This slight difference leads to small differences in the MRI signal, which can become significant differences if more oxygenated blood is present in a region of the body.



Crucially for MRI, when neurons become active the body sends more oxygenated blood to the region to support their demand for energy (see figure to the left). The blood flow peaks approximately 6 seconds after neural activity. Thus, by measuring changes in oxygenated blood flow throughout the brain, fMRI allows scientists to infer neural activity.



The changes in blood flow measured by fMRI are called the **Blood Oxygenation Level Dependent (BOLD)** contrast. Generally, a set of images from the entire brain is acquired every 2-3 seconds. Although this provides relatively good temporal resolution, to view the whole brain requires the scanner to move quickly through each slice, exciting and relaxing. This means that fMRI has relatively poor spatial resolution, as evident in the comparison between MRI and fMRI in the figure below.





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PET: The principle underlying PET scanning is the use of radioactive isotopes. Recall from physics primer 2 that a radioisotope is an element that has fewer neutrons than the pure chemical element, and which therefore is unstable (in contrast to a stable isotope). Radioisotopes undergo positron emission or decay, a process in which a positron is emitted that eventually interacts with an electron to emit high energy particles called gamma photons.

Neuroimagers have capitalized on this physical process by using two techniques. First, they incorporate a radioisotope into a molecule metabolized or used by the body. Theoretically, any compound that the body uses can be "tagged" with a radioisotope and used in PET imaging, but the most commonly used biological molecule is a sugar called fluorodeoxyglucose (FDG), which the

brain metabolizes as energy. FDG can be labeled with Fluorine-18 (see box above) to become the radioisotope 18F-FDG. After 18F-FDG is injected or consumed by the patient or study participant, it becomes concentrated in regions of the brain that are most metabolically active, since those are the areas that are preferentially utilizing energy in the form of sugar (specifically, glucose).

Second, as with all radioisotopes, 18 F-FDG has





a characteristic rate of decay, which is called the uptake period. When most of the decay has occurred, the person can be placed in a scanner that detects gamma rays emitted throughout the brain. Areas that were most metabolically active during the uptake period will have the greatest concentration of the radioactive tracer (see figure on the left).

ᠴᡃᡆᢆᡃ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠊᠋᠋᠋᠋᠊ᢁ᠋᠄ᡔ᠋ᢄᡷ᠋ᡎᢂ᠋ᠴᡭᢋᡃᡎᠬᢂ᠋᠆᠋᠋ᢋ᠋᠋᠋ᠯ᠆ᡩ᠋ᠮ᠆ᡆ᠋᠋ᡩᡲ᠆᠋ᡆ᠋ᡐ᠆᠋ᡬ᠕᠋ᠼᢂ᠋ᡊ᠃ᢋᢌ᠋᠋᠋ᡎᢋ᠉᠆ᡬᡭ᠓ᠴ᠆ᡘᡭᡆ᠖ᢓᢋ᠋ᡃ᠍ᠴ᠉ᡬᡬ᠆᠍ᢣ᠂ᢓᡜ᠆᠙ᡬᢋ᠋᠑ᢂ᠋ᠮ᠄ᢋᢂᢂ᠃᠒





रेन्

ચઢ્ઠવ દે દ્વારા તે ત્યાં યું સાંગા મું સાંગા મું સાંગા મું સાંગા સાંગા સાંગા સાંગા સાંગા સાંગા સાંગા સાંગા સાંગ <u></u> ૣૢૢૢૢૹૻઌ૽ૢ૽ૺ)ઽ૾ૼૡ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૢૻૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૻૡ૽ૺૡૢૼૹૻ૱ૢૡૻઌ૽ૡૻ૽ૡૻૢૹૻઌ૽ૼૡૻ૽ૢૢૼૼૼૼૼૼૻૡૢ૾ૢૢૼૼૼૼૻઌૡૻૹૻૹૻ૽૱ૢૻઌૹૻ



ગશ્વેરુવાય છે. દેવતા છે. છે. આ પ્રાપ્ત છે. આ પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપત પ્રાપ્ત પ્ર પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપત પ્રાપત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપત પ્રાપત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપત પ પ્રાપત પ્ર નવઢા સુચાસુ માનદર નવે વર્તુ આ મુવ્ય લેવા વો સરાન્દુ વિંદ તે દેશ વશે કા વસે દે આ બુઠા વા સાથ જ દ્રા આ બુઠા નશ્રેશ્વ માર્જે દાવો ખેતી સ્થાવાલવા વર્દે દા શવા માર્ગ્સ રાગ્ય છે. ત્યાં પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપત પ્રાપ્ત પ્ર ૹ૾ૄૢૼૼૼૼૼઽૹઽ૾ઌ૾ૼૼૹૻૻઌ૽ૢૢૢૼૼૼૼઽૼ૱ૢૢૢૢ૽ૡ૽ૺ૱ૢૢૢૢૢૡ૱ૡઽૢૹૻૻ૱ૣ૽ઌ૽ૺ૱ૻ૽ૼ૱ૻૡ૽ૼૡૼૻ૽ૼ૱ૻ૾ૼ૾૽ૼૻ૾ૹ૾ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૻૺ૱ૻ૾ૡૻ૾ૼૼૼૼ૾૽ૼૻ૾ૹ૾ૼઌૼૻૹ૾૾ૺૼૻૹૣ૿ૡ૿ૻૹઽઽૼૻૺૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૹ૾ (FDG) શુપ્વર્ચેન માવે છે. આ ગામ ને બોવ લેમ વર્ષ તે ગ્રાન માથ તુથ સમય છે. મેં મેં મુદ્દ સુવ છેને છે.





गन्तरग्री इप्टेंदर् देने भाषग्रीन पर्ये में म्हान के का गुरुषा मुन्द्र में न के मुद्द में न के मुन्द्र में मुद्द रेगामवेर्श्वेदार्क्षेर्श्वेननेनमाहेश्रम्वे दरमाश्रक्षेद् नुश्रायायविद्या पशुन्दादेश्यक्ष्यायात्रश्राह्रश्रावेशायांदे য়ৢঢ়য়৽য়ৢঢ়৽য়৽ড়৾ঢ়৽য়৾য়ৼয়য়৾ঀয়৽ড়৾য়৾য়৽ঢ়য়৾৾ঀ৾য়৽য়য় क्षे) मे नहवाम विगाणिवामा नडका दे पर्ने मा क्षे मा कि ইক্ষা <u>ૢ</u>ૺૡૡ૽૽ૢૼૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૺૡૻૡ૽ૺૡ૾ૻૹૡૹૻૻઌૻૣૹૻૻૡૻૹૻૻૡૻ૽ઌૻ हुवार्श्वेन वर्ते वा चेन नवे कुन रेम नकुन रो व्येन न हे। ने དག་ནམམ་རྒྱུད་འགོོ་མོོ་པ་རེད། ོད་ཕྱོན་རྒྱིད་རིམ་དོན ar: र्ग्नेन' प्देनें न जुरू म्य दे खें मा हु ला ने खत्र र र र हु ला ले मा ૢઽૼૡૣૢૣૢૢૣૢૢૢૢૺૡૻૡૢૢૢૢ૽ૼ<u>ૼ</u>ઽૡ૽ૢઽૢૡૻઌૣઌૢૼૡૡ૽ૼૼૢૡૻૡ૽ૼૢૡૻૡૼ૱ૡ૽ૼૼ · भुगश्रास्त्रें निवे हुवाहराने वहार्त्वे निवर्त्व होनामारेना

At this point, you might be wondering how researchers know that the temporo-parietal junction is involved in these aspects of social cognition. Information about the brain's activity and how networks in the brain function to produce cognition is known in large part because of studies using a technique called functional MRI (fMRI). Similar to MRI, fMRI works by exploiting differences in magnetic properties, in this case, oxygenated hemoglobin. Because "active" regions of the brain recruit oxygenated blood, fMRI allows researchers to determine which areas are relatively more active than others. To learn more about the physical processes underlying MRI and fMRI, see box 2.

Another neuroimaging technique that has been vital for understanding the neural systems that support emotion and memory is Positron Emission Tomography (PET). PET visualizes activity in the brain by introducing radioactively tagged molecules used by the brain (for example, glucose or neurotransmitters). Whereas fMRI traces short-term activation patterns, PET gives a more cumulative picture of activity patterns in various regions of the brain (for more detail on the physical processes underlying PET, see box 2). As illustrated later in this primer, PET imaging using radioactively labeled neurotransmitters such as dopamine has been crucial for understanding brain function.

Box 3. IN-DEPTH: CONSTRUCTING AN FMRI STUDY

Functional MRI allows researchers to detect changes in oxygenated blood flow that occur when a person is performing a task. But the most important part of designing an fMRI study is to pick an appropriate point of comparison with which to contrast the task of interest. To do this, researchers often use what is called a control task. Early on, when fMRI was just beginning to be used, researchers often compared their task of interest with a resting state, a period of time when the person lies still with their eyes closed and is not performing the task of interest.

Do you notice a potential problem with this method? Is the brain ever really truly at rest? Not long after studies were conducted this way, scientists noticed that not only is the brain never at rest, but when a person is not faced with an overt task, the human brain has a characteristic pattern of activity. This pattern of activity has come to be called the *default mode* or *resting state*, which we will discuss in more detail in primer IV. The characteristic pattern of brain activity seen in the default mode is shown in the images below.





रेश्वन्याश्रयान्नः

᠋᠋ᢆᠯ᠉᠋᠋᠋ᡃᠭᡆ᠉᠊ᠭᢄ᠉ᠽ᠄ᡭᡆ᠈᠊᠋᠋ᢟ᠋᠋ᢖᢧ᠋ᡬᡃ᠍ᠫ᠆᠈ᡱᢅ᠆᠋ᡝ᠆ᠵ᠋᠋ᠬᠯᡭᡭ᠂᠋᠋ᡏᢩᢂ᠉ᢆᠴᡆ᠉᠂ᡐ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡃ᠆᠋᠋᠋ᡪ᠋ᡎᠲ᠈ᢩᢣᢩᠧ᠊᠍ᢓᢂ᠋ᠴ᠅ᡬᡆ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠆ᢋ᠋ᠬᡬ᠉ᢙ᠋ᢋᢄ᠊ᡜᢆᡬ᠍᠍ᢓ᠆ᢅᡱᡗ᠊ᡬ᠉ᢋᡨ᠋ᠴᠵ

૬ અઢઅશ બેને માર્ફે ન છેન એશ્રશ માલે તે કુ ગાંત શાળે ન જોના જોન છે છે છે છે છે. આ જોના જોના જોના જોના જોના જોના જ)૬'ૡર્વેઽ'યવે'યવચાર્જીવા'દે'વર્ગીવા'ર્શ્વેઽ'રોટેઽ'યવે'રટ્ટે'લેવ'ટ્રા'વ'ચક્રુઽ'બેચ'ફેંગચાવટુઽ'ગે'પેંડી વિગલેલ'ર્શ્વેગ'ઽધર'ઽદ'વર'ટેડ'વચ્ચ'ર્સ્ટ્ર'ઽધર'



Beyond the interest in what the brain is doing when it is not busy with a specific task, this discovery emphasized to researchers the importance of using a control task. The thinking behind the use of a control task is that by subtracting the BOLD activity detected during the control task from the BOLD activity detected during the task of interest, one is left with the activity that is specific to the task of interest.

With this in mind, let's try to design a study that will help us understand the neural systems related to processing

emotional facial expressions. First, imagine what you will have the subject do in the scanner. Remember, they will be lying down in a small tube and will have to remain very still. What will you have this man look at in the scanner?

Let's start by showing him a picture of someone with an emotional facial expression. Is this enough to get an accurate picture of how the brain processes emotional faces? Probably not, for several reasons. First, think

back to other experiments you have done or read about and notice that most experiments involve many repetitions, because there is bound to be unwanted "noise" in a single repetition.

A basic principle of experimental design is that confidence in the final outcome is increased by taking repeated measures and then averaging them. For example, what if during presentation of this face, the subject suddenly remembers that they forgot to wish their friend happy birthday. If you were to look at the brain activity during this single event, you would not gain any understanding of the neural response to faces. For this reason, let us plan to show the same image several times so that the brain's response to each repetition can be averaged.





Now, by summing the response to each repeated showing of this photograph, we can get a pretty good idea of the brain activity that takes place when viewing a picture of this man with a surprised facial expression. However, is that all we want to know? Remember our initial question: What are the neural systems related to processing emotional facial expressions? Now, what should we add to the study to gain an understanding how the brain processes emotional facial expressions of all sorts?

ุ ๆระเดิจา ผู้สาย หริกพรรจิโพ พพ

र्देत्र'गुर'र' ፚ፟ቚۥ፝፞፞ၛቚۥૡઽ૾ૼૼૢૻૼઽૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽૿ૺ૱ૻૡ૾૽ૡૻૻ૾ૡૻૡૻૡૻૡૻૡ૽ૻૡૻ૽ૡૻૡ૽૿ૡૻ૽ૡૻૡ૽૿ૡૻ૽ૡૻૡ૽૿ૡૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽૿ૡૻૡ૽૿૱૱ૡ૽ૻૡૼ૱૱ૡૻ૽ૼૡૻ สุมพาทุการทุกาพิสาสมาสิพาราพิสุท รากาซีพามิมมพาผู้กามซีสาษิราชิาทรีการนิสมาณขุกาทุสาณ ᠊᠋ᡜ᠋᠋᠋ᡪᡃᠴ᠋ᢂ᠂᠘᠋᠋᠆ᡷ᠗᠉᠗᠂ᡊᠴ᠆᠋ᢟ᠙᠋ᢩᢞᡵ᠂ᠺᡆᢩ᠋ᡆ᠇ᢎᡃᠬ᠈ᢅᢩᢜ᠆᠈ᡏᠯᢅ᠋ᡷᡏ᠋ᢩᠬᢂ᠂ᠱ᠋ᢅ᠋ᡏ᠊ᡃᠬ᠆ᠱᠮ᠆ᡃᡐᢂ᠈᠋ᢩ᠍᠍ᢓ᠆ᡃᡭ᠗᠂᠋᠋᠋ᢋ᠆ᡷᡭ᠉ᡩ᠋ᡞ



५[.]५४त्रित प्रिं न्यर इते त्रया व्यू र र्श्ने र भेय हेंग या पेंत कुर पत र्थे मारापर थे पेंट पर रेना कु यळत परी पा पहेत त्रया र ळेंया मार्ने ट रेया पठि मारा हे प्राय या के प्राय र र्थे या में द र र या के मारा हे प्राय या के मारा हे त



ઞક્ષ્વા'નકાન'લેન'વદ્દ્વા'રેવાય'નર્ગેન'ક્ષેવા'દ્રોન'મલે'વાલે'રેય'શે'જ્ઞ'વદે'દ્ર'લેવા'દ્રે' થનચ'બેચ'વદ્દ્રચાર'ર્વેન' <u></u> भूनामान्ता ने न्वा गी क क्षें अभाव है भाषा वह भाषा यह ते का अध्य अधि युवा में ताने ताने ता के वा के ना के ना के न

ฺ ี่ รางเพิ่งเริ่าจึงเฏิ่งเชิ้ๆเๆมะเด่เสๅ สูามธัสเมระนี้เดิๆเสงเรงมงเสรริงเมิ่าชิ้ๆเราเพิ่สๅ รระนี้เสิๅ

નેતેએનાનાન્પ્યાનોર્કેન્ડ્રાવ્દ્વા કુ. બેન્નના

ૡ૽૾ૼૺ૾૾ૢ૽ૺઽૢૠ૾૾ૹૹૡૻૡૻ૱૱ૢૻૡ૽૽ૡ૽૾૱ૻૡ૽૾ૡૻ૱ૻૡ૽ૼૡ૱૱ૡ૽ૡ૽ૡ૱૱૱ૡ૽

הלישימילישיחימדימאילדיחילילרן

ર્વેન્ડ્ર'ગચ્ચ છે.'ગચ્ચર' ફ્રેન્ડ્ર'ને લે ગક્તુનુ વશ્ચરનો ચઢંત્ર'ગન્ડ ગુન્ડ્ર'ન તે છેન્ડ - ५भेग्रभःग्रेण्यशर्मेदाविगायाल्ग्रभावेद्रोयाळुंगाद्रमाळढुंगायते ग्राह्म ^{भ्}भनग्रः भ्राप्तान्य भाषान्य के स्वित् भाषान्य के भ भाषान्य के भा वत् नर्हेन जुरु र्षेत् ने प्यम् पवि पहें त जुन क्वें न्य क्वें न क्वें क्वें क्वें क्वें न क्वें क्वें न क्वें क्वे કેૢઽૢૻઽઽૡ૾ૺૢૢૢૢૹૣઌ૽ૻ૽૽ૡ૽૾ૺૼૻ૾ૡૢૻઽૻૻૻઌ૽ૼઽૻૡૡ૾ૢૺૼૼૼૼૼૼૻૡ૽ૼૡ૽ૼ૱ૻૡૼૡ૾ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡ૽૾ૡ૾ૻૡ૽૾ૡ૾ૻૡૡ૽૾ૡ भवे जुप्याय ने झे न प्रश्न नहवा यादिते जुन क्वें नर न के वा शाय गर प्रजे था



One thing we can do to get a fuller picture, is to show multiple examples of several different facial expressions and averaging the BOLD activity that is elicited. But remember that we still have the background problem. With what do we compare the activity that takes place during this active portion of the study? First, let's think about what might be active during this task that is not specific to our question. There will certainly be visual processing because a picture is being viewed. There is also likely to be neural activity related to attention, since participants are actively attending to the stimuli that are being presented.

This is the point where we need to design a control task that will allow us to subtract all of the neural activity that is non-specific to our interest in emotional face processing. What would you use as a control task?



Shown to the left is the complete study design that one research group used to investigate emotional facial expressions. For their control task, they showed photographs



of radios that are matched to the face photographs according to the amount of light contained in the picture and the length of time they are presented. Thus, by subtracting the BOLD activity that occurs during the control task from that which occurs during the emotional face task, presumably all that is left is the neural activity that is unique to viewing emotional faces.

Why do you think they used radios?

At this point, you may notice many other questions that will be important to this study design. For example, who are the people looking at the photographs? Are they all males, or are there males and females? Are they children or adults? Can you think of other variables that

might be important in studying people's processing of emotion expressions?

In this particular study, the researchers aimed to examine whether people who have social anxiety disorder (SAD) respond differently to emotional facial expressions. Persons with SAD have excessive fears about what others see and think about them, and are often biased to attend to critical or threatening facial expressions. As you might imagine, their ability to act in social situations such as public speaking is often badly affected.

⁸४४४'विन'ग्रे'मर्गेन'श्चेना'यर्न''य'गय'गवन''त् प्युर'रेश'मंदे'द्रे'न'गवन्धरार्थे'विनाश्वक्रस्थ'यत्तैर'ग्रिंन'ग्रे'नश्वस्थ क्वेर'पर्वर'र्थेन' दे'नगवे''त्येर'त्व पदापर'ने' าาาาสูราานิ่ (ๆสุพาพูรพา)ริพาพิราทุศสารทาทรายราชีราชิาาพพาสิราคราชิาวรุทาทุพๆ ผูาสูาพิสาพิรา

ાઉંન ભૂન ત્વાર્થે ત્રા છું ગાલવા બેને મસૂન બધાવ બાવે મેને ન્યું ને છું તે છું તે છું તે છું તે છું તે છું તે છુ

કેન જે જે ત

ગાબશ્વાસ્થાયાયાયાને તે લેવા વદ્વા જંતા માં લેવા વીશ્વાસે સર્સો દ્વા र्श्वेन मुग्र मंदेन्द्र देव मार्गेन मुग्र कक्त देवा रेन् मार्ग् भाषा के के मार्ग् के मार्ग् के मार्ग के के के मार्ग के के के मार्ग के के मार्ग के के मार्ग के मा શે : & રુ બ ગારે તે સે ગાય જે ગાય સે ગાય સ યલે સુદ વ્યુવ વ્યુવ વર્ષે માં છે નક્રુ વ પર તે 'દ ના 'મેં ર્સે & ગાંવે વ્રદ્વ ! Ðुगलगामी केन रु. नक्षु न भरेना <u>-</u> નેશવાયોસશાસ્ટ્રીંદાસર્સેંસપાવે યોર્નેઽઃરેશઃઽઽઃક્રેલઃગલે.ગુઃયલયાયો સૂનશઃશું ગુદ્ર ગલે વિયાયો વર્ટેટ ਸ਼੶૬ਗ਼੶ୖੑੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼ਸ਼੶ਫ਼ੑੑੑ੶ਫ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼ਫ਼ਖ਼੶ਸ਼ਖ਼੶ਸ਼ਖ਼ੑ੶ਸ਼ਖ਼ੑ੶ਖ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਸ਼੶੶ <u>નુશ્રેનાયાનગામ: ક્રોલાનવે: નુગર: કુવેનુ: વગુલાનગામે કુવામરા</u> છે નું છે છે છે.



. शुनः क्रुः नेना ने शव गानः विगाया गवि पर्दे व राजाविमा फुन जुन न्या

พธพพานริรารส์พาทดิานรีสาอาทุศทาชิทาที่เล็กาอิรารที่พามาพิรา รายาลรสาสพาพิพพา



สมมาฏราพรามราริมาพิสา

র্ষিশাস্বস্ন ઽૻૹૻૺૼૡ૾ૺ૱ૢૻઌૢૻૡઌૢૻૡઽ૾ૡ૾ૺઽૢૢૢૣૢૢૣૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૻૡૺ૱ૡૢૡૻઌૻ૾૱ૡૢઌૻૻૻ૾ૢૼ૱ૢૻૡૼ૱૱ૡૢ૾ૺ૱ૡૡ૱ૡ૾ૡ૱ૡૡ૱૱ૡ૾૾ૡૡ૱૱ૡ क्तेत्र'गर'र'र'गर'णर''ॲन'र'र'न'दे'ऄ्रॅस'र'ळॅंश'नश्रश'गविग'हेन'र्देश। न्ये'रेश'थ'श्रेग'गर्हेन'ववित' ૬ૢૡૡ૽ૼૼૼૼૼઽઌૡ૽ૺૼ૾ૢૢૼૻૹૹૼૡૻૻ૽૽ૢ૾ૺૼૹૻૻૹૻ૽૾ૼૼઽૻૹ૽ૼૻૻ૽૽ૼ૽૽ૢ૽ૺૢૼૢૻ૽ૼઽ૽ૺૠૻ_{ૡૼૺ}ૹૹૻૻૡૢૻઽૻૡૼૼૼઽૻૡૡ૽ૼૼૼૼઽૻૡ૽ૼૼૼઽૻૡ૽ૼૡૼૡ૽ૻ૱૿૽ૡ૽ૼૼ૱૿૽૱ ઞક્રવા'ન્દ્યન્'પલેન્સ'રુ બ્લાયલે સાથવ' સચ્ચ છે શ્રાપ્તના વાદ્ય વાદ્ય વાદ્ય છે સાથવા વાદ્ય વાદ્ય વાદ્ય વાદ્ય વાદ ૡ૾ૼૹ੶ૢૼૣૹ૾૾ઌૢૹૻઌૻૹૡૢૻૼૢૼૼૻૹ૽ૢ૾ૡ૾ૻૼૢૼૻૡૻઽૻઌૡૢ૽ૺૡૻૢૣૡ૽ૼૹ૽૾ૡ૽ૻૡ૽૾ૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡૡૣૻૡૻ If you wanted to design a study to investigate how the brains of individuals with SAD differ from those of people who do not suffer this social disorder, how might you apply the task described above?

These particular researchers gave the task to two different populations: 10 people with SAD, and 10 without. They found that when they compared the two groups, the SAD group had more activity in the amygdala in response to the negative emotion faces minus the radio control. The amygdala is known to be important for the fear response to threatening stimuli, and it is likely that excessive activity in this brain region is related, at least in part, to excessive social anxiety.



How to design research with imaging

As you might imagine, particularly after reading **box 3**, the most important aspect of functional neuroimaging (fMRI and PET) is to design an appropriate task that will allow researchers to examine the neural systems relevant to their topic of study. In fact, the snake story, which we have revisited many times and will continue to revisit throughout the primer, has been employed in fMRI studies of emotion. This technique, called **emotion induction**, draws on the human imagination to produce changes in mental and bodily states.

Remarkably, many of the systems that are active when a person imagines a situation also are active when the person experiences that same situation. This process is called simulation and will be explored more thoroughly below. Emotion induction therefore can be used in studies to investigate the neural and bodily systems important for different emotions. One study used emotional stories, including our snake story, to explore whether the same neural systems are active across all inductions of the same type (in this case, fear).

Now, let us contrast the snake story with a second emotion induction story used in the same study:

You are lounging on a cushy floor pillow, opening a new book. You glance up as your puppy trots over and wiggles into your lap. As her small body relaxes, you sense both your hearts beating evenly. Tenderly petting her soft fur cultivates a lovely sense of ease. You feel an affectionate happiness.



*ᢓᠣᢅ᠆ᡲᡲ᠆᠄ᠱᢂᡃᠵ᠋᠋᠋ᢁᡃᠵᡄᡊᡆᡆᢅ᠉ᢩᡷᢋ*ᢙᢆ᠋ᡎ᠋᠊ᠭ᠄᠉᠋᠊᠋ᡢᡃ᠀᠋᠋᠆᠋ᡃᠴ᠆ᡷᠯ᠋ᠴ᠋᠆ᡔ᠋᠆ᠵ᠋ᡷᠯ᠉ᠴ᠀ᢍᡃ᠋᠋ᢋ᠋᠆ᢋ᠋᠈ᡷᡆ᠋᠂᠋ᡘᠼᡀ᠋ᡎᠴᠴᢂᡃᢓᢂ᠋ᡃᠴ᠋᠍ᡒ . सुरुः भ्रुप्ट्रस् भेरे दे स्रेन्द् न्या तुरु तुरु स् राज्य व्युग छेन् प्र भाष्ट्रि त्यु ने किंत्व व्यय के दिन या के प्र के किंत्य के स् या भाष्ट्रेन्य के स्थित

<u>૬</u>ૻઽૻૹૼૼૹૹ૱ૹૡ૾૾૱ઌૹૻૻૡૺૡ૽ૻઽૺૡૡ૾ૺ૱ઽૡૢૻઌૡ૽ૼૡૻૹ૾ૹ૱ૹ૾ૢૺૼૼૼઽૹૢૣૡૹૢૣ૱ૹ૽ૢ૾ૹૣઽૡ૽ૼૹ૾ૹૻૻૡ૽૾ૡૡૡ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ ગણસાંગુનાર્જ્યુંગાનસુનાતું જીંગી

ॷॸॱॷॱॖॖॖॖॱॖॖॖ॓ๅୖୖ୵^ॱक़ॺॱऀज़ॖॖॻॖॖॖॸॱग़ॖॖॖऺॖक़ॱॸॖॖॺॸॱॺऻड़ॖॖॺऻॺॱॺॱॵॱॵऄऀॺऻॱॺॱॸॆॱॸॸॱऀख़ॱॺॸॱऄॖॖऀॸॱऄक़ॱॸक़ॺऻॱॸॶॸॱॶॖ ર્લેન્

র্দ্রিঝান্যান্যনিরা ^ૹૺૹૹ[੶]૽૽ૢૺ૽ૻਗ਼ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૹૻઌૻઌૡૻૻૡૡૢૻૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૻઌૻઌૻૹૢ૽ૢૢ૽ૺૢૼૢૻૡૢ૽ૼઌૻૻૹૻૣૢ૾ૣૣૺૼૣૻૡ૾૽ઌૡૢૻૡ૽ૢૺૢૻૻઌૻૡૺ



<u>श्</u>रःग्रे'विनःवह् नामःननानीशःवे'ग्रेनः झें'ने'शेवे केंनश्राष्ट्रे महिशःहे। केंनशःवह्नना झेंत'र्यना

ગાય કે ર્સેંગચાયત્ર્સના વાદ્યના સુંત સાર્યના માર્ય સું મેં વે ગ્રાન માનના સુરાત ને ભૂવે બાદ્યના સુંત ચેંના માવે

Were you able to imagine that it was you that was tenderly petting the puppy? Did you notice any changes in your body or mind? Did your heartbeat slow down? Did your skin seem to get warmer? Did your inhalation get slower and your exhalation deeper? Did you have any additional thoughts associated with the story, for example, "Oh, that would be wonderful." How was your energy level after imagining the scenario? Is there a word you would use to describe the set of changes that occurred as you read this?

In the study, the experimenters used this more positive emotion induction to explore the difference between the neural systems active during fearful emotional experiences (the snake, for example) and those active during rewarding and positive emotional experiences (the puppy, for example). Let us turn now to the neural systems important for positive and rewarding emotional events. In so doing, we will think about 3 components of emotion:

- 1. Arousal: feeling attentive or reactive to a stimulus, as opposed to feeling relaxed, still, or sleepy.
- **2.** Core affect: a state which signals that a stimulus is helpful or harmful, rewarding or threatening, pleasurable or displeasurable.
- 3. Appraisal: taking account of the meaning of a situation

Although we will explore the neural systems important for each of these three components, be sure to keep in mind that these systems do not work in isolation and that distinctions among the three components are somewhat artificial. Rather, the systems related to these three components are connected and affect one another in important ways, weaving the layers that comprise our complex experiences of emotions. To underscore this, you will notice that some regions of the brain–most notably, the amygdala–are **Figure 9:** Diagram of the effects of the two branches of the autonomic nervous system: the parasympathetic (left) and sympathetic (right) nervous systems. Also pictured are the organs and nerves involved in each effect. From: http://biologypictures.blogspot.com/2011/10/ nervous-system-poster.html

discussed as important for multiple components.

Arousal

Returning again to our snake in the road scenario, imagine seeing the snake lunge and feeling its fangs enter your leg. Not surprisingly, studies show that when people imagine scenarios such as this one, they percieve them as more vivid and attention grabbing than when they imagine more neutral scenarios. This feeling of vividness and alertness is characteristic of emotional arousal, and thus, the snake scenario is described as an emotionally arousing event. Not only is the stimulus more vivid, but you also





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> रूर:ग्रीप्रमें भवागी केरानु क्रुपानरा अन्यते. ૱ૢૢૢઽૻ૾૾૱ૡ૽ૺૼ૱ૻૡ૾ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૻૻૢ૱ૡ૽ૼ૱૱૱૱ *&*र्ररअर्ळेन्र्यान्यश्राम्नन्यम्रअर्छेन्त्वा त्रुवाया ૨૬⁻ગેશર્સ્ટેર ન'લેગ'ગે'બ્ટર સુર સેન્ડન ૾ૡ૾ૺ૱ૡ૬ૢਗ਼੶૽૽ૼૢૺ૱૱ૹઽ૽૾૾ૼૹ੶ਗ਼ૹૹૻ૾ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૹ૽૽૱ૢૺૼૼૼૼ য়৸ঀ৾ঀয়৾ঀ৾৽ড়ৢ৾৾ঀৢ৾৾য়৾ঀৣয়৸ঀ৾ঀ৾ঀ৾৽য়৽য়য়য় શ્નેનુપ્યંત્ર વર્ત્ત્ય નેરે ગ્રુપ્ય નગતવાનુ છે. ગમ્ સે ગું મું સ્થયાય સુવયાવરો વા છે. લેવા સ્થય ઐ¹र्ने ഷूर केर व्याग गो भें न

श्चे^{व्या}त्र श्व से र्या मेना

ส_{स्}रूग्याने द्वार्ग्य स्वरह्तुं द क्रेया नर होता रा वग्रः होन स्वग्यर्देवरेग ग्राम होन परेन ð5' શીશ્વ ત્યાસ્ટ્રેન્ સુગવેલા વસાઉવા સુન ૱ૡૢઽૻૹૣઽૻઙૡ૽ૺૹૻૡૢૹૡૡૡૡ૽ૼૡૻ૱ૡ૽ૼૼૻ - युन-ळग्वार्डवान्यश्वास्तरन्तर्ग्वाहन् केवेर्ट्ट

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केन्द्रिः वरेषः केंत्रः यीः दन्दः स्व

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श्चेरःची'तयरःहेरःहेन्दवेवया

ર્ચેટ.નજ્ઞ.લબ્રિજ્ઞ.કેટી

क्रेंचवे.वि.प्वील.स्रेल.ग्रूट)

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୶ଛିନ୍ୟାର୍ଜ୍ଞାମୁନ୍ଦର୍ନିଶ୍ୱ

न्मे रेश (रूर व्युवान्तर इयावना

र्केन्र (गर्थे का) नृत्र गरे श केंन्र (गणग)

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गी'य्यत्र'यगामहिरूर'र्ने स्ट्री

એય&ગ્વાદેશ'દર્ગોશ'ય'ર્ત્તે'દ્વાદ: જ આવાગાય સે સ્થયાયત હુંત વરોવાએ દુ: દ્વાદાદાદા પ્રાથય સે વદ્વાદાદાદાદા ગુરાજ ગાસુ અર્થે દેવે છે. નગર શે/શન પ્રસ્થાયને જયા શે અપ્રદ્વ વ્યુવ લેવા ગાન સેવ માને ખેતા ને ભૂમ ખેતા સુખ્ય જેવા શે શુના જ વાશ અપે ને સ્થય ને તે સ્થય ને સ્થય ન

बेवावी'ज्ञुल'बॅ'दच्चेन'वानन्द्रवा

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ब्रह्मेथा-सायवीया-क्रुंस

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षाठेषःक्षेत्रःग्रि**:८२८२:३**/२प "८९४२:५४:४३४") ("८९४२:४५८:८३४:४७८:५८)")

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are not likely to turn your head and look at the harmless bug crawling next to you. Rather, your attention is focused on one stimulus, at the expense of all other possible stimuli, a phenomenon known as sensory gating. This phenomenon is demonstrated experimentally by showing people groups of photographs from a single category (such as trees) and containing one discrepant photograph (such as a snake).

People are much faster to chose the discrepant item and are not delayed by distractions if it is emotionally arousing.

Contrast that scenario with the one in which you pet the puppy. Your body relaxes during this non-arousing event, and you could imagine talking with a friend, daydreaming, or even falling asleep under these conditions. What are the neural systems at work during the snake and puppy scenarios, and how those neural systems elicit the relaxed or aroused states that help characterize an emotional event? Three systems or regions play key roles.

In Primer IV, we will discuss one system that helps regulate arousal, the Reticular Activating System (RAS). While this system affects attention and arousal, it is not the primary sytem called into play during an acute emotional event. In general, the sensory gating and feelings of arousal and alertness that occur in our snake scenario, for example, are produced by activation of the autonomic nervous system (ANS). The ANS is divided into two branches: the sympathetic nervous system (SNS), and the parasympathetic nervous system. We will discuss these systems again in Primer IV, but they are relevant here. Effects of the two branches are depicted in figure 9.

The SNS often is associated with the "fight or flight" response, and is activated when an organism must mobilze energy to respond to a threat, often by either fighting/defending or running away The SNS often is associated with the "fight or flight" response, and is activated when an organism must mobilze energy to respond to a threat, often by either fighting/defending or running away (flight). Stimulation of the SNS results in pupil dilation, increased heart rate, increased conversion of glycogen to glucose (a source of fast energy) and a decrease in processes such as **Figure 10:** Location of the cingulate gyrus, and within it, the anterior cingulate cortex (ACC)



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র্জনা

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न्यें रेश १० वक्रेट म्या हे कुन्दर दे वे तर ळंबरसन्वरसंदेरदकेन्राचगा सन् भुवर (ACC) নতশ্ব:শ্রী:জনাশ:শ্রেন্দা

<code>ਸ਼</mark>ᠹᢅᡏ᠊ᠴᡃᠵ᠋ᡪᠵ᠋᠋᠆᠌᠌᠋ᠴ᠋ᡒ᠋ᡆ᠋ᢅᠹ᠆ᢔᡎ᠋᠋᠇ᠴ᠈ᠱᠬᢂ᠋ᡆᢩᢓᡄᡕ᠋᠊ᠧᡪᠴᡃᡅᡭ᠋᠋ᢋ᠋᠋᠆᠋ᡶ᠉ᡃᢋ᠉ᢓᢩ᠃ᠭᢓ᠄᠊ᡍᢩᡄᠵᠴ᠋ᡃᡘᡬ᠍ᡎᡬ᠄ᡍᢩᡄ᠇ᠴ᠋ᠯᡲ᠔᠉᠄ᠱᡭ᠄ᢂᠴᢂ᠈ᠱ</code>

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digestion, which are less important during a threat. The SNS is important when the organism is faced with a stimulus or event that is threatening or **salient**, which means that it has significance for the organism, consequently stands out from other stimuli, and recruits neural and bodily resources.

The SNS response to salient stimuli emerged long agoin evolutionary history: it appears that evolution shaped a neural system to evaluate salience in the environment and mobilize the brain and body to attend to salient stimuli via activation of the ANS. The two regions of the brain most responsible for evaluating salience and activating a response are the anterior cingulate cortex (ACC) (figure 10) and

the amygdala (figure 11). The ACC is connected and acts together with the amygdala, hypothalamus, and insula. It responds broadly to salient stimuli from pain to being informed that you have made a mistake. It also initiates SNS activity, via connections to the hypothalamus and midbrain, in response to a challenge or stressor. For example, difficult and stressful cognitive tasks activate the ACC, which in turn accelerates the heart rate. Moreover, patients who have damage specifically in this region have a weakened cardiovascular response to mental stress. In other words, they can not mobilize the fight or flight system to respond to a challenge or stressor.

The second region of the brain involved in detecting salient stimuli in the environment and initiating sympathetic nervous activity is the amygdala (see figure 11). Recall that the amygdala was one of the hubs of the limbic system, as envisioned by Paul Maclean and other early neuroanatomists. However, the amygdala is not a simple relay in the middle of a circuit. If it were, your reaction to the snake striking at your leg would be similar to your reaction if a stick grazed your leg. Instead, your amygdala registers the snake in a few thousandths of a second, and is able to generate an almost immediate response because of its direct connections to incoming sensory signals.

Actually, the amygdala is a collection of nuclei located just in front of the hippocampus (see figures 11 and 12). Each of these nuclei has distinct input and output. For example, the lateral nucleus of the amygdala receives extensive sensory input from the viscera (internal organs of the body) and from sensory systems, and it sends major output to the hypothalamus and midbrain which stimulates the autonomic nervous system. This anatomy puts the amygdala in the perfect position to detect threat and support the emotion, 'fear', because it is able to quickly turn sensory information into a relevant behavioral response.



Figure 11: Location of the amygdala, just anterior to (in front of) the hippocampus.

ગઠેશઃર્દ્ધે સ્વત્ર કરા ભાષા (SNS) ભાષ્ય સ્પ્રું વાયે સ્વાયો સ્વાયો સુવાયે સ્વાયો સુવાયે ગં સુવાય સ્વયં ગં સુવાય સ્વયં ગં સુવાયે ગં સુવાયે ગં સુવાયે ગં સુવાય સ્વયં ગં સુવાય સુ

૾૾ૣૣઽ:ૡૢૼૼૡૡૢઽૻ૱ૡૡૺૡ षणा यनः भुतः (ACC) (दये रेशा १०) दरायया र्डेगा यहर्ति (दये रेशा ११) यडर्या दे प्रथय यह्त रेंग पक्वेरायगा यहर्त् ાવચા જેવા ગ્રાન 'લેં 'નન' ગ્રાન સુવા વેવા આ ગ્રીન બુલ ના અયને નર સુવા વચા વર્ષને 'જેન' ને 'નવા નન અણચાનું વચા વર્ષવા વો 'બેંના ને ચ' ૹઽૻૼ[ૢ]ૼૹૻૡ૽૿૾૱ઽૹ૽ૢ૿ૺૻૹૹૢઽૼૹ૾ૢૢૼૼૼૼૻઽઽૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૻૹ૾૾ૢૻૼ૱ૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽૾ૺૹૻ૽ૹૻ૽ૼૻૼૼૻઽ૱૱ૹૻૻૡૻઌૻૻૡૻૻૡૻૻઌૻૻૡ૽ૻઌૻ૽ૡૻ૽૾ૻઌ૽ૻ૱ૻૡ૽ૻ૱ૻૹ૽ૺૻઌૻૼ૱ૻૹ૽૾ૢ૽ૻૡ૾ૻૼૼૼૼ૽ૼૻૼ૱ૻૹ૽૾ૢ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૼૼૼૼ૽ૼૻૼ૱ૻૹ૽૾ૢ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૼૼૼૼ૽ૼૻૼ૱ૻૹ૽ૺૻૡ૽ૼૻૻ૱ૻૹૺૻૻ૱ૻૻ૱ૻૹ૽ૻ૱ૻૻ૱ૻૹ૽ र्नु∛ा



А final area in the brain that is particularly important for recognizing and coding salience is the insula, especially the anterior portion of the insula. The insular lobe is the large area of cortex tucked underneath the inferior frontal lobe and superior temporal lobe (see figure 13). It receives input from the organs in your body, or viscera, through that fibers carry information about temperature, pain, oxygen supply, blood sugar levels, concentration of body fluids, and the state of the muscles. For this reason, it is thought to be responsible for interoception, or the 'feeling' of the state of the body. Furthermore, individuals who have



stronger interoceptive awareness are more aware of their emotional state.

Notice that this system supports the James-Lange theory of emotion, in that the bodily reaction to a stimulus is crucial for the experience of emotions. With this system in mind, it is also easier to understand why Aristotle and others thought that the heart was the locus of thought and emotion. See box 4 for a discussion of real-world behaviors that alter interoception and salience detection.



Figure 12: Subdivisions of the amygdala and their major input and output. In particular, sensory information enters the lateral nucleus (purple) and output from the central nucleus to the hypothalamus, midbrain, pons, and medulla (red) regulate autonomic responses. From: http://homepage.psy.utexas.edu/homepage/class/Psy308/Salinas/Emotion/Amygdala.gif

Figure 13: Location of the anterior insula cortex (AIC) and posterior insula cortex (PIC), with the temporal lobe removed to make the insular cortex visible.

२२१ नेदेःवर्तः पद्येवः नरः श्रे पद्येवः कः पद्येवः मार्चेः र्त्तेः क्वस्थ्येवः वर्त्ते रः द्वेः त्रमा फ़ुः सर्केवः पद्येवः प्युर्भा स्वर्ते न्द्र न्द्र स्वर्भ्यः स्वर्धेवः क्वस्थाः क्षे हिष्यः श्चीः मार्विमाशः कः (व्वैनः क्षुश्वाः सर्केवः स्वः) क्वस्यः लुपाशः र्द्धवाः न्द्रस्यः श्चीः प्वार्थे स्वर्ध्याः द्वेवः कः पद्येवः कः पद्येवः कः पद्येवः त्वस्य स्वर्ध्याः स्वर्ध्यः स्वर्ध्याः स्वर्ध्याः स्वर्ध्याः स्वर्ध्याः स्वर्ध्याः स्वर्ध्याः स्वर्ध्याः स्वर्ध्याः स्वर्ध्यः स्वर्ध्याः स्वर्ध्याः स्वर्ध्याः स्वर्त्यः स्वर्ध्यः स्वर्ध्यः स्वर्ध्याः स्वर्ध्यः स्वर्ध्यः स्वर्ध्यः स्वर्ध्यः स्वर्ध्यः स्वर्ध्यः स्वर्ध्याः स्वर्ध्यः स्वर्ध्यः स्वर्ध्यः स्वर्ध्यः स्वर्ध्यः स्वर्य्यः स्वर्ध्यः स्वर्ध्यः स्वर्ध्यः स्वर्ध्वाः कः पद्य्वितः पद्य्येः त्वर्यः स्वर्त्यः स्वर्य्यः स्वरः स्वर्य्याः स्वर्य्यः स्वरः स्वर्य्याः स्वर्य्यः स्वर्यः स्वर्य्याः स्वर्य्यः स्वर्यः स्वर्यः स्वर्य्याः स्वर्य्याः स्वर्य्याः स्वर्यः स्वर्य्याः स्वर्य्याः स्वर्य्यः स्वर्यः स्वरः स्वर्यः स

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अर्देवर्नेन सुवा क्रेवर क्षया वार्टे हगर्भगर्डेन् भाननाम् क्षेगाञ्च า้จิ มี2. พระ เยื่อ เพ่าย่าง เลื่อ เ वे ग्रेन् जुव रेना ने वे जन्म के अ ૹ૾ૣૺઽ੶ઌૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૢૻૢૢૢૢઌૢ૱ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૢૻ૱ૡૢૹૻ <u> ને સ્ત્રી</u> ને ભા સ્નેન્ડ સુવ શે ભાગ য়৽৾৾ঀ৾৽য়৾৾ঀৢয়ঀঀঀ৽য়৾৾ৠৠঢ়৽৾৾ড়৽ঀ৾ৼ ગહુંગાવન્ન શે સેન્ડ જ ગાંકે શાંશે. हित्य केव में लिया भी वा (नमे मे श १२ यार्हेश) खुश्रार्रेदेव्हरणी नगरार्भेवसावरावित्यानगावसा ने न्याक प्रश्चे न प्रमु मिंग 5 พन्तः जुगा हु नन्ता के देना वर्के রুন:শী:ক্রু:শা দ্রিশ:ক্রুব:বদ:শী र्यंदर:कदे:कंदु:यांवी સુર્ચ સેવે <u>वर</u>मी क्व गभेर ग्री गरळं दा পশান্ব- শূ:শান্ব শ ননান ব শান্ব শ নি दर्ज्ञेलानदे काद्वेदावहरानदे हा वर्भःवन्ःर्केन्रंग्रेःप्रगवाने ग्लेन्छन वन्नासावन्दी वा वहि नम् से ससाग्री थेंना वन्त्र्वेन्त्रने वे खुरू संवे वन्त ळदेग्गत्रगत्रगर्देत्रा'नायावेरा नर्भना गलकण्पमा वमर्केम्सु)

Box 4. IN-DEPTH: DETECTING SALIENCE

Why do neuroscientists think that the brain contains a "salience network" – a network of brain regions that activates in the presence of salient stimuli? Upon review of many, many neuroimaging investigations of brain function, neuroscientists began to notice that a core group of neural regions, namely the anterior cingulate cortex (ACC) and anterior insula, were active during diverse experiences and tasks, including pain, pleasurable touch, noticing that you have made a mistake during a cognitive task, being excluded from a social group, and listening to emotional music.

The scientists wondered: what did these diverse tasks and experiences have in common that caused this core network to become active? They realized that one shared quality among all of these experiences was that they stand out. They are important. They are noticeable events that make an impression on us. In other words, they are all salient. Perhaps, these neuroscientists reasoned, this core network signals the importance of such salient events.

Scientists also reasoned that it makes a lot of sense if organisms had evolved a network in the brain to signal important events. During evolutionary history, organisms that detected and quickly responded to important stimuli in the environment would be more likely to pass on their genes. Given that humans rely so heavily on social connections, it also makes sense that humans would have evolved salience detection systems that respond swiftly to socially salient stimuli such as rejection or friendly touch.

Interestingly, although the salience system was likely formed through evolutionary processes, it can also be modified by behavior, and meditation appears to be one of the best ways to do so. In one study, experimenters asked experienced meditators to perform focused awareness meditation in an fMRI scanner. As a part of regular practice, these meditators attend to the sensations related to their breath, and when they notice that their attention has strayed, they re-focus their attention back to their breath.

For this study, practitioners were asked to meditate in this way, with one modification. They were also given a button box, and asked to press a button when they noticed their attention had strayed from their breath. This allowed the experimenters to compare activity during focused attention (FOCUS) to that which occurred during mind wandering (MW), to that which occurred during the moment of awareness when the meditator noticed that their



http://www.psychology.emory.edu/ cognition/barsalou/papers/Hasenkamp_ et_al-NeuroImage_2012-meditation_time_ course.pdf

mind was wandering (AWARE). Because AWARE is the point in the meditative process where the person realizes that their attention has strayed and must be re-focused, it can be thought of as salience detection: "Something is wrong and I should attend to it." The experimenters found that this moment of awareness coincided with increased brain activity in the regions previously linked with salience detection, the anterior cingulate cortex and the anterior insula (pictured above).



So, does meditation increase a person's ability to monitor salience? Are long-term practitioners better at noticing when they should alter their attention? Importantly, other studies have shown that the cortex of advanced practitioners of this type of meditation is thicker in these same regions (left), suggesting that attention meditation does alter the salience network.



www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/

PMC1361002/

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૬ રે લેન નકળા ૬ રા દેવે સુવર્ય સેંચ સુવ બ્રથ પે તે તા કે સ્થય છે. તે સુવ સ્થય તા કે સે સાથે તા છે તે સે સાથ તા દેવે ગાય દેવે ગાય સુવ સાથ તે સે સાથ તા સુવ સાથ તે સે સાથ તા સુવ સાથ તે સે સાથ તા સુવ સાથ તે સાથ તે સાથ તે સ ᠊᠋᠋ᡞᠯ᠋᠉ᡐ᠋᠋ᠴᠴ᠖ᢆ᠋ᡎ᠋ᡃ᠋᠋ᡬ᠆ᡪ᠋᠊᠋ᡎᢁ᠋᠉ᡱᠴ᠉ᢅᡜ᠉ᢙᢆ᠋ᡎ᠋᠇᠋ᠯ᠋ᡲ᠇᠊ᠧ᠋ᢩ᠂ᠴᢌᢩᠳ᠋᠋ᢋᢆ᠉᠂ᡪ᠊ᢩᢒ᠊ᡎᢂ᠂ᢧᢆ᠆᠋ᡘᡭ᠋ᡎᢂ᠂᠋ᡘ᠋᠂ᢂᢂ᠋ᢂ᠂ᡘ᠋᠋ᡃᡢᡰᢙᢋ᠂ᢩᠸ ୄ୩୴ୖ୳ୖଽ୶୳୶ୖ୲ଵୣ୶୶୶ଵୖ୶ୖୢ୶୶୵ୖୄ୵୵୴ୖଵୖୢ୶୵୳ୖଵୗୄ୶୲୳୵୷୵୴୵୳୶ୖୖ୴ୣ୵୲ୢୖ୶୵ୄୠ୶୲୳୶୲୵ୠୄ୶୲୵ୄୠ୵୲୳ୄୢଽୠ୶୲୰ୢୄୄୗୄୠ୲୶୲ୡ୲୶୲ รุฒิทุพายราทุสพายนิาพุยพารรา(FOCUS) รุฒิทุพายายพาทุพิราชนิาพูคพ (MW) ริาหุราทุพิราชรุฬพา ૬. 'બેંદ્ર'ચર'દીઓ ૬. રે. ટે. ચો. આંગણાં દે. આ પણ પુરાય છે. પ્લાય છે. આ પ્લાય છે. પ્લાય છે. આ પણ પ્રાયય છે. પ્લાય છે.

<u>ભારશ્રેયાશ્વસ્થર્વે યા</u>ગી ખેંદી

<u> র</u>মমামর্ক্রমান বিদ্যান্য ॷॖॸॱय़ॖॖ॓ॸॱॻ॔ढ़॓ॱॿॻ॔ॺॱज़ॺॱऄ॒ग़ॺऒ॔ॺॱॹॺॵऀज़ॱॸॖॱॷॸॱऻॖॸऺॖॖॖॖॖॖॱढ़ॖऀॸॱॸड़ग़ॱॸॖय़ॖॸॱॻॖॖ॓ॱॻ॔य़॓ॱॿॺॺॱॷॖॸॺॵऀज़ॾॱय़ॖॖ॓ॸॱज़ॺॱॷॸॱ ૬નગર બ્લુભા ઋશાવાને રાગલેવ માલે સુદાવે રાગમાં છું દાય છે. સુંચાય સુવાય વાય સે સાથા છે. ગાઉ વાય લે સુંચાય સુવાં જ नङ्गार्थेन्। र्क्षेस्र क्षनमाय दे नगांवे क्रुवन् न्युगर्थ देवन् दुनाया नहेवायरे डे गांडे गायरे क्षेस्र क्षन अस्य येव गावना

ลูล ซิสรมมหลมาร์ ราริาม ขาพาลส์ มีราสูมารสมมรฐราษิเมรารราที่ริกมายุราษีรารฐราษีราษีรารีเอาพีรารริรา ริรามารา มิรานที่รารสมมเติกมา ૹ૾ૣૼૼૢૼૻૡ૽ૡ૾ૺૻૹૻ૾ૼૼૼૼૡૼૡ૾૾ૼૹ૾૾ૻૹ૾૾૱ૡ૽૿ૡ૽ૻૡ૱ૡ૽૿ૡૻ૽ૡ૽૿ૡ૽ૻૡ૽૿ૡ૱ૡૡ૱ૻૡ૾૽ૡ૾ૻ૱ૡ૾ૻૡ૱ૻૡ૾ૡ૱

<u> न्रे</u>न्-नलेव-मंदे: क्रु-अळंव प्वर्गेन्-मंनेन

ารๆารรชิรายิราวารายานข้ายีราวรรา มีมมายีราวมูญารนิรัญรายรสานนิย์ราวารมายรุมานี้ๆ

ਬੁੱੱਡਪਤ੍ਹਾਂਧਰੇ ਧੀ ਗੁੱੱਸ਼ ਦੇ ਇੱਕ ਸ਼ਿਆ ਸ਼ ਸਿੱਖ ਸਿੱਖ ਸਿੱਖ

The anterior insula contains spindle cells, a kind of neuron discussed ealier that has large, bipolar projections and that appears to be particularly suited for long distance communication. In fact, the anterior insula is often activated together with the ACC, and many neuroscientists think that these areas form the core of a salience system that orients attention and mobilizes resources in response to important or salient stimuli (see box 4). It may be that the two regions form a feedback system in which the anterior insula detects the state of the body and feeds this information to the ACC, which compares the expected and the observed body state and generates an error signal if they differ.

This is an example of a feedback system, as described in primer II. Recall that a feedback system is a system in which modifications can be made based on information that loops back to guide a future response.

Study **figure 14** and imagine how the insula and ACC might act as a feedback system that regulates arousal. Let's walk through the figure, step by step, using our snake example. In step 1, the insular cortex monitors



the state of the body and detects an accelerated heartrate upon feeling the snake strike your leg. The insula is thought to send this information to the cingulate cortex. In step 2, the cingulate compares the body's state with an expected bodily state. This is not a conscious process: you do not consciously think about the expected state of your body. Rather, the cingulate cortex is thought to have encoded information about what the body state should be. In this case, let us imagine that the cingulate cortex expects the heart rate to be even more accelerated by the given stressor (the snake). Because there is a difference between the expected and observed body states, the cingulate generates an error signal and triggers a response to correct this error, in this case by further accelerating your heartrate (step 3).

This model not only explains how the salience network allows us to respond to an important stimulus, but it also may explain some aspects of anxiety disorders. Many studies now report that individuals with anxiety disorders characterized by excessive and often-present anxious feelings - consistently show enhanced interoceptive signals in the anterior insula. In essence, it is as though their anterior insula is constantly telling the anterior cingulate to mobilize resources toward a salient stressor. **Figure 14:** Diagram of feedback loop in the salience network. (1) The insular cortex detects the state of the body (interoception), and feeds this information to the cingulate cortex. (2) The cingulate cortex is thought to compare the observed body state with an "expected" body state, and if they are not the same, (3) it generates an "error signal", and deploys resources to adjust behavior or cognition.

ગર્રે લે સુન રે સારી ગ્વા ગાય ગાય જે તે છે ને સારી તે છે. તે તે સારી તે સારી તે સારી તે સારી તે સારી તે સારી સ गह्यायारेया (१) होरापुरानीयास्ययास्या गुरुश ननः भेश केंनः हेन भा ने कराने शक पर्धेवः <u> ને ૡૹ૾</u>૾ઌૹ૽ૻઌૻૹૣૡૻૹૡૻૺૹ૽ૼઌૼ૱૱ૡ (१) पकेरावगा सूर भुवा ग्री भार रे भार शु सुर भा ૡૡ૾ૺૡૢ૱ૡૢઽૡ૽૾ૺૡ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ *ૡુ*ૹ੶ਖ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑ੶ਜ਼ੑੑੑੑ ૠ૽ૼૺૠૢૻૼૼૡૹ[੶]૽૾ૢૺૻૻૡૢ૾ૺૹૻૻ૱ૻૹૢૼઽૹૻૻૠ૿ૻઌ૿ૡૻૹ૽૾ૡૢૻૡૻ ५८१ (२) (भेभकुंटर्भायराह्नेनाकें)नेशाम्बसुया ๚ุสุพาวาาทุการที่พารัฐมพาริการกิราหารามค้า नवे क्रु क व्योगमा में र ये र र र र र र र

નવેં શ્ર માર્વ બર્ને ન સુભા સુ સ શુન ને છે ને છે ખેં ન મા સુ સુ ખેતુ

ૹઽૡ૽૽ૢ૾ૹૢૣૣૣૣૣૣૹૡ૽૽ૢૺ૾ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૻૹૼૢ૾ૢૢઌ૽ૻૡ૽ૡૢૡ૱૱ૡ૽ૡૡ૱૱ૡ૽ૡૡ૱૱ૡ૽ૡૡ૱૱ૡ૽ૡૡ૱૱ૡ૽ૡ ૽ૺ^ઌૻ૱ૻૻ૱ૻઽૣૡૻૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૻૹ૽ૣ૿ઽૡૢ૱ૼૹ૽૾ૢ૱ૡૻૡ૾૿૱ૡ૱ૻ૱૱ૡૻ૱ૻૻૡ૽ૻ૱ૻૡ૽ૻ૱ૻ૽ૡૻૻ૾ૻ૱ૻ૾ૡૻ૾૱ૻ૾ૡૻ૽૱ૻ૽૾ૻ ર્બેન્ટેર્જેન્સેના રેશ્વાયાયણેશ્વાયના વર્જીતાથના ગ્રાન્સ્બુર્સ્યોશ્વયુર્થ્ય વિવેષાત્રશ્વાયાયના વાર્યત્રેયાયાને નેન્દ્રાયાન્સે જેશ્વાય આપવા છે. ૡૢૹ੶ૹ૽ૢ૾ૺ૽ૻਗ਼ૢૢૢૢૢૢૹૹૻઌઌૻૻ૽૽ૢૺૻઌૢઽૡઽૡ૾૽ઌૢૻ૿ઌ૿૱ૡૼૡૼૹૻઌૻઌ૾૾૾ૻૹૻ૽ૼૢૻૻઌૡ૽૾ૺૡૺૻઌ૾ૡ૾૾૾૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૾૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૾૾ૡૡ૾ૻૡૡ૾ૻૡૻ૽ૡ૾ૡૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡૻ૽ૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡૻ૽ૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡૻ૽ૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡૻ૽ૡૻ૽ૡ૾ૻૡૻ૽ૡૻ૽ૡ૾ૻઌૻૡૻ૽ૡૻ૽ૡૻઌૻૡૻૻૡૻ ਸ਼[੶]ਜ਼੶ਜ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਜ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਜ਼੶ਖ਼ੵੑੑੑੑੑੑ੶ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ਜ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਜ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਜ਼ਖ਼ਫ਼ਫ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਜ਼੶ਜ਼ਖ਼ੑੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਖ਼ੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑ



अर्थि रदेन होन भाषतमा ने ने मा रकेन मा सान सुन हो। અનુવ ૻૻૻૡ૽ૼ૱ૡ૽ૻૡૻૻૡૻૻૡૻૻૡૻૻૡૻૻૡૻૻૡૻૻૡૻૻૡૻૻૡૻૻૡૻ नडरूर्भायदेखुरूर्भोदेश्मवरूर्भाननामहिरूर्भो यवर रहुंद અદ્ધુન્ શુન્ ગુરુ દેશને ગાંદેશના નગર છે. रेगर्भग्नर्ण्यर्डेहेर्न्यवर्नेल्य्येल्य्येत्र्युगानह শর্চির:শী:ঊর্না

*વર્ફેઽ૾૾ઽ૱*ૹૻઌ૾ૡ૽ૼૡૻ૽ૡૻઌૻૹૻ૾ૼૹૻઌ૾ઌ૽ૻઌ૽૿૱૱ૹ૽૾ૼ૱ૡ૽ૺઌ रेना क्वेर्न्स्युर्न्स्ड्वर्क्स्यायांविगाया य्येगायार्स्याया ભગા તે આ ભગા ગામ લેવા ગો તમા ગામ જોવા છુ. આ ગામ જો ગામ જ ૻ ૹૡ૽ૼૺ૱૽ૢૺૼૻૢઌૣૢૢૢૻઌૡ૽ૢૺૻઌ૽૾ૡ૽ૼૺ૾૾ૡ૽૿ૡ૽ૻૡ૽૿ૡ૽ૻઌૡ૽૿ૢૻૻૡ૽૿ૢ૽ૡૻૻ भव स्राप्त क्रू र केर प्र क्रू र भाष क्रू र र के र भाषे के र र र के र भाषे के र र र के र भाष के र र र र र र र र

र्षेन्यां वियाया केरा मरेना

ૻ૱ૼૢૢૡૻૹ૽ૡ૾ૺૹ૽ૣ૿ૺઽ੶ઌૢૡૻૹ૽૾ૢ૽ૻૡૼૺઽૻૼૢૻૡૡઽૻઽ૱ૢ૽ૺઌૹૻૹૻૡૢૻઙૡૻૢૼઽૡ૾ૻૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૺૢૻ૾ૻૹૡ૽૿ૡૻૡ૽૽ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૽ૡ૽૽ૡ૽ૻૡ૽૽ૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૼૡૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૺઽૡઽૹૻ નગામ શો શા કુ દ થવા મેદ મેં પ્રાયમ બધો તે વાર્ત દા ગામ પ્રત્યું લે દા બાદ સાથ પ્રાયમ સ્થિત્ય કે સાથ પ્રાયમ સાથ **Core affect:** Recall that one of the defining features of an emotion is its impact on motivation. That is, when we try to understand the emotional response to a stimulus, it is difficult to separate the emotion from the drive to move toward or away from that stimulus. For example, the urge to get away from the snake in our scenario is part of that emotional experience. One way that scientists discuss this motivational side of emotion is by talking about the **valence**, or **core affect**, of an emotion. Valence is the intrinsic aversiveness (negative) or attractiveness (positive) of the eliciting stimulus. It signals whether the stimulus is something that should be avoided or pursued, and it is difficult to imagine an emotion that is devoid of this push or pull motivation. Here, we will examine two systems that are responsible, in part, for the valence of an emotional experience.

The neurochemistry of emotion As you may remember from Neuroscience Primer II, one of the primary ways information is conveyed from one neuron to another is by neurotransmitters, chemical messengers released in the synapse by the presynaptic neuron. Neurotransmitters bind with the post-synaptic neuron and may initiate an action potential if the summation of signals is enough to overcome the threshold potential at the axon hillock. While more than 100 neurotransmitters have been discovered thus far, one group, the **monoamine neurotransmitters**, is extremely important for emotion and memory. Monoamines are molecules that contain one amino group, including the neurotransmitters norepinephrine,

dopamine, and serotonin. As illustrated in figure 16, the monoamines are derived almost directly from amino acids. Equally important are the monoamine transporters that regulate the amount of the neurotransmitter in the synapse.

Broadly, monoamines help regulate attention, sleep, mood, and emotion, but the specific mechanisms by which they function are complex, as we will see by looking in more depth at one monoamine, dopamine. Dopamine was discussed already in primer II, because it is one of the primary neurotransmitters that regulates movement by its action in the basal ganglia. Here we discuss its role in a different system, one that regulates motivation and reward.







Figure 15: Location of key nodes in the mesolimbic dopamine system, the ventral tegmental area (VTA) and nucleus accumbens.



ન્વે તેઓ ૧૧ સાવલવાર્ષે માન્યું છે. જે સાવલવાર્ષે માન્યું છે. જે સાવલવાર્ષે માન્યું છે. જે સાવલવાર્ષે સંગ્લા છે. જે સાવલવાર્ષે છે. સાવલવાર્ષે સંગ્લા છે. જે સાવલવાર્ષે છે. જે સાવલવાર્ષે છે. જે સાવલવાર છે. જે જે સાવલવાર છે. જે જે સાવલવાર છે. જે સાવલવાર જે જે જે સાવલવાર છે. જે સાવલવાર છે. જે જે સાવલવાર છે. જે સાવજે જે સાવલવાર છે. જે સાવલવાર જે જે સાવલવાર છે જે સાવલવાર છે. જે સાવલવાર છે. જે સાવલવાર છે. જે જે સાવજે જે સાવલવાર છે. જે સાવલવાર છે. જે સાવલવાર છે. જે સાવલવાર છે. જે સાવજે જે સાવલવાર છે. જે સાવલવાર છે. જે સ

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Motivation and reward have neuroendocrine bases

In the 1950's, a group of scientists experimenting on rats found that electrical stimulation to certain areas of the brain was highly rewarding for the rats. Of course, the scientists could not ask the animals if they found the stimulation pleasurable or rewarding, but they found that rats could be trained to do almost anything if the trained behavior was coupled with stimulation in a particular brain region. That brain region, the **ventral tegmental area (VTA)** was introduced in Primer II, but will be discussed more

extensively here. The VTA is a node in a neural system referred to as the mesolimbic dopamine system. Neurons in this region produce dopamine, and axons project to a region called the nucleus accumbens (see figure 17).

Substantia

nigra

Call to mind the things you do that you find rewarding. First, let us make sure we are thinking of the term 'reward' in the same way as scientists do, as an object or event that generates positive emotions, pleasurable feelings, and a motivation to approach, engage, or consume. Do you find it rewarding to eat? Drink? Laugh? See and think about loved ones? These behaviors are often referred to by scientists as natural rewards, and studies show that the same neural systems that are active when we experience a natural reward are also at work when a person consumes drugs of abuse such as alcohol and amphetamines (see **figure 18**).

Figure 17: Human dopamine projections. The nigrostriatal projection, which is important for movement and was introduced in Primer II, is shown in green. The mesolimbic dopamine projection, which is involved in reward-related functions, is shown in purple.

Dorsal striatum

Ventral striatum

How do motivation and reward relate to emotion?

While experimentation has helped scientists understand what affects dopamine at the neuronal level, they have disagreed about how these neural systems support our feelings, emotions, and behavior. Originally it was thought that activation of this system represented the rewarding or pleasurable aspect of any stimulus or behavior. However, when studies are done to separate the neural systems active just prior to the reward compared to those active during the experience of the reward, neural activity in the nucleus accumbens (pictured in the pink boxes below) seems to support the motivation or incentive to engage with a reward, rather than the experience of the reward itself.

Natural Rewards winning seeing cooperation own child money **Drugs of Abuse** cocaine alcohol amphet.

To appreciate this distinction, imagine the feeling you have when you haven't eaten in many hours and are presented with something delicious. Your mouth waters as you anticipate the rewarding food that you are about to eat. Once you take a bite of the food, you have a distinctly different, though still pleasurable feeling. Many scientists think that the mesolimbic dopamine system, and particularly the nucleus accumbens, is important for the distinct feeling that occurs before the reward, rather than the one that occurs during the reward. This view may account for how you feel (surprised, angry, disappointed) when there is a difference in reward between what happens and what you expected. Detection of a discrepancy between predicted and actual reward is called reward prediction error, and may depend on dopaminergic action in the NA. To appreciate this concept, see **box 5**.

Figure 18: Natural rewards and drugs of abuse are all thought to enhance the motivation to approach, engage, or consume, and all activate the mesolimbic dopamine system. On the leftmost image, the nucleus accumbens is outlined in red, and is active during the experience of natural and artificial rewards on the right (amphet = amphetamines).



ઽવે[:]રેશ १૧ ૨૬: ગુદ ફ્રેડ ગપ્ડ ન્ ટ્રેડ છે. જે ગુદ જે ગુદ જે ગુદ છે. જે ગુદ જે ગુદ છે. ารารา สิญาารารา สิรานารองเขียางเลาสาน ૹૻૣૼઽ[૽]૽૱ૢ૽ૺૼૢ૽ઌ૽ૼૼૢૼૼૻૻ૱ૻ૽૱ૹૻૹૻૹૻ૽૱ઌ૽ૻૼૼૻૻૡૢૻ૱ૡ૽ૻૢ૽ૼ૱ૻ สรานที่การยู้จามาร์ยาการสรายาริสาย ૹૢઽ ૡૡૺ ૹૡૢૡ૽ ઽૺૡઽ ૾ૡઽ ૽૱૱૱૽ૢૺૼૢૹ૽ૢ૽ૡ૾ૻૼૼૼૼ૱ૺ૱૱ पदीवे करागी के शंगायें का ज्वर ही गो जुगा शंग कुंक गारा ้ดิ่ๆ หริ้างมีขณะวิพ่ารม่างนี้พามชื่องน่าวิ ซิ นรามพา ર્સેગઢ'(૬૨ે'ર્સે&'ગ્રી'ગબર્ચ સુર'નુ'વર્ષેનુ'મ')બ'ર્સેનુ' યવે વૃત્ર કે સુવસ દુવા કુ સાન પવે જે બુંચ વરે ખેતર સે ન શુઃચેન્ પરેની વરે વે amphet એસ ચેન લે સુવર amphetamines अस्रामे तरसेत मुरम्स संसेन Ŵবা

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रमणे सुणु अर्वेमः १८९ व्हेर वर्वेयः यहव ग्रेगय छेन হার ক্লাহামা यते ज्ञायया ধনি স্পাহকা र्धेषः चेन गी स्यारेणया अखन्तेन अवार्जी देवा र्श्वेल द्वारा र्युषा स्वा

สูต ยูๆพารารัฐรายาๆจิพาพิมพาฮีราราหารัตาระไหรานีรารมา จรุญรายุรา [.]ૡ੶ૡૢਗ਼ੑੑૹ੶ૠૢૢ૽ૼૡ[੶]ૹૣૻૼૼૢૻ૽૽ૢૺ૾ઌ૽ૼૢૼૻઌૻૻૻૻૼૼૹૻૻૡૻૻૡૻૻૻ૱ૹૻૻઌ૽૿૱ૹ૽ઌ૾૾ૹૻ૽૽૾ૢૺૹ૾ૻૡ૽૾ૺૹૻ૽૾૽ૢૼ૾૽ૡૻ૽ૼૼૼ૱૿૽ૢૻૢૢૢૢૻૻૻૻૻઌૻૻ૱ૻૻૡ૱ૻૻ૱ૻૻ૱ૻૻ૱૱ૻૻ૱ ^ૹ૾ઌઌૢૻૡ૽૽૽૾ૢઽઌૣૡ૽૽ૼૹૻૡ૽ૻૹૻૡ૽ૺૹૻ૽ૼૼૼૻૻઌૻઽૻૡૻૻ૾૾ૹ૾ૹૹૻૹ૾૽ૼૼૼઽૼૻૢઌૼઌ૾૾ૹૻ૽૾ૣૼૼૻઽઌૼઌૻૡૻૹ૾ૢઌૻૡ૽ૢ૽ૼ૱ૡ૽૽ૼૡ ૡૢૣૢૣૢૢૣૻઽ૽૱ૢૺૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૢૡ૾ૻૡ૱ૡૢૻૡ૱ૡૢૻૡૡ૽ૼૼૻૢૡૻૹૡૢૡ૽ૻ૽ૢૢૺૡ૽૾ઌૢૺ૾૾૾૾ૡ૽૾૾૽ૼૡૻ૽ૢૼૼૻૹ૽૾ૢૺૻઌૹૹૡૢ૾ૡૻ ๚ฉพาลวิ หุมพา ผู้สารนิ สุพาราพอัสาร ราพมพาราวิรา วิ หุสุดรา ผู้ราราพ มีรารนิ ^{श्}रवेंग्रभाने म्हण्यात्र भाषा स्वत्य के स નકાન લેન બદ્વાન સુન માં તે છે બન ન શ છે તે ન બ હિવા માં સું શ ર કે તે સુધ સાથ છે છે. તે સાથ જે તે તે સાથ જે તે ૻ૽ૼૡ૽ૺૹૢૢૢૡૡૡૺ૱ૹૹ૽૽ૢ૽૱૱ૡૻૹૢ૱ૢ૽૱૱૱ૡ૱ૣ૾૾૾૱ૡ૱૱૱૱૱

શે જેન મને સેના (નમે સેશ 11)

રેંગુ (નગે રેચ ?? વાલ્ગા) ૾લેવા કેંદ્ર અપ્દરા કેવા ચરા દર્જે અ'ક્રેદ્રપા' લેઅપવે વસ્ટ્રદ્યું સ્અપ્દર્સ્ટ સાથવા વ્યવસાય છે. આ વ્યવસાય વસ્ટ พม พราสาชีราจารุโารารสู่โรรีรา (โร้ารุรุกาสมมาชสาริรา)ชั้งเร้ารุกาทิเชินสมพรมราสัรราจมา ริเรการระนานม

- नमें में शा १२ से दे सान मदे कर मी में म से क वर्त्रयात्रुयाश्चायया वयाव्या क्रिंटायायावर के विरा [:] त्रेवर्ग्यते : क्षुव : भुव : वगा : में के : वन्त्र : गा झ गा शा ने : के दिव : અનેંગા<u>ક</u>ેટ-સિંતેરવર-અર્જેવ-સ્ર્વેવ-ગુરુ-ભા हेर યન્દ્રપ્લેયનવે કેટ્રપ્ય સ્વદ્યકેટ્ર સુશ્રપ્લે કે भवे सबद दे में र र ग्री वा या र ग्री रे र म से द दर *॑*ॻऻड़ॖॻऻऺ^ॴॸ॓ॱऄऀ॔॓॓॑॑ज़ॱऄॸ॔ॱॷॖऀऀऀॱढ़ॸॱऒऄऀ॔॔क़ॱऄॖ॔क़ॱ গ্রুশ্বর্শ্বি

જેન્ની:/જીન-ગી-લેચ-ઈચી 25 4 4 4 4 ૡૅવાવી:/શ્વર્રવ.શુ.સ્વા) (લે:વનગ્રજ્ઞાસુ:સવા) ଏଥିୟ.ଖୁ.ଟୁସ.ଜିଜା

<u>ૹ</u>ૢૡ੶ઌૢਗ਼ૹ੶ઽઽ੶ਫ਼ૢ૽ઽ੶੫੶ਗ਼੶૾ૢૺૹ੶ૡ੶ઽઌઽ੶ૹૡ૽ૺ੶ਫ਼ઽ੶ૹૻ૱੶૽૽ૢૢૺ੶ਫ਼ੵਗ਼੶ਗ਼ਫ਼ੵ੶ઽૺ੶ૡઽ੶[੶]ૼૻ สุขาววิาฮมามิวาราฏขาพีรารมา พราสาริรายารรายุสายาฏราพีรารมาติขาวริรามิ *ઞ*ঢ়ુઞ[,]য়৽৾ঀ৾৾য়৾য়ঀৢ৾৾৾৾ૡૻૼૼૹૻૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૻૡૻૻૹૻૢૢૢૢૢૣ૾ૡૻૹ૽ૢૢૢૢૢૢ૽ૹ૱ૹૡ૽ૺૹૻૻ૽ૼૼૺૹ૽૾ૢઽૻૹૻૣઽૻૡૹૻ ፚ፝ቚ፧ዿ፝ቒॱዹቒ፝ቘ፞ૺ፧ቘ፝ૣૼኯጘ፞ኯፇ፝፝ቔ፞ቚ፧ኯዼ፟ቒጚጜ፝፧፝ቜ፝ጘጟቔቚቘቒጘኯቘ፞፞፞፞፞ቑዀቘٳዾቒ፞፟ጚፙጚኯጚ





Box 5. IN-DEPTH: REWARD PREDICTION ERROR



Imagine that you are a mouse living in a small burrow inside of a large monastery. Your survival depends on obtaining calories, and the primary way you do this is to forage for food and drink that has been dropped by the people with whom you share the monastery. One day you come across a droplet of clear liquid that looks like water, and some of this liquid sticks to your fur. You lick your fur to clean yourself, with no expectation or prediction of reward. However, the liquid is actually sugar water that tastes very sweet and is powerfully rewarding. In this case, there was no predicted reward, but there was an actual reward, meaning that there was a discrepancy between

the expectation and what actually transpired. It would be very beneficial to you, as a mouse, to have a neural mechanism that allowed you to learn from this event so that you could benefit in the future should you come across sugar water.

In fact, evolution has generated just such a neural mechanism, and this mechanism is known as the **dopamine reward prediction error.** In an event such as the one described above, dopamine is released in your nucleus accumbens. If we were to look at a single neuron firing in your nucleus accumbens, it would look



like the neuron that is being recorded in panel a. Pictured here is the electrical activity recorded from a single neuron in a monkey that is experiencing a similar scenario, and it is clear that activity in this neuron spikes just after you tasted the sugar water.

Now, let's look at this neuron the next time you see a droplet that looks like sugar water. If you have learned from the previous experience, we would expect that neurons in the nucleus accumbens would somehow signal to you that you should predict a reward if you drink the droplet. That is just what we see (**panel b**). Now, the dopamine neuron increases activity before you drink the sugar water. It is thought that this is how you predict a reward based on a cue (in this case, a visual cue when you see the droplet), and learn to pursue the reward.

Notice now, however, that the predicted reward matches the actual reward, so there is no longer a reward prediction error. If we were to continue to monitor this neuron as you, the mouse, continue to get the same reward as was predicted, we would actually see that the



Adapted from: http://www.sciencemag.org/content/275/5306/1593.short

firing rate of this dopamine neuron would begin to decrease. Amazingly, this mechanism likely explains a phenomenon which has long been observed among animals, including humans. That is, we are most likely to associate or experience reward related to a stimulus if the rewards are unpredictable.

ઢઃવ્સેફાવરે 'દ્દથા'વાદ' કર્યા વ્હઢય સ્ટ્રેથા' ગુરુષ પવે 'દ્દ' ઢૈયાશ| http://www.sciencemag.org/content/275/5306/1593.short







ୠୖୢ୕ଈୄ୰୰୳ୄ୲୴ୖୠ୵ୄଌ୴୶୳ୖ୳ୖ୳ୄଔ୲ୖୠ୵୳୳ୖୖୄଌ୶୵୳୴୲୷୳ୠୄଌ୶୲୴୲
When a reward of the same magnitude is received every time with complete predictability, it loses its reward value. Let us look at what this neuron looks like if you continually taste clear droplets only to find that they are water. At first, the neuron will fire heavily before the droplet is tasted, just as it did in panel b, but at some point, this activity will diminish (**panel c**). It is this reduction in activity that is thought to support your ability to "extinguish" a previously



learned association with a reward, in this case, the sugar water.

Negative stimuli trigger avoidance

Although many emotions involve a rewarding component, it is unlikely that you would experience a feeling of reward when encountering the snake by the road. Rather than a motivation to approach, you likely experience the opposite core affect: a motivation to withdraw. The amygdala has a large part to play in this response. Recall that this region, important for marking the salience of a situation, receives sensory input and may initiate a stress response through its connections with the hypothalamus. Beyond this, the

amygdala also can modulate the stimuli that launch a fear response.

To understand how this works, first study the process of **fear conditioning** described in **figure 19**. Fear conditioning is a form of learning by which an organism learns to predict an unpleasant or aversive event. It involves the pairing of an aversive stimulus with other contextual stimuli that would not normally be aversive, but become so by virtue of being coupled with the aversive or dangerous stimulus. For example, the rattling sound made by a poisonous rattlesnake is not aversive or dangerous, but you can imagine how adaptive it would be for a mouse to use the sound as a predictive stimulus linked with danger!

One phenomenon that is used to study fear conditioning is the startle response, which is a **reflex**: an involuntary and almost immediate response to a stimulus. This response occurs very quickly and without your awareness. The startle response likely evolved for the adaptive value it provided as a fast, direct unconscious mechanism to alert you to an unexpected stimulus, and it is the likely response you would have as the snake struck at your leg. Now, imagine that a startling stimulus, such as a sharp pain, is paired with a cue that would not normally induce fear, such as a sound (the conditioned stimulus (CS) in **figure 19**). Basic fear conditioning occurs when the fear response is generalized to and can be triggered by the sound (CS).



Figure 19: Basic fear conditioning. (a) Fear conditioning occurs when a human or animal learns to fear a neutral conditioned stimulus (CS) such as an auditory cue because it is paired with an aversive unconditioned stimulus (US) such as an electrical shock. (b) At a later time, the person has a fear response to the sound, even in the absence of an aversive stimulus. Adapted from: http://www.nature.com/neuro/ journal/v16/n2/pdf/nn.3296.pdf

دَعُمَا بَيْمَ اللهُ क्तेत्र सेन पदी अप्रेन अप्र भी तर त का ले जा न मे र वैगार्ग्वेगागी श्वेरावहूराक्षातु भवानेहरा थे। ५में अप्यदे भ्राप्य क्रे व प्य वेग प्र र अक्ष्य र ૹૻ૽ૼ૽ૼૡૢ૾ૺૠૼૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૻઌ नम्म् न् न् प्यान् प्रान् के ने राजे म् यहे न राजे जीत के जीत क য়ঀয়৾৻ড়ৢ৾৽য়৽ঀ৾৾ঀ৾য়৸ঀয়৽য়ঀয়৽য়৾৾৽য়৾য়ৼ দ্রুরুমান্দ্রুমান্দ্র্যমান্দ্রীমান্দ্র্যমান্দ্রীমান্দ্র http://www. nature.com/neuro/journal/ v16/n2/pdf/nn.3296.pdf

ન્વે તેઓ ૧૯ ગલે તેમ છે વ્દેવમાં તેનું તેને ન

पर्ने वे र्धेग प्रगुप्प मु क्य प्र लेग के ૢૢૢૢૢૡ[ૣ]ૹૢ૽ૺ૱૽ૢ૾ૺૼૼૣૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡ૽ઌ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૺૡ૾૾ૺૻ૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽ૡૡ૽ૡૡ૽૾ૡ૽૿ૡૡૡ૽૾ૡ૽૿ૡૡૡ૽૿ૡ૽૿ૡૡૡ૽૿ૡ૽૿ૡૡૡૡ૽૿૾૽ _{त्र}स्य भः विगाण्धेता णायतः श्रेः र्हुण्यायदे ते दें पन् गामा वगायः भेशः रहे मासेन पम प्रस्य पद्धयात् पुन् युद्धमायः विगाण्धेता पर्देगा ૹ૾ૢૺ૱૽ૢૢૻCS)ૹ૾ૢૢ૱ૢૢૻૡઽ૾૽ૡ૽૾૾ૻૹૣ૾ઽૻૹૣૻૼઽૻૹૡ૱ૢૻ૱ૻ૱ૹ૾ૺ૱ૻઌ૽૾ૺ૱ૹૻૺૼૼૼૼૼૼૼ૱ૡૻૹ૾૾૱ૡ૾ૻ૱૱ૡ૾૾ૡ૱૱ૡ૾૾ૡૼ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ <u>ૺ</u>ૡૢઽૻ૱ૹૻૻઌૹૻૻૡૻૻઌ૽ૻૹૢ૽ૡૻ૽ૡૢ૾ૺ૱ૢૻઌૻૺૼૢૻઌૻૻ૱ૻૹ૽૾ૹ૽ૻૹ૾૽ૹૻૡ૽૾ૼૡૹૻૹૣૡૻૡૹૢૡૻઌ૱ૹૢ૿ૡૻઌૻૻ૱ૻૺૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡૹૻ૱ૡ૽ૢૼૻઌ૽ૻ૽ૼૺૹૻૣૹૢ૿ૡૻ

वरेवि' प्यश्च रहुं प्य हे ' भूर प्येव प्येश परा र्वे ग यर द्ये रेश १९ वर प्योय प्यत्न द्या या प्ये प्यहे ग यहे श कुट्ट रेश ઼<code>ᡎᢩ᠘ૼૼૼᢋ᠊᠊᠊ᢧᠸ᠄ᡷ᠄ᡷ᠄ᡭᡆ᠋ᡎ᠂ᢆᢍ᠄᠊ᡫᢂ᠄᠊ᡚᢂᡃᠴ᠈ᡷᡃᡆ᠋ᢉᡆᢩᡚ᠊ᡘ᠄ᡈᠴᢂ᠈ᠮᡬᡭ᠄ᢅᡱᢩᡝᢃᡧ᠈ᠮ᠋ᡬᡆ᠋᠉ᢩᡸ᠋᠋ᡩ᠋ᡗ᠅ᡘᡱᡆ᠉ᠴᡬᡘ᠈ᡷᢩᢅᡆ᠄ᡆ᠋ᡷᡭ᠈ᡷᡁᢩᢁᡃ᠊ᢢᡆ᠄</code> ૾ૡૺૣ<u>ઌૢૻૡૹ</u>ૢૣૣૣૣૣૣૣૣૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૻઌ૽ૻૡ૽ૢૺૡૻૹૢ૽ૺ૱ૹૢૹૡ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૻૻૢ૽૽૾ૢ૽ૢ૽ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૻૹ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૡ૽ૺ૱૿ઌ૽૾ૡૢ

^{ૡૡ}ઽ૾ૡૹઙ૽ૻૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૻૹૢૢૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૻૹૢ૾ૢૼૼૼૼૼૻૹ૾ૣ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૻ૽ૼૻ૽ૢૼૼ



ਗ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਜ਼ੑੑਗ਼੶ਫ਼੶ਖ਼ਖ਼੶ਗ਼ਫ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਗ਼ਸ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਖ਼ એઅઅ'ર્ફોન્ડ'ગે''રેગઅ'અન'ર્સે'લેગ'બ'ફ્રેન'મ'ર્કેન'મ'નન્દ્ર' બેચેબરાગ બ્લૉ'બઅ'શેુ'સ્ટ્રેન' ૹૢઌૻ[ૢ]ઌૻ૽૽ૼૺૻઽૢ૽ૣૻૡૢૻૡૻૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૺૡ૾ૺૡ૽ૢૺૡૡ૽ૺૹૻૻ૱ૻ૽ૼૼૻૢૻઌ૽ૼ૾ૺૹૢૢ૿ઌૻૡ૽ૢૡૻૻૡૡૢૻૢ૽ૻૼૻ૽ૼૻ૽ૼ૾૽ૼૻ૽ૼૻ૽ૼૻ૽ૡ૽ૻ૱ૡૢૻ૽ૼ૽ૼૡ૽ૺ ૡૻૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૻૹૺૡૢૻ૱ૻઌ૽૾ૼૺ૽૾ૼ૱ૼૹૢૻ૱ૢ૽ૺૺ૾ઌૢઌૻ૽૽ૼૻૡૹૻઌૻઌૻઌૻઌૼ૱૱૽ૢ૾૽ૼ૱ૹૢ૾ઌૡ૾ઌૻૹઌ૽ૺૼૼૼૼૡૡૻ ૹ૾૾ૻૻૹૢૻૹૻૻૹૻૻૹૻૢૺૼૢૼૻૹ૽૾ૺૼૼૼૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૹૻૹૻઌ૽ૡૺૼ૾ૹૢૻૣૻૻૼૹ૽ૼૡૻ૽ૢૺૼૻ૾ૢૻ૱૽ૼૹ૾૾ૡૻ૽ૼ૱ૡૻૹૻૹ૽૿ઌૻ भ्रम् दिशक भुषाके द में जे द में जे में में की में की स्टीम की साम के साम के साम के साम के साम के साम के साम क [૱]ૻૢૡૡૡૡ૾૽ૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡ ૨૬૨ છેઽ ૹઽ સુવાવેવા અઽઽઽ સ્રૂવા વચાર્થે ૬ માર્વે સ્રૂવા બચારે ગા કુદ્દ વચારો અચારવા

าวิรัฐญายๆรายีรายิมามยา" เอรา" ยูาาาริเอาญญายิเอาที่ในการอาเกริสมาการริสาอราการสายการสายการสมมายิมา)างมาล์สาพัร



त्रसः विगार्गे मिरास्र कुर अपने के राम विगार अ में गारे रे. नवित्र यहाय न गहत् तरा से द र र दे क्वें तरा के तरा मा हुन. ^{য়}'ঀৢৢৄ<u></u>ूूूूूूूू ८ भारते दे भारते के भार के भारते के भार क শান্ম'দ্ট' ५८४ गठर मे वेगश्र में गरे कुर ध्व में छ रत्य गर वेग શુ ન્વર જ્યાવા સુવા શ્ર ને દિ વ્યક્ત લેવા મુ બશુ ર સે સ જ્વ ન ર ર ळॅंशर्हेनाविनाउेगान्न नेप्पत्राईनाप्तर्ग्तरावेग्वेनाशर्हेना વર્ને રક્ષચ સુચાર્શે દાર્વે દાનુ દાન કાર્ય વારા શાળા છે. ૡ૬ૣਗ਼੶ૡૢૢૢૣૣૣૣૣૣૣૢૢૢૡૡૺૡૻૡૢઌૣૡૹઽ૱ઌૡ૽ૼ૱ૡૹૢૣૣૣૢૣૢૢૢૢૣૣૡૡ ૽ૺૼૼૼૺઙ૽ૣૣૢૣૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼ૱ૡૢૻ૱ૻઌ૽ૼ૱ૡૻઌૻૹૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૻ૾ૼૻ૽ૼૡૻ૽ૼ૱ૻૹૻ૽ૼ૱ૡૻ૽ૼ૱ૡૻ૽ૼ૱ૡૻ૽ૼ૱ૡૻ૽ૼૡૻ૾ૼૼૡ Again, imagine how this might be adaptive. If you consistently feel pain when a particular sound is present, it is likely to be adaptive to feel afraid any time the sound is present. It is a way to predict and possibly avoid a dangerous stimulus. The process of fear conditioning has been studied very closely and it is very clear that the translation of a fear response to the CS is dependent on changes in the amygdala, and its downstream effects on the autonomic nervous system via the hypothalamus.

Finally, in addition to the process of fear conditioning, the strength of the startle reflex can be modulated by many cognitive states, including attention and fear. That is, the startle reflex can be heightened by a fearful state or threatening context. Again, the amygdala plays a role by **potentiating** – strengthening or making more likely - a fear response to a given stimulus. To appreciate this, imagine again that a few months after being bitten by the snake, you have recovered and are again walking along the dirt road. You start remembering being bitten by the snake and your heart races as you feel a strong sense of fear. Suddenly, you hear a quick movement on the side of the road next to you, and you quickly jump away before you can even think about what the sound might be. The observation that context and meaning can prime or suppress emotional responses leads us to the final component of emotion, appraisal.

Appraisal: How does an emotion that gives meaning to a situation arise? The two-

factor theory of emotion emphasizes the role of cognitive appraisal for the experience of emotion. The evidence supports this view. Appraisal processes evaluate events or stimuli with reference to oneself. The assessment of salience discussed earlier in terms of arousal may be classified as a primary appraisal, but appraisal can take more complex forms. Other neural systems can participate in secondary appraisal processes, such as contextual evaluations of fairness and responsibility.

Imagine, for example, that you are walking through a crowded bus and seemingly out of nowhere a foot trips you. As you fall down, you feel a burst of anger and look to find the rude person who made you fall. As you look back at the owner of the foot, you see that it belongs to a mother, burdened with grocery packages in one arm and balancing a wriggling baby in the other. You realize that it was accidental so she does not realize that she tripped you, and feel your anger dissipate.

In this scenario, you had two instances of appraisal that affected your emotions. First, the assumption that someone purposely tripped you helped launch your angry emotion. Second, your realization that it was an accident dampened your emotional response.

Appraisal therefore is very important. Let's see how it works. Several regions in the **prefrontal cortex (PFC)** are strongly connected with the amygdala (see figure 20), and together these regions play a role in the appraisal that influences emotions. One of the ways that scientists have come to understand the process of appraisal is by studying people while they perform a related process called **reappraisal**.







श्रेर: तुः क्रेंत 'अन्दर्भ' ओन्दर में वि' तृहः गारु भाषा 'य' ने' ते' 'अनुतु 'यनुन' अष्ठुद'व्य्येत्या होद'त्यस'मठस'यांदे'त्य'चढ्यार्थ्वे द्वद'यासे स'स' हियाक्त क्र कर अन में र हे न तु यो न मामने र हे र इक हा में श



૽ેને જા સ'ત રા રા રા પ્રે સ' સ' પ્ર સ' પ્ અત્ત્વ વન્ન અત્ત્વ શે ગ્રાન બુવ (PFC) હિંવ શે આ લુવા અન્ મેં લેવા વઅ જેવા ગ્રાન લેં નન્ન র্বিসঞ্জ বিশান্ত্রা નવે ટુંન ર્સ્વેન્સુન સંભાષ્ટ્ર આ દિભાવને નવા અદ્ય રુવા છે આ ટુંન સુઆવર્તે કાર્યું ખેતી નવે રેંત્ર છે ટુંન તે આ ૡઽ૾ૡ૾ૺૹૣ૾ૼૼૼૼૼૼૻૻૼૻૼૻૻૼૡૻૻૡૻૻૹૻ૽ૼૼૼૼૻૼૼૼૡ૾ઌૺૼૼૼૼૼૺૹૻૡૻૢૼૡૻૹૢ૾ૡૻઌ૽૿૱૽ૻૡ૽૾ૼૡૻૡ૽ૼૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૼૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૼૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૼૡ૽ૼૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૼૡ૽ૼૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૼૡ૽ૼૡ૽ૼૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૼૡ૽ૼૡ

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أة أو مجمام من المحمد المحمد الم

નયે અર્દેવ શે છે દેન રાષ્ટ્રે છે માય જ રાષ્ટ્ર જ જ રાષ્ટ્ર જ રાપ્ય જ રાષ્ટ્ર જ જ રાપ્ય જ રાષ્ટ્ર જ જ જ જ રાષ્ટ્ર જ ૾ૡૢ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼઙૢ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૢૻૡ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૡૻૹૺ૱ૡૻૼૼૼૼૼૹૻૻ૱ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡૼૡ૽ૻૡૼૡ૽ૻઌ૾ૼૡૻઌ૾ૻૡૻ૽ૡ૾ૺૡૻૡ૽ૼૡૻૡ૽ૼૡૡ૽ૼૡૡ૽ૻૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡ मराया मन्द्रयाने खाद्यां के वा मान्द्र के का मान्द् का मान्द्र के क का मान्द्र के का मान का मान्द्र के का मान्द्र क का मान्द्र के का मान्द्र का मान्द्र के का मान्द्र का मान्द्र के का मान्द्र का मान्द्र के का मान् का मान्द्र के का मान्द्र के का मान्द्र के का का मान्द्र का मान्द्र का मान्द्र का का मान्द्र के का मान्द्र के का मान्द्र का का मान्द्र का मान्द्र का मान्द्र का मान्द्र का का मान्द्र का मान्द ૹ૾ૣૼૼૼૢૡૢૢૢૢ૽ૼૼૼૼૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૡ૽ૺૡૢૻૡૻ૽ૢૻૡ૽ૢ૾ૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡૡૡ૽ૼૡૼૻૻૡૡ૽ૻૡૡૡૼૡૼ

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*ই*নিশ:শ্ব:ন্দ্রর:ম:২২১

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Reappraisal is a technique for explicit emotion regulation whereby the meaning, or appraisal, of an emotional stimulus is altered by conscious deliberate and effort. Returning to our example in which you were tripped on the bus, imagine this time that when you turned to see whose foot had tripped you, you see that a young man purposely made you fall, and is laughing with another man about your misfortune. While you feel your initial burst of anger, you have recently devoted yourself to the idea that those who would hurt others need the most compassion, and you quickly recognize this as an opportunity to practice such an idea. You deliberately imagine that this man had a difficult childhood and has not known compassion, and you feel your anger dissolve.

What you have just done is reappraisal, and like appraisal in general, it involves connections from the frontal lobe to emotional centers in the brain such as the amygdala. Connections like these often are discovered by studying the brains of animals, as illustrated by the study shown in **figure 20**. Notice that this figure shows that the amygdala has stronger connections to and from the

areas in red (indicated by the black arrows), in particular the orbitofrontal cortex. Think for a minute about what it would mean if the amygdala had stronger connections to and from certain regions of the frontal lobe. Keep that in mind as you read the next section on how the orbitofrontal cortex regulates the amygdala.

Connecting emotion to behavior

As you read at the beginning of this primer, emotions are considered in the context of evolution to be adaptive responses that help guide behavior in

Figure 20: Connectivity between the frontal cortex and amygdala in a rhesus monkey brain. Red: connections from medial (A), lateral (B), and orbitofrontal (C) surfaces of the frontal lobe to the amygdala (AMY). Blue: connections from amygdala to medial (D), lateral (E), and orbitofrontal (F) surfaces of the frontal lobe. Adapted from http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/ PMC2045074/pdf/nihms-16945.pdf



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कुन् ग्रे विन किं लेगा म रेन

<u> </u>ને[.]ભ[.]નક્ષુ, ⁷. ગાઉં ન ' છે અ' મ' તે ' અર્દે ત' ગા અભ' ને ન ૡૻૼૼ૱ૻૹ૾૽૱૱ૹૢૻૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૼૼૼૼૼઽૼૡૻૡ૾ૢઽ૱ૡૡ૽ૻૡ૽૾ૺ૱૱૱ શું દર્દા દર્દા સુભાવવે સુભા તે તે તે ગામી તર દેવ वया भरवर्त्र केंद्र जुम्मर भेग मंबेवर् केंद्र <u>ઽ</u>ૢૡૹૻૹૻ૱ૡ૽ૼૢૡ૽ૻૡ૽૿ૡ૽ૻૡ૽૾ૡૡૻૹૻૡૡૼ૱ૹ૽ૢૡ म्रान्दवियार्वेगायवे न्दे सकेंत्र ने राष्ट्री रार्वेग ³वग गुन्ग देव गुर वेर श देर हिंद ग्रे श मूर ^ઽ઼ઽૠૢૼઽૻૠૡ૱ૹ૽૽ૢૺૠ૽૾ઽ૱ઽૺૼૻૹૢ૾૽ૡ૽૾ૺૼૼૼૼૼૠૡ૱ ત્ર≺ત્ર₹યશ્વ∙ત્વરંદ્વેં ન્રંગ્રેશવને ભૂન્યથેં ન્રંત્વન્ ૡૹ૨.ૹૣઽ.ઌૹ૽ૢૺૢૼૻઌ૨.૱ૹૢ૽ૺ ૹ૽૾ૢ૾ૹ૾ઌૡૻૼૼ૾ૻૼૼૼૼૼૼઌૹ૨ वैगागीशकेन नुर्हेन के लाग ने का कि હિંંન શે સુર કે શરે રાકે વ્યાનવેં ન સેના ગયેલ જેના મંસેના ર્વેગાયલે અન્ય હિંદા છે જુદાય વિંદા દિવે aે હુે વનર ભા દેવ ગુર સુવર્શ રે બેટ દેવા વશ ₹ુ^ત અત્ર સ્વય્ય ભૂગ પર સ્રે ર દેવે સુવા ખેતુ પર नुःव्योगान्मे शामवे नग्रमान्यवायमा वर्षेत्रः ૱ૡઽ૾ૺૹૢ૾ઽૡ૽ૢ૾ૹૡૡ૽ૺઽૢૹૡૹઽૡ শৰিৰ'হা <u> નુનઃ શે</u>શ્ર સવત લેન નાલત શે રાશ્ય જોત્ર ન <u>૱</u>ૹૡ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱

ways that increase survival and reproductive success. So far, we have explored the neural systems involved in having emotions. How is emotion connected to behavior? Extensive research has found that particular areas of the prefrontal cortex play the role of linking emotions with behavior. The area most often implicated in this is the orbitofrontal cortex (OFC), which is so named because it resides just above the eye orbits.

The OFC integrates thoughts and emotions into goal-directed behavior. Studies of both humans and non-human animals find that when this region is damaged, the ability to use input about past outcomes to guide behaviors is impaired (see **box 6**). Neuroimaging studies in humans report that this region is active when an individual uses available information about consequences - for example, being cheated by an unreliable person during a social interaction - to guide future behavior. The OFC provides input to the central nucleus of the amygdala, which you will recall, has effects on autonomic centers in the hypothalamus, brain stem, and spinal cord, possibly allowing the orbitofrontal cortex to dampen autonomic activation.

Box 6. CASE STUDY: PHINEAS GAGE



More than any other case study, or study of a single individual, the story of Phineas Gage stimulated research on the localization of brain function, particularly function pertaining to emotion. Gage was a railroad foreman, who, by most accounts, was healthy and reliable. In 1848, when Gage was 25, he was using a large tamping iron (which he is holding in the photograph on the left) to compact explosive material that would be used to clear rocks to make way for a railroad. As he was pushing the charge with the rod, an accidental spark ignited the powder and sent the tamping iron straight through his left cheeck and skull and rendered him unconscious. After a few minutes, he regained consciousness and was taken to his home, where a doctor removed bone fragments and closed the wound. Amazingly, the wounds healed after one bout with infection; however, a large portion of his left **orbitofrontal**

cortex (OFC) and lateral prefrontal cortex (PFC) were irreparably damaged. The image below shows a computer reconstruction of the damage he suffered, based on the skeletal evidence.



Gage survived until 1860, but by many accounts his personality changed drastically as a result of the injury. The doctor who cared for him summarized his subsequent behavior:

"He is fitful, irreverent, indulging at times in the grossest profanity (which was not previously his custom), manifesting but little deference for his

fellows, impatient of restraint or advice when it conflicts with his desires, at times pertinaciously obstinent, yet capricious and vacillating, devising many plans of future operation, which are no sooner arranged than they are abandoned in turn for others appearing more feasible."

It is difficult to know precisely how Gage's personality changed because few detailed accounts of his pre-accident personality are available. However, many people reported that he suffered from extreme impulsiveness that included inappropriate social behavior, and this personalty change would be consistent with what is known about the OFC.

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શુ નેંચ્રિયા વાબીયા વા ચેડ્) રુદ્દ ને રેવાયા રાજે રાગ છે વર્દેવા સૂત્રયા વસૂત્ર ચે શેડ્ડ ના रम्गी पर्देन् मान्म्से समुद्र भाषे मान् न्यू मान् न्यू मान् न्यू मान् मान्य का स्थाप के मान्य के मान्य के मान्य

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भुः वनमा झेहावें र देवमा न दर दी में १९६० नर पकें न मित्र हमा केंद्र यहा ૡૻ૽ૼૼૺૡૡઌઌઽૻૹ૾ૢૢૢૢਗ਼ૻૹૢઽૹૹઽૻૡ૽ૼૻૡ૾૽ઌૡૹૡૹ૱ૹૹૻૹૼ૱ૢ૽ૡ૽૾૱૽૽ૢ૾૱ૡ૽ૻ૱ૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૼઽૻૡ૽૽ૺ સે ગાંબે આ બા વર્શુ માન છે અને અને સે ગાંગે સે ગ 1.5 ૱ૡ૱ૻ૽૱ૺૹૺ૱ૻ૱૱ૻૹૢૼૼ૱૽ૼ૱૽૽૽ૺૻ૽ૼૼૼઽ[੶]૽૽ૼૻ૽ૼઌ૾૾૱૾ૻૡ૽૾૱ૻૡ૽૾૱ૻ૽ૡ૽૽૱ૻ૽ૡ૽૽ૼ૱ૻ૽ૡ૽૽ૼૡ૽ૼ૱

खुग्राश्च रेटाने सर तसुवा

૱ૺ[੶]ઽૡ૽ૺૹ૱ૹ੶ૹ૾ૢૼૼૼૡૻૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૻૻૼૼૼૼૼૡૻૻઌૼૻૻઌૻ૾ૼૻ૾ૡૻ૽૾૾ૺઌ૾૾ૡ૽ૻઌ૾ૺૡૻ૽ઌ૾ૻૡૻ૽ઌૻૡ૽ૺૹ૱ૹૹૻૢૼૼૼૼૹૻૣૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૻ૱ૹૻ૾ૣૼ૱ૻૹ૾૽ૢૼૡૻ૱૽૿ઌ૾ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૾ૻ૱૱૽ૻઌ૽૾ૹૻૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡ૱૱ দ্রুঝ্যন্ম বিশ্বাস্টবা

 สรารุนิาร์มิตุฬาจฑุราจารุราชุมิฑาจ์หารูฏิเด็จาจมุ พราสาฏิาร์าศิราฐราดิตารุราชุมิฑาจ์หาริเด็จาฏาจาฑาจราดิตารุราจซุราพรา ู ฏิๆาพู่กุณาๆาวราสิๆาสุมาฏมาฏกาศักาญมาๆมมมาวราชการกาพิราชิมาวราสิวมาสิๆาพิสุๆ มิาณี *1*. 1. 2. นี้าพิโ โล้กาหิรารกาศัก 34 ᠊᠋᠊᠊᠋᠊᠋᠊᠋᠊᠋᠋᠊᠋᠋᠊᠋᠋᠋ᡏ᠋ᢄᡔᠴᢙ᠋ᢋ᠉ᡭ᠊᠉ᡜᠴᢂ᠂ᡶᡘ᠊᠋᠊ᢧᢆᡀ᠆ᠴ᠆᠋᠋ᡗ᠋ᢆ᠕᠉᠗᠄ᡔ᠋᠋ᠴ᠋᠋ᢁ᠋ᡏ᠋ᡬ᠋ᠴ᠋ᠴ᠋᠁ᡓᢂ᠂ᡓ᠁ᡬᠴᠴ᠋ᡬᡀᡬ᠕᠋᠕᠘᠉᠋᠕᠘᠘᠘

ਬੁੱਕਾਤਾਤਗਾਧ ਕਰਾਰਧੇਨਾਰੇਧਾਰਤਿੰਗ ਸ਼ੁਾਰਧਕਾਖ਼ ਕੇ ਕੇ ਕੇ ਦੇਵਾ

વન ગાંવે વેંન નું રહ્યાય ખેંન નયા તેનુ

ৰ্হ্ম্বন্থ্ৰন্থন্দ্ৰ ૡૻૻૡૻૡૻૺૼૼૼૹૢ૾ૢૻૣૻૣૣૻૻૹ૽૾ૢ૾ૢૻૢૻૢૻૼૢૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽૿ૡૻઌ૾ૻૡૡ૽ૻૡૻ૽ઌૡૻૺૡૻ૽૱ૢૺૼૻૡૻ૽ૡ૽૾ૺૡૻૻ૾૽૾ૺૡૻૻ૽ૻૡ૽૿ૡૻૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૻૡૡ





Emotion and memory are linked

Have you ever had an actual encounter with a poisonous snake? If not, have you had a similar encounter in which you were in real danger? Think back to the situation.

- What do you remember about it?
- Does something trigger the memory for you?
- A particular sound? A particular place? A particular smell?

Emotionally evocative memories tend to stick with you. Perhaps you have wondered why that is so. In the first part of the primer we discussed emotions, and if you answered "yes" to the questions above, you can appreciate how emotion and memory interact.

Learning is the process of acquiring knowledge or skill. It also can be defined as a change in behavior as the result of experience. Memory is the ability to retain and recall learned experiences. This requires a physical change in the brain to record the information for future use. In what follows, we will examine the neural processes that are important for memory and those that support the relationship between emotion and memory. As we do this, keep in mind how these processes might give an organism a selective advantage for survival or reproduction, and thus, may have evolved.

Memory systems

Before learning about the neurobiology of memory, it is important to discuss the different types of memory. A major difference exists between **working memory** and **long-term memory** (see **figure 21**). **Working (short-term) memory** is a conscious, brief retention of information while it is being processed or used for the task at hand. When someone tells you a phone number to dial, you may say the number to yourself as you run to the phone, keeping the number in your working memory long enough to dial it accurately. **Long-term memory**, on the other hand, does not require a conscious retention and can last from days to decades.

There are several forms of long-term memory. The two major kinds are explicit and implicit. Each kind includes different types and it appears that distinct neural systems support each type. Explicit memory is the conscious recall of experiences (episodic memory) or facts about people, places, and objects (semantic memory). Examples include what you had for lunch yesterday or knowing your mother's name, respectively. Implicit memory does not require conscious recall, but is unconscious retention of perceptual and motor skills acquired by performing the task. Examples include tying your shoes or riding a bicycle. Explicit and implicit memory involve different pathways and brain regions (lower boxes in **Figure 21**).

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નવે ન્વો અઢવ દે ભૂન ક્વે વસ સુચ 5 દેવાં નવેં શા

สุมณ์ ริรุ

ને ભાષો અચાર્શેન્ ર્સેન્ડ નવે ક્વ માં સમયા સુવ ગસ્ત માં ખેવા ગાઉ વા રાચ્યા વાંદેન છે ચા છુન્ડ ને ને ભૂન ખેવ માં ઉ ચા ચુન ગસ્ત્ર ચુન ૬ દેવા બેના કેવ વર્ષો વે સેવ ગે વે બેને સેવ ગે બેને સુન ન ન ગે અચાર્શેન્ સેન્ડ ચે ચા સુન રાચ ચા વા વા છે. દિન છે અવે વ ચા સુન ને મુસ્તુ વું શેવ અવે અવન ગણના બેન રહે આ સે અચાર્શેન્ડ ન ક્વ ચા વાદ્ર અને સાથ છે. સે આ સુન સુન સુન સુન સેવ ગોના સ

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હિંદ્ર'ગ્રીશ્વ સે જેવે વરાદ્રમેં શાવશાવા છે. તે શુક્રા છે તે તે શુક્ર છે તે શુક્ર સે છે તે તે સુરાય પ્રાપ્ત છે છે તે છે છે તે છે છે છે છે છે છે તે છે છે તે છે તે છે છે તે છે છે તે છે છે તે છે છે તે છે તે છે તે છે તે તે છે તે તે તે છે તે તે છે તે તે છે તે જે તે છે તે તે છે તે છે તે તે છે તે

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How the brain makes memories

To understand how memory "works" in the brain, we will focus on the neural systems for explicit important memory. In the 1950's, researchers discovered, quite by accident, that if the hippocampus was removed or damaged, a person would have profound memory deficits (see, for example, box 8). Specifically, the person would not be able to form new memories of events or facts, while



previously formed memories remain largely intact. Neuroscientists have worked out the mechanisms behind the brain's amazing capacity for memory via the hippocampus, but explaining this will involve a lot of detail. You may be interested in the next section, where you will find more detailed material about explicit memory, but if not, you may want to skip to the following section, on interaction of emotion and memory. **Figure 21:** Memory systems (in black) and the neural regions supporting them (in red)

Box 7. IN-DEPTH: WHAT'S IN A FACE?



Imagine for a moment that you are presented with the face on the left. Although it is a face you have seen many times in the past, you cannot recognize who this person is, nor do you remember having seen the face before. Recall from Neuroscience Primer I, that there are individuals who suffer from such a disorder, called prosopagnosia, or face blindness. While their vision is intact, they have a very specific inability to recognize faces, even those of people they see every day, such as their spouse or children. Some are even unable to recognize their own face. Imagine what it would be like to see your mother and not recognize her.

It is thought that this very specific disorder results from malfunction in a region of the brain called the fusiform gyrus, sometimes referred to as the fusiform face area. Although scientists do not all agree, many suppose that this region of the brain has neurons devoted to, and specialized for, face recognition. In the following figure, we see the average response to different types of stimuli (e.g.,

faces, fruits) by 320 neurons–each one recorded separately–from two different monkeys. These 320 neurons are all located in a patch of the fusiform gyrus, and they respond so much more robustly to faces than to the other types of stimuli that they are referred to as **face-selective neurons**.

Scientists who argue that the fusiform face area is dedicated to encoding face memories point to the extreme reliance of humans on social interactions for survival, and suggest that as a result we evolved special neurons devoted to remembering and recognizing faces. Other scientists argue that these neurons are not specialized

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ન્વે તેશ ૧૦ દ્વ ચલે સખ્યવા (જ્ઞુવા તેશ વ ગા ચે ન ગા શ્વા ગા) ન વા ન ન દ્વ ચા ચા સ્સાલને વા શા દ્વે ન ચાલે ન ન ન વા સુવા શા છે સા જીવા શા (જ્ઞુવા તે શાન સ્વાન્ બ

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for face memory, but rather are sensitive to anything that a person spends a lot of time attending to. Humans, they argue, happen to spend a lot of time looking at faces, but if we instead devoted extensive time to looking at birds, then these neurons would respond specifically to birds. Whatever the case, it is clear that neurons in the fusiform gyrus are specialized for a particular type of explicit memory and become tuned to very specific stimuli.



In Depth: How new explicit memories are made

Formation of explicit memory offers another wonderful example of a principle in living systems discussed in life science primer II, namely the dynamic relationship of structure and function. The hippocampus has a unique structure that supports the formation of explicit memories, but not implicit ones. You can trace the pathways in Figure 22.

Figure 22: (A) Coronal section of the brain of a macaque monkey that has been Nissl-stained, which allows visualization of cell bodies. The hippocampus is circled. Source: brainmaps.org (B) Basic circuit of the hippocampus, as drawn by Santiago Ramon y Cajal. DG: dentate gyrus. Sub: subiculum. EC: entorhinal cortex





क्नेन्ग्रीशःक्रुशंसेवं हेन् हुन

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The primary route whereby information enters the hippocampus is by way of the entorhinal cortex (EC), which is located in the parahippocampal gyrus and is often considered to be part of the hippocampus because of its anatomical connections. The EC has strong reciprocal connections with many other parts of the cerebral cortex and with subcortical regions such as the hypothalamus and thalamus. Large pyramidal cells in the EC send dense networks of axons to the granule cells in a portion of the hypothalamus called the dentate gyrus, a 3-layered region that essentially controls the flow of information within the hippocampus. The middle layer contains granule cells whose axons (called mossy fibers) pass on the information from the EC on thorny spines that exit from the proximal apical dendrite of CA3 pyramidal cells (see inset, figure 22). Next, CA3 axons exit from the deep part of the cell body and loop up into the region where the apical dendrites are located, then extend all the way back into the deep layers of the entorhinal cortex, completing the reciprocal circuit. Within the hippocampus, the flow of information from the EC mostly goes one way, moving first to the dentate gyrus, then to the CA3 layer, the CA1 layer, the subiculum (Sub), and then out of the hippocampus to the EC. The neurons transmitting the information use glutamate, an excitatory neurotransmitter, but there are many populations of GABA inhibitory interneurons that modulate the activity of these glutamatergic cells.

Box 8. CASE STUDY: PATIENT HM

Henry Molaison had suffered minor seizures since age 10 and major seizures since age 16. At the age of 27, he underwent surgery to correct his increasingly debilitating epilepsy. On Sept 1, 1953, surgeons removed sections of the temporal lobe on both sides of his brain, including the amygdala and most of the hippocampal formation. The extent of the loss can be seen marked in black on the images of his brain in the figure to the left. Severe amnesia was apparent immediately after surgery and his life was radically changed. Since then, Mr. Molaison was studied extensively, and in order to preserve his anonymity he was referred to as H.M. until his death in 2008. One particular scientist named Brenda Milner performed most of this work, and despite seeing her every day for nearly 50 years, H.M. had to be re-introduced to Dr. Milner every time he saw her!



While he was unable to form new explicit memories, his implicit memory was intact, as evidenced by H.M.'s ability to acquire new skills such as the one shown in the cartoon on the right. In this task, he was asked to trace a picture that was only visible with a mirror. He made many



errors at first, but quickly got better and his improvement was retained on subsequent testing days. Neither was his short-term memory impaired: he was able to carry on a short conversation and keep track of a topic as long as it was uninterrupted. Much of what we know about memory comes from the contributions of H.M. and his family.





वेंद्रावें तुः श्वाय हेतु त्य यहेंद्र मुन मदे दे रों दिना या भ्रया नडमाक्तमाफुमर्खमार्थेना अन्यानेरान्दर्भगर्वेरायहाया มราวั ฏุญาฏรา ริราวั รามาร์ ๆ พายารา พิ ๆ พายั รา ฏุรา ने हे लेगूश्व कुर भेन ने नवितर् हिंद गे सुन कहेता ક્ર માયલર જ્ય શું તે મેં માયે રાખવી મેં દ છે રાખવત રા <u>ञ्चूतर्ायनम् वृत्त्वर्त्त्रेग्रायाल्ग्याल्याल्यायाः</u> ন্দ: ϖ ઽ૾ઽ૾ૺ η མ་གང་ཡང་མ་བྱུང་ཆོ་ལོོང་གིམ་བརᆂོད་ག୲ୡི་དེར་ हेशप्रदेनप्रमार्खरानुनामुनामेण्येना नार्केशद्वप्रदे ู พิมารุราศีราขิ เฮิมาฮราขิ รุมายริขุมายมายู่ราวาพิสุ





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નવૈષ્ટ્રિનજીનું ને અર્કેન્ શુન્ય ગામવા નર્કે અ.ગુ.અ.અ.થવા વિન્યુ ક્વ પ્લેટ્સ પ્રચ્ર અરતનું વૈષ્યાન્ નુન્ય ને તે તે પ્રચ્રાન્ શું તે પ્રચ્રેન્ છે વ્યવસાય છે છે. આ વ્યુ સ્ટે વ્યવસાય ને આ ગામ આ વ્યુ સ્ટે વ્યવસાય ને આ ગામ આ ૡૹ[ૻ]ઌૡૢઽૻૡૢ૽ૺૹૢૻૡઌૹૻૹૻૡઌ૽ૺૹૻૡ૽ૼ૽૽ૹૢ૽ઽૻઽૢૡ૽૾ઌૡ૬ૢઌૻઌ૽૿ૡૢૻઌૹૢ૽ૢ૽ૡ૾ૡૻઌૹૣૢઌૹૻઌૼૢૣૢૣૢૻ૾ૡૼૼઽઌ૽૿ૡ૽૾ઽ૽ઽૼૼૹઽૺૹૣૼૼૹૻૹઽૡૼૹૹઽૡૼૢૼૡ૾ૺૹૻૻ૾૾ૡ૾૾૱૾૾ૡૼૼઽૡૼૡૼઽૹૡ૽ૼઽૹઌ૽૿ૢઌૻૻ

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बह्येवा यनुवार्धवायाः

For many years scientists speculated that the brain stores memories by modifying the sensitivity of connections between neurons that are simultaneously active, particularly in the hippocampus. The notion is captured in the memorable phrase: "cells that fire together, wire together". Long-term potentiation (LTP) appears to be one mechanism by which such a phenomenon occurs. LTP occurs when a brief burst of activity in the presynaptic neuron rapidly induces an increase in synaptic strength with the postsynaptic neuron, making it more likely that they will fire together. The resulting potentiation, or tighter linking of the activity in the two neurons, can last for several hours up to several days. There are many possible mechanisms by which LTP can occur. One mechanism (pictured in figure 23) occurs when an increase in the number of receptors for the neurotransmitter glutamate on the post-synaptic neuron makes it more responsive to activity of the pre-synaptic neuron.

Dendritic spines are small outcroppings on the dendrite that facilitate synaptic contact. The figure below shows a three dimensional reconstruction of spines on a dendrite.



A second type of LTP may involve an increase in the number of dendritic spines on the postcell, which synaptic would enhance the synaptic strength of the neuron with axons that synapse on those spines. Importantly, stress has been shown to decrease the number of dendritic spines on cells in the hippocampus (figure 24), and this may be one of the primary ways that stress interferes with learning and memory. We will discuss the

neural systems involved in the stress response in more depth in Primer IV.

To conclude this rather detailed discussion of explicit memory, we return to the distinction between short-term and long-term memories. Recall our example of short-term memory, when you repeat a phone number in order to remember it while dialing. Notice that this type of repetition is also the process by which we cement something into long-term memory. Consolidation is the process of converting a short-term memory to longterm memory, and is achieved by rehearsal of the memory. Consolidation was first described in the late 1800's by scientists who noticed that memory takes time to fixate or consolidate. They suggested that this delay may occur because long-term memories depend on neural processes that are not instantaneous. It is thought that this is where LTP comes into play: rehearsal leads to a cascade of events that, over some amount of time, alter the synapses between neurons in ways that make "connections" more likely. Interestingly, LTP usually lasts for a few hours, and it remains unclear how this mechanism could translate into memories that last many years. If the neural processes thought to support long-term memory are relatively short-lived, how might this affect our experience of the memories that we keep for a lifetime?



Figure 23: One mechanism underlying the induction of LTP may be that when the CA3 cell is repeatedly stimulated in the proper pattern, the number of glutamate receptors on the CA1 cell increases and the receptors become activated. If the original stimulus is then reapplied to the CA3 cell, the resulting glutamate release will induce a much greater response in the CA1 cell. This is called long-term potentiation. Adapted from: http://pubs.niaaa.nih.gov/publications/arh284/213-221.htm



Figure 24: Reduced spine density on a mouse hippocampal neuron after short stressor (bottom) compared to a hippocampal neuron in a non-stressed mouse (top). The decrease in spines has been shown to be related to a decrease in cognitive function. From: http:// www.pnas.org/content/107/29/13123. full.pdf+html

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cations/arh284/213-221.htm

ร्रमे रेश १२ क्रुवणवरुष प्रायम पहण कुरु श्रर गुन (LTP) न क्रुन મલે લા સુદાવા વ્યવ ન સુદ્દા સર રહુવા સ શુદ્ધ છે વર્લે શ સુખર સુભાવ કુદા નાયશ્વ છે. જે વેંદે સાસુર સ્ટ્રેર થી સ્ટ્રે બેઠ રાવે શારશાં ગાવવેલા ૹૣૢૺ[੶]ઌૺૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૻૢૢૢઌૻઌૻૢૻૢૢૢૢૢૢૻઌૻૹૢૻૻ૽ૡ૽૾ૻૹ૾૾ૢૻઌૻ૾ૡૻૻઌૻૻૡ૽ૻઌૻ૽ૡૻ૾૾ૻઌૻ૾ૡૻૻ à51 र्ळेग गण हे न्दर्भे गंगे सुभ के देने भे भे द माय न सुर द भ न हन ૽ૺૼૡૺૻૻૹ૬ૢઌૢૻૻૡ૱૱ૻૹૢૻૹૢૻૡૢૻૡૻૢૻઌૻૻ૱૽ૺૹ૽ૣૼૼૼ<u>ૼ</u>ૼૻૢૡૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼ૱ૢૣૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૻૻઌૻ૾૾૾ૼૡ૽ૺ শ'ব্য १ मेंदि झसुम्दन्द्र आण्यव ग्री क्वा मा के शायम न क्वे में जी भी ना भी ฺॺॱक़ॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॺॖॱॻॺॺॱॺॺॱॺड़ॖॖॻॱक़ॖॖॺॱॷॖॸॱ(LTP)ॾेॸॱॸॱॸेॸऻॖॱॱॸऀॱ ૡૢૻૻૻઽૢૻૡૹૼ૱ૻૹ૾ૣૣૣૣૣૣ૽ૼૼૼૼૡૢૻ૱ઌૻૢૼૼૼૼૼૼૻઌ૽ૼૡ૽ૡ૽ૡૺૡૻૡ૽૽ૡૺઌૻૡ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡ૽૾ૢૻૡ૱ૢૣૻઽૡૢઽ૱ઽ ཆོགས་འོད་ཡོནן http://pubs.niaaa.nih.gov/publi-



นาสุมมาญิมาลสุสาฏิราฏาล์วรีสามัสทามสาฏิเจ้า १४०० ศายรมาญิสราราจบิมาลัราฏมาพัร ผูามา ᠵ᠋ᡳᡏᡄ᠄ᢅ᠋᠋᠋ᠣᡘ᠉ᡃᠴ᠋᠋ᢋ᠈ᠴ᠈ᡭᡆ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡢᡭᡃ᠄ᢎᡃᡎᢂ᠈ᠮᡐᢂ᠈ᡔᡍᢋ᠈ᠮᢅ᠆ᡃᢩ᠊᠋ᡎᡔ᠋᠈ᠴ᠆ᡪᢩᢌ᠉ᡃᡧᢋ᠉ᡬᢤ᠋ᡜ᠉ᡬᡀ᠉ᡭᢋ᠂ᡆ᠆ᡷᡵ র্নিন:র্ক্টিঝা <u>ᡪ</u>ᢆ᠄ᢞᡄᢧᠽᡆᢆᢧᢧᠽᠽᡀᢧ᠕ᡊᢐᡁᢣᡁᢓ᠕ᡊ ॶॖॖॺॱॺऀऀदॆॺॱड़ॺॱॸॱॸॖग़ॱग़ॸड़॓ॺॱॴ॔ऄॱॸॸॸॱग़ड़ॖग़ॺॱॻॖॖॖ॓ॱक़ॖॖॖॸॱ <u></u>ୖୠ୶୲ୠୄ୲୴ଢ଼୶୲୳ୖ୳ଽୡ୶୳ଽୖ୶୲ୡ୕୲୷୳୵ଽୄ୲ୢୠ୶୲୴ୠ୶୴୷ଽ୶ଢ଼୶୶ୖ୶ଽ୲ୖଽ୶୲ୖୠ୶୲୵୶ଽ୶୲ୠ୶୲୶୶୲ ૡૢૼૡૹ૽૿ૢૺૻૻૹૹૢઽૻૹૹૼૹૹૻૻ૱ૻઌૻૻઌૹૢૢ૽ૢૻઽૻૻૻૻઌૻૻઌૻૡૢ૽ૡૻૡૻૡૡૡૢૼૡૹ૽૿ૺૹૹૢઽૼૹ૽ૣ૾ૼૻૻૡૹૣઌૻૹૻ૽ઌૻૻ૱૽૽ૼઌ૽૽ૼ૾ૺૼ૾ૻ૱ ૡૢૡ૽ૺૹઌૹૡૢ૾ૡૡ૾ૡૣૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૺૹૡૻ૽૽ૼૼૻ૱ઽૻૡૼૼૻૹૢઌઌ૽ૡ૽ૺઙ૱ઌૡ૽ૼૡૢ૱ૡૹૢ૾ૺઽૡૢ૾ૡૡ૽૽૱ૡૡૡૡૻૡ૾ૡૹ૽ૻ૱૾ૣૡૡૡ૽૽ૡ૽ૡૡ૽ૡ૽ૡૡૡ૽ য়৾ঀ৾য়য়৽ঀ৾য়য়য়৾৾য়ৢ৾৾৾৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়

. જી રાઢે વાં 'ગે 'શ્રેં વાય વેં લે' રે સેંગ 'ને ગ ગાં લે' માં વે 'વર ' એ અઅ' દભા 'ને દાય વે ભા ગાવે 'આ' ભા વા ગુ માં વે 'વર ગું ને ' વર્ત સાય દેવ' માં વે '

૽૾ૺૹ[ૻ]ૡૼઽઽૼૼૼૹૻૻઽૼૡઽૻઽૡ૽ઙ૽૽ૡૺઌૡ૽ૡ૽૾ૡૼૹ૾ૡૻૹ૾ૡૼ૾ૡૺૼૡ૾ૺૻૹૢ૾ૡ૿ૻઌૡૻ૾ૣૡ૽૿૱ૻૡૹૻ૾ૡૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽૿ૡૼૡૻૡૼૡૻૡૻૡૡૻૡૻૡૡૻૡૡૡૡૡ

য়ৣৢৢয়৽য়ঀয়৽ঀয়ৢয়৽য়ৢয়ৼয়ৣৼয়৾য়য়৾য়য়য়৽ ૡૢૼૼ^ૡૻઌૢ૾ૢ૾ૢ૾૾૾ઌૻૻૡ૽૾ઌૻૻૡ૽૾ૺઌૻ૱ૻૡૢૻૢૻૢૻૢૢૢૻૻઌૻૹૻ૾ૢૻઌૻઌૻ૽ૼૡૻૺૻૹૻ ૡૢઽૹૢ૽ઽૻ૽૽૽ૣૻ૾ૻ૱૱ૡ૽ૡૼ૱૱ૡ૱૱ૡ૽૽ૼ૱૱ૡ૽ૡ ฑุสพาฬุสพารราคสิดาสาพิส ઞદ્દેવ વશ્વ જેવાય વાલે ને નવા નવા સુન જ્યું ન સેના ગયે. *ઞઽ*૬ૹૢૢૺૺઌૻૻ:૱ૹ૱ૡૣૻ૱ૻઌ૽૽ૡ૽ૺૻઽ૱ઽ૱ૹૹ૽ૻ૱ૹ૱૽ૢૻ૱ૹ૱ઽ ૹૹૼૹૹ੶ૹૣૣૣ૽ૺઌ੶ઌૣਗ਼ૹ੶ૹૣ૽ઌ੶ਗ਼૽ૢ૽૽ઌ૽ૻઽૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૻૻૹ૽ *૾*ૺ૱૱ૻઽૡૻ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ *ઽ*ૡૺ੶ਙਞ੶ૡ૽૱૱ૡ૱ૻ૽૽ૢૺૹઽૹ੶ૡૡ૽ૼૼૼૼૻ૱ૢૡૼૻૡ૽ૢૼૼૼૻ૽ૡ૽૽ૺ *૽૾ૼ*૽ૢૢૺૹૡૺૹૹૣૢ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૻઽઽઽઽ૱ઽૻ૿ૡૻૡ૱ૡ૱ૹૡૢૼૡૻૻૹ૽ૻૼૼૺૼૼૼૼૼૺ૱૱ अर-भेंभेक्त-क्र भाईमाने प्रा भीक क्रीन र के भाननर



नइ भेन इ राज्य प्रा के मह भेन ड हन ही के र 5 गुमाधवे प्रमुन महामारे प्रमाधिक हिना दे मामी क अहुद् अळ्ठअस् छियः दु रेगः हुपा वगुरा यर रठा वदेगस द्वेत-ग्री-पॅप्ता गमस्य ग्री-तये-देखायदेखा-यहाथेत-हास्रत-विषायी श्रेर 5 कवार धारी केंवार यावे दवायी केंवार क णमुखारुव ग्रे यहेंबा महीणबाद इवा वर्कें व ग्रे येन्।

^৵৾৽՟՟য়ৼ৽৾৾ঀ৾৾ঀ৾৾৾৾৾৾ৼৼ৾৾৾৾য়৾৾ঀ৾৽য়৾৾৾য়ৢয়৾৾য়৾৾৾ৠ৾৾য়৾৾য়য়৾৾য়৾৾য়৾৾৾৾৾৾৾৾৾৾ ᠵᡭᡆ᠋ᠯ᠋ᢂ᠂ᢌᡁ᠊ᠴ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠇᠆ᠵᡇ᠌᠉᠄ᢍᢅᡦ᠄᠋᠋᠋᠊᠋ᡒᢍᢈ᠂ᡆᡏᢆᠲ᠆ᡃᡘᡆ᠂ᠫ᠂᠙᠋ᢩᠴᡬ᠅ᡗᠴ᠋ᠴᢄ᠋᠄ᡘᢓᠴ᠋᠄ᡘᡆ᠉ᡸᢋ᠈ᠴ "લેઅપ્યવે ખેતુવ્ય વદ્દ વાચા વદે વાદે તે પ્રાથ્વે તે સ્ટાર, પ્રશ્નુ આ ખેતું કુરા વાદ્વ પ્રાથમ વદ્દ વા સુચ જ્યા તે આ પ્ ५४ अष्ठभार् प्रियेद प्रथा के प्रतर पहर परि भ्रावसा ने पिता ने दे प्रवा मार्ग परि प्रथा पह पा क्रुव पाव सा ना प्र प्रा भाषता के प्रतर प्रा मार्ग के प्रतर प्रा मार्ग के प्रा के प्रा मार्ग के प् मार्ग के प्रा मार्ग के प्र मार्ग के प्रा मार मार्ग के प्रा मा मार्ग के प्रा मार ५न८४ इ.स.म. विकार के में कि राजी में कि राजी के राजी क ગઠેગાં વેં (નિયે 'રેશ) ૧૧ વર્ત્, 'ગયાય'ન') અશ્રન અઢચયા દેશ બ્લૉલે નગર જ લાગા વાયા છે. છે રે ત્ર ગયા માર્ગ સુલા *राभेः* नगरः इत्य्वेद्यन्धदे भ्रेषेद्रभवे भ्रात्स्य यर्गत् क्रुभागणानहेद्दद्य स्वयुत्त स्वर्ध्व प्याये प्रतित्त्व भावत्य व्याये भ्र ᡃ᠋᠊ᢧᡃᢆ᠋ᢓ᠆᠈ᢅ᠋ᢩ᠊᠍ᡸᡝ᠋᠋᠋ᡓᡆᢂ᠋ᠬᡅᡃᠭᡆᢋ᠋᠊᠋ᡚᢆ᠋᠊ᡏ᠆ᠵ᠆ᡬᢅ᠆ᡪ᠊ᡪᠴ᠋ᠹ᠆᠇ᡆᡭ᠂᠋ᡢᡇᢂ᠄᠊ᠭᠲᢂ᠄ᠺᡁᡃᡅᢩᢓ᠆᠄ᠴᡃᡭᡆ

Back to emotion and memory

With this understanding of both emotion and memory, you can begin to see how they are so closely intertwined. Start by returning to our snake scenario. Imagine yet again that you are out walking some weeks after your encounter with the snake and are approaching the same stretch of road, but are thinking about something else.

- Will you be able to pass the spot where you previously saw the snake without remembering the incident?
- What color was the snake? [Notice that while you may have forgotten other details of the situation like the color of a sign by the road, it is very unlikely that you would forget the color of the snake.]
- How vivid is the memory?
- Are there sensory aspects that add to or trigger the memory? The smell of this stretch of road? The sound of the dirt crunching under your feet?

Not only do we remember emotional events particularly well, but emotional memories also are distinctly different from other types of explicit memories. This is because emotional memories often have both an explicit and an implicit component (review figure 21 to remember the distinction). Notice in figure 25 that an emotional event such as the snake scenario essentially combines the explicit memory formation and the fear conditioning described earlier. As sensory information (seeing the snake, pain) comes in, it becomes encoded as explicit episodic memories in the hippocampus. At the same time, emotional memories are formed. For example, the sounds you heard just before the snake struck may be encoded as conditioned stimuli. Later, when a cue from the memory occurs (for example, when you arrive at the same spot on the road) and is processed by the sensory system, it leads to the retrieval of an explicit memory about the emotional event in the hippocampus and to the expression of emotional responses when retrieved in the amygdala.



http://www.accesstoinsight.org/tipitaka/kn/snp/snp.1.08.amar.html

Positive emotions

So far we have talked mostly about negative emotions and memories, such as fear and the traces of fear memories left after a negative event. Turning now to positive emotions, let us explore the neural systems supporting them. Take, for example, the emotions expressed in Karaniya Metta Sutta: The Buddha's Words on Loving-Kindness:

> "Even as a mother protects with her life Her child, her only child, So with a boundless heart Should one cherish all living beings"

Figure 25: Emotional events lead to explicit and implicit memory formation. Adapted from: http:// www.scholarpedia.org/w/ images/b/bf/Emotional_Memory_ fig1.gif *੶*ਖ਼ਸ਼ਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑ<u></u>ਸ਼੶੶੶੶੶੶੶੶੶੶੶੶੶੶੶੶੶੶੶੶੶੶੶

એચ&઼ૻૹ૾ૢૼૼૼૼઽ੶૬૬ઽૡૡૡ૾ૺ૾ૹ૾ૣૢૼૼૼૼૼઽૡ૽ૢ૾૽ૡૼૼૺૻૢૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૹૡૡ૾૽ૡ૾ૺૡ૾ૻૡૼૡૹૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡ ઞનુ દ્વ સવા વ્યવ લેવા વો દે આ શું વે આ ગર્લેનું વ્ય ગર્સું નું ગલે દ્વ પ્યત્ર એ આ ગ ने क्षर न क्रेंनि न विवर् क्षर मे) य ଌୖ୶୶୰ୖ୵ୖଌୄୢୠ୵ୄଽୢୖଌ୶୶ୖ୴୕ୣ ᡆᢅᢋᡃ᠋᠊᠋᠊᠋ᢧᠵ᠄᠋᠋ᠭᠴᡧ᠈᠋ᡆ᠋᠋ᡝᢆ᠆ᠻᢆᡓ᠆ᠻᢐ᠆ᡃᠴᢂᢂ᠄ᡬᡜᢆ᠋᠋᠋ᡏᡅᡆᢋ᠄ᡭᡆ᠋᠋ᠬᠬ᠈᠋᠋᠇ᡅᠯᡬᡆ᠋᠋᠆ᡪᠴᡬᡀ᠆ าติสารณิ ราวีรารู โร้รงไ

- ઽૻઽૺૡૻૡૢ૽ૼૼઽૼઌ૽૽ૢ૾ૹૻૹૣૻૻૹ૽૽ૺૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૻઽૻૡૻઽૺૹ૽ૺઽ૱ૡૻૻૻૼૼૹૻ૱ૼૡૻ૱૱ૡૻૡૼૡૻૹ૽ૡ૽ૼૡૻૹ૽ૡ૽ૼૻૹ૾ૡ૽ૼઌૹ૽ૻૡ૾૾ૡૡૻૡૻૡૡૡ
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- ุรสานาริาลัการการอิรายจม รสานาริราสัสานารอิรายนิารารสีนารการสีนารนิเอเจนา

ક્રુશ્વર કેન્ડ્ર સુરાત્રે ના સ્ટેટ સ

યવે રેવાશ્રાવ્ય નર્દેશ ક્વન્દ્ર ન્વસુદ્ર ક્વર્શુ જ વાદેશ વાદ્ય નાય જે સાથે દ્વારા છે. આ માં સાથ સાથે સાથ સાથે સ . २१ व्हे २४ प्रत्र मुद्र प्रदेश्व का स्कृत्य प्रदेश प्रति प्रत्य के प्र प्रत्य के प्र प्रत्य के प ઞ્મુદ્દાંત્વશાય્વ્રેનાયવે રુપ્લેવ (ક્ષુવાસ્ટેદાનાદ્દાનાદ્વાસુગાસુશ્વા) ફ્રયયાવદા ર્દે વેંત્ર નક્ષ્યું વા વેનચ પર્વે નરેનુ કે નક્ષ્ય અભ્યાનુ એચચા ફેન્ટિક માં સ્થય <u>ગુવપ્યરેના</u> નવેરાતા ક્રુવ્યનેશ શૅપ્યાવક્તુવર્ષે દાજસાનું દ્વિંગુ શેર્થ શેરા પરે ક્રુંને . ૬ ૪ ૹૼૼૣૻૹૹૻઌૼૡ૽ૻ૱૱ૹૻઌ૽૾ૼૡ૽ૺૹૢૢઌૻઌ૽ૢૢ૽ૼૡૹ૽ૢ૽ૻઽ૽ૼૡ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼઽઌૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૹ૾ૣ૾ઌૢૻૡ૽૾ઌૹ૾૾૱ૹૻૡ૽ૼ૱ શુ: ૬६ भारे : २९ भारे : २९ १९ १९ १९ १९ १९ १९ १९ १९ १९ १९ વસુર સુવાકેવચાવા રાસ્સે અં હોંદ વી પાળ્યત સ્થાવશુર શે દેવે રાવશુર ન રેવ

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In this passage, the ultimate example of compassion is that of a mother for her only child, an emotion so strong that it would motivate her to give her life in protection if it became necessary.

In this passage, the ultimate example of compassion is that of a mother for her only child, an emotion so strong that it would motivate her to give her life in protection if it became necessary. The Buddha notes that this is the feeling that overflows to all living beings in a person of great and infinite compassion.



Think for a moment about your own mother, and the compassionate gifts she has given you. If you do not have a strong relationship with your mother, is there another person who has shown you that level of compassion during your life? **Figure 26:** Neural activity in the nucleus accumbens when an attached parent sees their own child, even when their child is crying.

Brain bases of compassion The significance of such compassion is manifold, but our concern here is with the neuroscience of compassion. Are there neural systems that support this emotion? Is it possible that the systems that

support maternal compassion are the same as those that support compassion for all living beings? The answers to these questions, as we will see, are "yes".

Let's address the first question: how do neural systems in the brain support feelings of compassion? Recall from our discussion of the dopamine system that the nucleus accumbens is active when a parent sees their own child. This system is important for



reward and motivation, and thus, we can infer that its activation supports the feeling of reward related to viewing one's own child. But is this reward activity related to compassion? A couple of lines of evidence suggest that it is. First, activity in the nucleus accumbens is greater for mothers who have a stronger attachment to their child. This is particularly true for mothers' reactions to their child's sad faces. In other words, mothers who have a strong attachment to their child have reward-related activity that is motivating for them even when they see their child crying. In fact, it may be that finding **Figure 27:** Neural activity in the nucleus accumbens and ventral tegmental area (VTA) when study participants donated money to charity (left). Recall that these are the primary hubs of the mesolimbic dopamine system (right).



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your child rewarding is most important when they are crying and need help. This is true of fathers, as well. Fathers who have a strong response in the dopamine system to their child's face spend more time caring for them.

In evolutionary terms, it makes sense that the neural systems of parents are wired to respond to a suffering child. Over time, natural selection would favor parents who are more responsive to their child, especially when the child is distressed by hunger, thirst or sickness, and might die if not cared for. To this end, natural selection has co-opted one neurotransmitter that is important for childbirth and lactation, oxytocin, to facilitate bonding and compassion. Primer IV discusses this system in more detail.

Oxytocin is a small neuropeptide that is released by the pituitary gland and acts in the brain and the body. Its production dramatically increases in a woman right before she gives birth, and this increased oxytocin stimulates the contractions of childbirth as well as lactation.

But oxytocin does more. It acts on the dopamine system to foster reward and motivation during childcare. It isn't only moms who have an up-regulation of this system: a human father's circulating levels of oxytocin increase when his child is born, and fathers have an increase in oxytocin when they play with their child. Recall the role of dopamine in reward. We might imagine that these oxytocin-induced increases in activity of the dopamine system make it more rewarding for fathers and mothers to interact with and care for their child. In essence, children may have been one of the earliest addictions.

At this point, we can ask whether the neural processes that support parental care are involved in compassion toward others. It appears that they are. Research using fMRI shows that the dopamine reward system is active when we make monetary donations to others. Notice in **figure 27** that both nodes of the mesolimbic dopamine system, the VTA and the NA, are active when participants donate money to a charity. Similarly, circulating levels of oxytocin predict how generous people are when they interact with strangers.

Now we can connect this discussion back to our examination of negatively charged emotions. Oxytocin has strong effects on the amygdala, a region of the brain that you'll recall is important for responding to threat and that plays an important role in anxiety

and fear. Earlier we noted that the amygdala is a collection of nuclei, each of which contains distinct inputs and outputs. We used this to exemplify the complexity of brain systems, and we will now introduce more evidence of the complexity of the amygdala: inputs and outputs can be either inhibitory or excitatory.

Recall that one subnucleus of the amygdala, the central amygdala, is responsible for mobilizing the body during a threat by initiating responses in the autonomic nervous system. These responses to threat are taxing for our bodies and will be discussed in more detail in primer IV, but the important point here is that this subnucleus contains extensive oxytocin receptors (see Recall from Neuroscience Primer II that a neuron can receive **excitatory** or **inhibitory** input from other neurons, depending on whether the input causes the cell's membrane potential to become more positive (excitatory) or negative (inhibitory). The neuron will only fire if its many excitatory and inhibitory signals add up to meet or exceed its threshold potential.

Co-opting is when a particular feature or trait that is adaptive for one function becomes adaptive for a different function or in a different context.



Figure 28: Simplified model of the circuits in the central amygdala, showing processing of excitatory (+) and inhibitory (-) connections between oxytocin and vasopressin. CeM = medial central nucleus; CeL = lateral central nucleus. Adapted from: http://www.sciencemag.org/content/308/5719/245.long

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figure 28). Neurons that have oxytocin receptors synapse on, and inhibit, nearby vasopressin receptors that are partly responsible for initiating autonomic responding. Carefully walk through **figure 28** and think about these questions:

- 1. What happens when the basolateral amygdala stimulates vasopressin receptors in the central amygdala?
- 2. What happens to vasopressin receptor output when the cortex stimulates oxytocin receptors in the lateral central nucleus (red)?

An infusion of oxytocin dampens the response to a stressor. From the evidence that compassionate behavior and positive social interactions enhance oxytocin, you can see how these positive emotions are good for our health and well-being. In this vein, we will now turn our attention to the neural processes that help us connect to others by allowing us to understand their thoughts and emotions.

How do we understand and feel another's emotions and thoughts?

Now look back at the figure in **box 3**, which shows a person being placed in an fMRI scanner so that their brain function may be studied. The advances in neuroimaging described at the outset of this primer have allowed scientists to make great progress in understanding brain function, but the techniques used by neuroscientists generally require that the object of study is a human brain in isolation, inside a machine. Yet, we know that humans are thoroughly social beings, and that social interactions hold a crucial place both in human evolution and in our day-to-day experience. The context in which we study the brain will greatly influence what we find, and social context will be salient for humans.

Although this recognition has come somewhat late in the study of human brain function, recent research has sought to identify the neurobiology underlying the ability to accurately identify, understand, and respond to another person's mental states, including their beliefs, intentions and emotions. Let's examine these processes in the attempt to understand how one human brain can, in essence, crawl inside another. As we shall see, the neurobiology supporting social interactions range from ancient systems shared by many species of animals to those that appear to be uniquely human.

Emotional contagion: We all probably know someone who has a great laugh, the kind of laugh that seems to call for company. When we hear that person laugh, we tend to laugh more readily than when that person is not around, and stories and events seem more humorous when we experience them with that person. This phenomenon is called emotional contagion, and it is one of the most basic ways that one animal shares, and in the case of humans, begins to understand, the emotions of another animal. Emotional contagion occurs when one animal has an automatic, unintentional emotional response that is triggered by perceiving the same emotional

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રેશ્વ'નગ'વ્ય'ન'ક્ષુ'ન ર્જેશ્વ સું વિગ્વર્ત્ન છું ખેત્વ

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- / મશ્ર દેવા ગ્રાન લિવે બ્લોન બનમ છે. આ માર દેવા ગ્રાન લિવે છે દિવા વર વી ભાજે મેન એવ (દોવ દ્રમ) છે એવ માન વા બાખન જીવા વા દિવા વર્ણ માન છે.

างมาล์ลาาร์การ์รา

યખ્યેવ ર્ઢેવા પ્રસ્પ્રચ્નુવ પ્રવે ર્ફ્નેવ શ્વાન પ્રવે રાહ બુશ્ર ને ખાન ફ્રેવા વર્દે મારુવા વે વા ખેવ પ્રવે ર્સુવાય શુપ્ત પર દે સુંત સાથ જે તે સુંત્ર સુંત સાથ જે તે સુંત સાથ જે તે સુંત્ર સુંત સાથ જે તે સુંત્ર સુંત સાથ જે તે સુંત સાથ જે તે સુંત સાથ જે તે સુંત સાથ જે તે સુંત્ર સુંત્ર સુંત્ર સુંત સાથ જે તે સુંત્ર સે સુંત્ર સુંત્ય સુંત્ર સુંત્ય સુંત્ર સુંત્ર સુંત્ય સુંત્ર સુંત્ર સુંત્ર સુ state in another. This phenomenon of "catching" someone else's emotion occurs in human babies as young as one day old, and emotional contagion has been documented in many different animals, including mice, rats, and chimpanzees. Among humans, such contagion has been found to have a powerful effect. For example, interacting with another person who is happy and energetic, compared to someone who is irritable, leads people to be more cooperative with others after the interaction.



A recent study shows that emotional contagion, bordering on compassion, is present in rats, as explained in **figure 29**. This study indicates that rats not only feel the distress of another rat that is in distress, but they will also work to relieve the distress of the other. One can imagine how **emotional contagion** for painful or fearful stimuli would be adaptive, particularly for animals that live in groups. If an animal is able to use another animal's fear or distress to guide its behavior (free the rat, or move away from dangerous and harmful events), it may be more likely to live another day. This type of emotional contagion rests on a process called **simulation**. Let's look at this very important mental process.

Simulation

The primary neural mechanism at the heart of emotional contagion is simulation. Simulation occurs when an organism activates the same neural systems in response to another's actions, sensations, or emotions as the organism would activate to perform or experience those actions, sensations, and emotions itself. It is very likely that if you could look at the brain of the free rat while it viewed the trapped rat in Figure 29, similar fear circuits would be active for both animals. What is more, many studies now show that the process of simulation is fundamental to understanding another organism's actions, sensations, or emotions. For example, to understand another's actions the organism's brain quite literally acts as if the observing organism were performing those actions. To understand a friend's pain when he burns his hand, our brain activates some of the same systems that are active when we experience pain ourselves.

Figure 29: A. In this experiment, a free rat is placed in an arena with a cagemate (i.e., roommate) who is trapped in a restrainer. The rat freed its cagemate even when social contact was prevented. Even when the free rat is placed in an arena containing two restrainers, one holding a trapped cagemate and the second holding chocolate, the rat opened both restrainers and typically shared the chocolate. B. Compared to the first two conditions when the cage was empty or contained a toy, the free rat spent a lot of time near the distressed rat (image on right). Adapted from: http://www.ualberta.ca/~elegge/ Alrg_Docs/Bartal_2011.pdf



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Box 9. IN-DEPTH: SIMULATION IN ACTION

Just how do we know that simulation forms the basis for emotion understanding? Researchers have explored simulation in many different ways, primarily by investigating the consequences of an inability to simulate. For example, when researchers interfere with a person's ability to smile by having them hold a pen in their mouth, and then ask them to read about positive and negative events, that person will have more trouble judging that an event was positive than when they are able to read the events and react naturally. In a similar study, participants held a pen in their teeth in a way that forced them to mimic a smile. Other participants were instructed to hold the pen in such a way that blocked their ability to smile. At the same time, they read cartoons and then rated how funny they found the cartoons. Participants who were mimicking a smile found the cartoons funnier than those whose smiles were blocked. Together, these experiments show that both our ability to understand and interpret emotions depends in part on simulating emotional facial expressions.



photo from: http://www-cogsci.ucsd. edu/~coulson/Courses/200/winkielmanniedenthal-oberman.pdf

What is more, other studies discovered just how important simulation is for strong relationships. One study showed photographs of couples when they were first married alongside photographs of the couple 25 years later. Independent raters judged whether the couples grew to look more similar to one another. Crucially, they were also given similar photographs of "couples" who were not married, and were blind to which couples were married and which were not. Not only were the couples that were married judged to grow more similar in appearance, but the couple's reported marital happiness predicted how much they grew in similarity. The interpretation of this study is that couples who live together and interact frequently are continually mirroring one another's facial expressions, and thus, using their facial muscles in similar ways. It may be that the more a couple simulates one another, the more they grow to look like one another, and the better their relationship. An alternative explanation is that happier couples spend more time with one another, and thus have more chances to simulate one another. However, the couples who looked most like one another did not report having more shared experiences, suggesting that the former interpretation is more likely.



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สุมมาฏิมารรัญเฉลิญญร่ารๆ. યત હું ત અબ અન્ સુકાર મારે સું ત્ર અન્ નર ખેંદ્ર શુવાય છે. નબદ મા ગુય સેદા २२४.वे.त्र्रोल.न्पट.भिया.जे.वे. ইনা

गर ५२ भार करू छर छर भारते में की भाषा http:// www-cogsci.ucsd.edu/~coulson/ Courses/200/winkielman-niedenthal-oberman.pdf

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ૹૡૢઽૹ੶૱ઙૼૹ੶૱ૢૺૼૢૼ૾ૺ૱ઌૻ૱ૹ૾ૹૹૻ૾ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૻૡૺૻ૽ઌૢૢૼૹૻઌ૾ૻૡૼ૱૽ૢ૽ૺૢૼૻઌ૽ૼૡ૽ૡૺૺૻ૱૿ઌ૾ૡૼૻઌ૱ૻૻૡ૽ૼૹ૾૾ૡ૽૿ૡૻૹ૾૾૱ૡ૾૾ૡ૾૾ૡ૾૾ૡ૾૾ૡ૾૾ૡ สุมพาฏิพารกพานพารามนิาส์ที่สุพามสูรพากอีพาฏิราริมาณาดิกาตาฏมาพิราอิรา ने नगायश्वार्श्वे के नावियां हे ने भूम भगवा में के भूम मार्ग के में ने <code>ਸ਼ੑੑੑੑੑਫ਼ੑੑ</mark>ᠵ੶ਖ਼ੵਗ਼੶ਗ਼ੑਸ਼੶ੵੑ੶ੑਗ਼ਗ਼ੑ੶ਖ਼ਁ੶ૡਫ਼ਜ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਜ਼ਫ਼ਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑ੶੶ੵੑਖ਼ਸ਼੶ੵੑਖ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑੑਫ਼੶ਖ਼ੑੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਫ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਖ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਖ਼੶੶ਖ਼੶੶ਖ਼੶੶ਖ਼੶੶ਖ਼੶੶ਖ਼</code> ૡ૬ૣૢਗ਼ૣૹૢૢૺ૽ઽ૽ૺૠૼ૽ૻઽૺૻઽૣૣઌ૽ૼૼઽૻૣૹૼૻૡૼઽ૽૽૽ૼૻઽૹૻૻ૿ઌ૾૾ૡૻૹ૾૱૽૽ૼૺૢ૽ૼૹ૽ઽૻૻઌૡ૽ૺૡઽૡૻૻઽૻૡ૬ૣઌૻ૽૽૽ૺૡ૾ૻૼઽૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૻઌ૾૾૱ૡૡ૽ૡ૽ૻ૱ૡ૽ૻૡ૽૽ૡ૽ૼઽૡૻૻૻ यदे नईिंद रादे द्वया देशुर द्वा प्य रवा प्य राष्ट्री खेंद र य र द्वे द

᠊᠋᠋ᡪᡃᠭ᠈ᡃ᠋ᡘᡆᡄ᠆ᡏᢅ᠋ᢋ᠆᠋᠋᠋ᡪᡏ᠊ᢂ᠋᠋ᠬ᠋ᠴᠴᡅ᠊᠋᠋ᢍᡝ᠋᠊ᠬᡃᡙᢆᢋ᠉᠋ᡃᢋ᠉᠋ᠴᢋ᠉᠋ᠴᢋ᠖ᢋ᠋᠈ᠺᠴᡐᢂ᠄᠋ᢍ᠋᠂ᠴ᠋᠋ᠵ᠉ᢄᡜ

᠋ᡷ᠋᠋᠋᠊᠋ᠵ᠉᠄᠍ᠴ᠋᠋᠋᠆ᡥ᠋ᠴ᠈ᡄ᠋ᢩᢎ᠋ᡎᡃᡢᡊᢋ᠆᠋ᡎᡃ᠋᠋ᡅᢆᢂ᠄ᢞᡆ᠄ᠼᡃᢋ᠄ᡚᡃᡅᢩᡱᠬᢁᢍ᠆ᡘ᠉ᠮ᠋᠋᠋ᢆ᠆ᡎᠴᢄ᠋ᡘ᠆ᠴ᠋ᠧᢍᡄᠴᢘᡩᡄ᠉ᠴ᠋᠋ᡷᢂ᠄ᡆ᠋ᢩ᠆᠅ᡬᢋ᠋ᡎᠴᡭᡆ᠋ᡎ᠋᠉ᡷᡎᡃᠬᡭᢌᡎᠯ᠋ ᠵᠵ᠆᠋ᡪᠴ᠋ᠵᠴᡬᢄᢅᡷ᠋ᢩᠳ᠄ᡭᡆᠴ᠋ᠴ᠆ᡪ᠋᠋᠋ᡎᠯᢂᡃᠭᢩᢂᡃᢆᢧ᠊᠋ᢖᢋ᠄ᡆ᠋᠋᠋ᡎ᠋ᡬᠴ᠆ᡆᠴᢁᡃ᠋ᢍ᠋ᠵ᠆ᡩ᠇᠋᠋ᡢᢋ᠆ᢂᢋ᠆ᢂᢋ᠆ᢂᢋ᠆ᢂᢋ᠆ᢂᢋ᠆ᢂᢋ᠆᠉ᠴ

ਸ਼ੁੱਕਾਰਾਟਗ ਗੁਰੇਟਾਫ਼ਗੁਆਪਟੇ ਵਾਕਿਹਾ ਕੁਛਟਆਹੁਣਆਉਟਾਏ ਕਾਰਗੁਹਾਪਟੇ ਨੁਆਸ਼ੁਹਆ

The discovery of mirror neurons: The most basic neural mechanism of simulation was first discovered in macaque monkeys by researchers who were studying individual neurons that are important for performing hand and mouth actions. The researchers noticed that some of the neurons fired when the monkey both performed an action and observed someone else performing the same action (**figure 30**). Subsequently, mirror neurons were found in the lateral parietal lobe in monkeys.

Researchers instantly recognized that in theory, neurons such as these would be ideal for understanding action, because what better way to understand someone else's action than to simulate the action with the same neurons that you would use to perform that action! And while single-cell recording is very rarely performed in humans, studies using fMRI show that similar mirroring likely occurs in the human brain. That is, particular neural regions that are active when a person performs an



Photo from: http://www.collaborate.so/emotion/

action are also active when that person observes someone else performing the same action.

What is more, these neural regions are **homologous**, or equivalent, to those where mirror neurons are found in monkeys (see **figure 31**). Recent single-cell recording performed in patients with epilepsy show that

humans may have mirror neurons in several other regions as well, including in the supplementary motor area (SMA) and the hippocampus. Given that these two regions are important in very different processes, the SMA for planning actions and the hippocampus for memory, it is likely that mirror neurons in these two regions are encoding different types of information.

Figure 30: Visual and motor responses of a single mirror neuron. In the upper part of each panel the behavioral context in which the neuron was studied is shown. In the lower part of the panel, the neuron's response is shown. The neuron discharges during observation of grasping (red arrow), is silent when the food is moved (blue arrow, and discharges again when the monkey grasps it (green arrow). From http://www.unipr.it/arpa/mirror/pubs/pdffiles/Gallese/Gallese-Goldman%201998.pdf

By allowing for effortless and automatic mirroring of what is happening in another person's brain, mirror neurons appear to lie at the heart of the distinctly human propensity to imitate and learn from others. Studies so far suggest that the drive to imitate others is especially powerful in humans, and that this drive appears early on in young children. What is more, we imitate others all the timetheir postures, laughs, and gestures-and research has found that the more people do this type of unconscious imitation of others, the more empathic and compassionate they tend to be. Watch for imitation as you see people interact and note what you see. Observe yourself as well. Reflect on all the ways in which imitation could be valuable.

Empathy relies on simulation: You therefore may not be surprised to learn that mirror simulation appears to be the basis for our

ability to empathize with others. Neuroscientists define empathy as the ability to understand what another person is feeling based in part on "taking on" or sharing the feelings of another. To feel pangs of sadness that cause you to reflect on another's feelings in response to their expressions of sadness is to empathize with them. Using functional neuroimaging, we know that the ability to empathize with another person who is in pain is based largely on activating some of the same neural regions that are active when we experience pain ourselves.



Figure 31: Cartoon of the putative human mirror neuron system (MNS) (red) and its main visual input (yellow) in the human brain.

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२२ संग्रेज्ञन् श्रु दिय श्रु २५ संग् वर्ष या दिन संग्रे या स्वर्ग संग्रे संग्रे संग्रे संग्रे संग्रे संग्रे संग हा न श्रु न संग्रे स संग्रे संग्रे







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Study the affective pain matrix at work in figure 32. Does it look familiar? This affective pain matrix involves another neural system that we have discussed at length earlier in the primer. You guessed it: the salience system, composed of the ACC and anterior insula (see **box 4**). In fact, this system is active when we simply imagine someone else in pain. Finally, notice in **figure 32** that the neural response when a person imagines a loved one in pain is greater than that in response to imagining a stranger in pain.

Consider for a moment how this differential neural response may reflect differential responses to others' suffering that we encounter throughout our day-to-day lives. Given what you now know about the neurobiology of empathy, what types of practices or behaviors might enhance our empathic responding to strangers?

Figure 32: Neural activation while viewing pictures of body parts in painful scenarios (for example, finger closed in a door). Participants were asked to imagine that the body part was their own (self), a loved one's (Loved one), or a stranger's (stranger). Adapted from: http://www.bostonneuropsa.net/PDF%20Files/LoveHurts2010.pdf

Theory of mind: Let us enter this topic through a simple scene.

You have just returned from a one-week trip and go to the kitchen to make some tea. As you open the tea cupboard, your roommate tells you that the tea canister has been moved to another cupboard while you were away.

The scenario is mundane, but the mental capacities involved are remarkable. We take them for granted, but what might be special? Theory of mind, or mentalizing, is the ability to attribute mental states – beliefs, desires, knowledge, and emotions – to others or to oneself. It is different than emotional contagion or simulation in that it does not require you to feel an emotion of another person.

When you notice that you used to be confused by a concept, but now you understand it, you are analyzing the contents of your own mind and thus, using your theory of mind. When you reflect that a friend has a different belief than you, you are using your theory of mind. And when your roommate told you that the tea had been moved, s/he also used theory of mind.

Extensive neuroscientific studies have identified a distinct neural system that becomes active when an individual thinks of their own or someone else's mental state (**figure 33**). The system includes the medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC) and the temporoparietal junction (TPJ). Neuroscientists identified this system after it proved to be active during many diverse tasks, which shared in common requiring the study participant to think about or recognize mental states, for example, asking participants to:

- 1. Understand the mental states of a character in a book or movie.
- 2. Recognize that another person is trying to deceive them.

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ૼ૾૾ૺ૱૱ૹૢ૿ૼૼૼૼૼૻૡૼ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ ᡃᡭᡆ᠋᠋ᡃ᠋᠋᠋ᢐᢩ᠄ᡱᠯᢩᢂ᠋ᠴᡭᡄ᠈ᡜᢅ᠆ᡊᢓᢆ᠆᠋ᠬᠴᡐ᠆᠋ᠴᢦ᠆᠋ᡜᢆᢂᠴᢂ᠂᠋᠋᠋ᢋ᠊ᡐ᠋᠋ᠳᡬᠽᠬ᠋ᡨ᠉ᡬᠯ᠉᠂ᡬᠯᠴᡵ᠋ᡬᡀ᠉ᠴ᠅ᠿ᠉ᢆ᠊ᢩᢋᢂ᠋ᠴ᠅ᠲ᠆ᢅᡷᢩᢓ᠆ᡃᢩ᠋ᢖᢂᠴ᠋᠄ᡬ᠆

สาๆรารารีรู|

ऄऄॵॱॻॻॱॻॆॵॱॻढ़ऀॱॶॖॵॱॻऻ (ऄ**ऄॵॱॻॆॵॵऄॵऄॵॱॻ**ऻ) २ॱऄॕॵॱॻॗॖॖॖॖॖॖॖ॑ॖॾॱॵऄॵॴऀॻॵॖॻॶॕऀड़ॱॵढ़ऀॱॺऀड़ऀॻॱय़ड़ॻऻॱॻॱॻॖऻ ᠊᠋ᡲ᠊᠋᠆᠄ᡚᢆ᠆᠄᠊ᢧᢆᢂᡃ᠋᠋᠊ᢄ᠂ᡘᡆᢆᢁ᠋ᡩ᠕ᢆᢞᡆ᠕᠋᠊ᠴᡭᡆ᠋ᢋ᠋᠄ᢓᢆ᠆ᡃ᠋ᠿᢆᡐ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᠳ᠋᠋ᡎ᠄ᡬᠯᢂ᠉᠋᠆ᢂ᠋᠄ᢄᡁᢆ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠄ᢓ᠆ᡃᡭᢖ᠆ᡃᡘᠴ᠋ᢋ᠁ᠴᢔᢅ᠆᠄ᢓ᠆ᡃᠷᡄᡃ᠋᠋ᢋ᠂ᡆᢍᡅᡃᡘᢂ᠋ᡢᡁᡆᡘᡃᡭᡆ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡃᠭ᠋᠄ᠴᢢᠬ᠉ᠮᠮ᠆ᢃ᠕

'ঀৃয়য়৻৾৾৾ড়৾৽য়৾য়ৢ৾৾য়ৼ৾ঀ৾৽ড়৾ঀ ૹૢૻૺૼૼઽૻઐૹૹૻૹ૽૽ૺઽૢ૱ઽૼૹ૽૾ૹ૽ૢ૽ૺઽઽૼૼૹૹ૽ૻૡૹૡૹઌૺૹૹ૽૽ૺૡ૾ૻૼઽૻઌઽૻઌૡૢ૽ૡૢૢૺ૾ૡૢૻઽ૱ઌૹૼૹૢઽૹૹૹૡઌ૾ૹૹૻૣઌૼૹૹૻ૽ૢૼૼ૱ૡ૱ૡ૾ૡ૽ૡૹૹૡ૾ૡ૱ૡ૾ૡ

สมาวริหารกราทสุทุพามาขาทุศล่าดิทาขอราวสิขาราพีราชหริญ มาขาทราชัสาวสีริเชิราริการริจาที่ราดิทารกู้สูงกรรมีมายหายังเชรา อึงกับรา อึ้ราชิงาซีรารกาทาอง

ફેંવાવ્ટ્રકરાવ્યું નુરાય સ્થળાય સ્ટેલી સાવેલે સ્ટેલ્પે સામયા સાથવા સાથે તે સાથે સાથે સાથે સાથે સાથે સાથે સાથે સ http://www.bostonneuropsa.net/PDF%20Files/LoveHurts2010.pdf

ð २४ दे भ्रामु दि खुं श ग्री के जे भरे रे रे रे के दे पी खे रे रे रे दे ते के ते के रे के र ૻઽઽૻઌ૽૿ૻૻૹ*ૻૻ*ૼૼૼૼૹૻૹૼૼૼૼઌૼૹૻઌૼૺૼૼૼઌૻૻઌ૽૿ૡૻૺ૱ ؾٳ(ڂڋؗۺؖٳٚ؉ڐؚ؞ؖۺٙٚۺٵ) ڂڐڛۊ؈ۣٙ؇ۿ٦٦؆ڎۿؙۿٳۺٵڛٛٛۊۨ؆٦(ڂڐڝ؈ۊ؈ٵ)؆ٛ؆ٙ؆ٙ؊



ઐ<u>૾</u>૱ૢਗ਼ૻ*ૢૻ*ૢૢૢૣૻૣૢૻૢૻૢૻૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૻઌૻૹ૽ઌૻૹૻઌ૽ૻૡૻૹૻઌૻઌૻૡૻઌૡ૱ૡ૽ૺૼૡ ૹૣૢૢૣૣਗ਼ૢૻૣઌૹૣૡૡૺૻ૽ ૱ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌ૽ૻૡૡૡૡ૽ ૱૾ૺૡૻૻ

੩ਗ਼੶ਞੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਫ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਜ਼੶ਖ਼ਖ਼ਫ਼੶ਖ਼ਫ਼ਫ਼ਖ਼੶ਜ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਖ਼ਖ਼ੑਖ਼੶ਖ਼੶ ૽૱ૢૢૢਗ਼੶ૢૢૻ૱ૻૻ૱૱ૻ૱ૹ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼઽૼ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ <u>ન્નન્ટર્જેન્ટ્રસ્યાલ</u>યા સુસર્ચ પ્રાપ્ત ચન્ટ્ર છે. સેનુ અન્ડ સાસવન્ટ พราสุลามุรามาริรามาลูการาสุลมาดลูสาชารีรารัมา (८:र्ळेश्र'गलिव'८ग' हुग'हुश्र'यवर' બન્ર:અન્ર:ગ્રે)એન્ ह्येंन्रह्म स्वया हुना हुने गुत ह्वेन्गी क भुमान का भाषातृ

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Figure33:Regions of the brain important for theory of mind, or mentalizing: the posterior superior temporal sulcus (pSTS), the temporoparietal junction (TPJ), and the mPFC. The mPFC and TPJ, outlined in red, appear to be the regions that are most specifically activated by mentalizing. Adapted from: http://moodle.unitec.ac.nz/file. php /950/Day_10_Adolescence/blake moreSocialBrainAdolescence2008.pdf

- 3. Report on their own thoughts in response to the question, "How are you feeling right now?"
- 4. Recognize another person's intentions or goals based on their actions.

Imagine situations in which you perform these four tasks in your daily life, and notice how the ability to identify mental states is common to each one. As you think about how often you utilize the neural system that supports theory of mind, can you imagine how such a system would have been evolutionarily adaptive to our human ancestors?



Box 10. IN-DEPTH: WHAT DOES A CHIMPANZEE KNOW OF OTHER MINDS?

How do other animals view the world? Every species is unique in some way. Do human brains work the same as other animal brains, or are there aspects of the human brain that are unique? One way to begin to address this question is to ask whether humans have certain cognitive skills that make them unique. If it is the case that humans have evolved unique cognitive skills, these skills should be absent in our closest living relatives, the chimpanzee and bonobo. If we want to explore human uniqueness, we first have to

formulate hypotheses about the cognitive skills that we think may have evolved in the human lineage, and then we can explore whether chimpanzees or bonobos are capable of these skills. If they are not, then we can presume that the skill evolved in humans after we split from the other great apes. Unless another species independently evolved this skill (which is quite possible), we can also presume that the skill is unique to humans. Because social behavior is so important to humans, scientists often investigate whether there are particular social skills that may be unique to our species, and we will look more specifically at two of those: theory of mind and empathy. As we will see, there are two ways to approach this question. First, we can ask whether humans have a unique ability. Second, we can ask whether the human brain uniquely possesses neural circuits that support such a cognitive skill.

As defined in the text, theory of mind is the ability to attribute a mental state to another or to yourself. Imagine how difficult it would be to teach another person if you could not reflect on their mental states. Notice how important

શ્રેશ્વશ્ચારુવ ગાલવ ગામી શાવદ શારા શ્રે દ્વાપા છે. જે ગાલવ ગાણ કે ગાણ છે. જે ગાલવ ગાણ છે. જે ગાલવ ગાણ છે. જે ગાલવ ગાણ જે ગાલવ ગાણ છે. જે ગાલવ ગાણ જે ગાલવ ગાણ જે ગાલવ છે. જે ગાલવ ગાણ જે ગાલવ છે. જે ગાલવ છે. જે ગાલવ ગાણ જે ગાલવ ગાણ જે ગાલવ છે. જે ગાલવ છે. જે ગાલવ ગાણ જે ગાણ



- ૨) સે સું ગાવત લેવા ગો મુ ર્શે ન ગાવે ગા ગવવા તે આવે છે. સિંદે ગાત સે ન સે વા સે બાવ ગાય છે. સે ન બે આ ન માં છે સે ન બે આ ન માં છે. સે ન બે આ ન માં છે સે ન બે આ ન માં છે. સે ન બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે. સે ન બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે. સે ન બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે. સે ન બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે. સે ન બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે. સે ન બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે. સે ન બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે. સે ન બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે. સે ન બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે. સે ન બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે. સે ન બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે. સે ન બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે. સે ન બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે. સે ન બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે. સે ન બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે. સે ન બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે. સે ન બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે. સે ન બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે. સે ન બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે. સે ન બે આ ન માં આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં છે. સે ન બે આ ન માં છે તે બે આ ન માં આ આ ન માં આ આ ન માં આ ન મ આ ન માં આ બા આ ન માં આ ન માં આ ન માં આ ન માં આ બો આ ન માં આ બો આ ન માં આ ન માં આ બો આ બો આ ન માં આ ગા માં આ ન માં આ ન માં
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- १] गत्रअः भ्रनअः नेरः भे गवितः वेगांगे अग्गवितः इर्ययाण्यः भुः विनः गहिनः यान्यः नुनिः नवितः यरः अक्ष्यः वहेंगा यी आ

รนิรัญ 33 พิมพญลงสุมายฉมาพิมพากการนี้ๆ สูงกอง ^ભાગાભા છે. ભુવ. મુંતુ સુરાય છે. આ છે. આ છે. આ ગામ આ ∄ુ⊐ેર્નેંચ'ગ્રે'સ્ટ્રેન'ઢવે' *त्रःव*न्नःन्नः याद्धंयाः वन्नः श्चेत्यः नविः श्वः র'ণ্র্ব'শ্বুব্'শ্ব্(pSTS) नठर्श्वरेन् ने न्वायश्वर्यन्तन्त्याहुंवायन्त्यः क्रेयायाः के वायाः ᠵ᠆᠋ᢩᠵ᠋᠆᠋ᢩ᠆ᢉ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠆ᠴ᠋᠋᠋ᢋ᠆ᡧᢋᢋ᠋᠆᠄ᡧᢋ᠋ᡜ᠋᠁᠆ᡔᠴ᠋ᢩ᠆᠆᠋ᢋ गहिशाही दर्भा देशावदेत्र अववावेगा द्यार में आवेता पाद गांवे द्यीगाया बेनरूर्ग्सदे सुद रादे रू हिला देवा देता <u></u>ૹૡૹ૾ૣૺ૱ૡઽ૾ૺૻઌૢઌ૱ઌૢૹૡૻ <u>র</u>:র্ন্টশাম'র্ম'নর্ক্তম'শ্র্রীশা'ন্রুমা http://moodle.unitec. ac.nz/file.php/950/Day_10_Adolescence/ blakemoreSocialBrainAdolescence2008.pdf


it is to have a theory of mind if you want to deceive or plan with another person. In fact, we use our theory of mind almost constantly and unconsciously to understand what others see and understand. Do chimpanzees have this ability? This question has been controversial and has not been resolved, but the current opinion is that the answer is both yes and no.



More specifically, a lot of evidence suggests that chimpanzees understand the goals and intentions of others, as well as the

perception and knowledge of others. Look at the photograph to the right, showing two young chimpanzees observing an older chimpanzee using a rock to crack nuts. It is likely that these chimpanzees understand the older chimpanzee's goal as she uses this tool.



However, it appears that there are some limits to a chimpanzee's theory of mind. One of the most complex abilities related to theorizing about others' minds is attributing false beliefs, or knowledge that conflicts with reality. For example, imagine that another chimpanzee snatched the older nut-cracking chimpanzee's nuts when she wasn't looking and hid them in a tree. The younger chimpanzees saw this, but the older chimpanzee does not know that her nuts have been stolen. If you were the younger chimpanzee, attributing a false belief in this case would be for you to know that the older chimpanzee thinks her food

remains where she left it, even though you also know that is not the reality. Chimpanzees are unable to perform this cognitive feat, and in fact, this ability to have a theory of mind appears to occur late in human development, at around the age 4 or 5.



Turning to consider the neural systems that support theory of mind, scientists are clear that the mirror neuron system is important. This leads us to ask: Is the human mirror neuron system unique? One recent study suggests that there



may be unique connections in the human mirror neuron system. Notice in the figure on the right that the human brain (on the right) and the chimpanzee brain (left) appear to share some connections in common (pink arrows), but the human brain appears to have a connection at the top (yellow arrow) that the chimpanzee brain does not have.

Empathy: Similar to theory of mind, evidence suggests that chimpanzees may be capable of something that appears similar to human empathy. One behavior that appears, at least on face value, to be evidence of empathy is consolation. Consolation occurs when one chimpanzee affiliates with another chimpanzee that has recently been the target of aggression from a third chimpanzee, for example, grooming their fur or embracing them in a hug. It is not clear whether the first chimpanzee, the consoler, intends to make the other chimpanzee feel better, but it has been shown to have this effect: animals that receive consolation after a fight show less stress behavior (for example, self-scratching) than animals who do not receive consolation.



श्व^{द्}मी⁻ऄ॔ॸ</sup>ऻ য়ज़য়ऄॖॕॖॸॱमऀॱऄऺয়য়॥ ऄॺয়भेয়दुয়ॱय़ॱॸॖॖॸॱढ़ड़ॱॸॸॱऄॺॱय़॓दॱॾॕॱॠॺয়ॱग़ॱफ़ॸॱऄय़ऀॱॺॶक़ॵॖ॔ॸॱॻऀॱऄग़য়য়ॱज़ॱऒऀॷॖ ग़॔य़॓ॱऄॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖ न्ॱज़ऀऄऀऀऀऀॵॵॶॖख़ॸॱॸग़ॸॱड़ग़ॺॱऄॖॖड़ॱऒऀड़ॏॱऄढ़ॺॵॵॖॱॸॖय़ॸॱड़ग़ॺॵढ़ॱय़ॸॱख़ढ़ॕॸয়ॱ ॺऄॎॵॖॕॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖऀॖॖॖऺॖॖॾॵज़ॏॵऄॎॺॺॸॱफ़ॸॱऄॖऀय़॓ॱऒॸॕक़ॱऄॖॖॾॕॱज़ऀॵॵॵॵॖॱॸय़ॸॱड़ग़ॺॵऀॺऻॏॸॕॸॱक़ॖॖॖॱॸॆॱॸ॓ऻऀ ॴऀॺॵॖॕॖॖॖ॔ज़ॏऄऀग़ॏऄॖ॔ॱॻॏऄऀॱॻऄऀॱॷॕॖऀज़ऀॱॺॸऀॱज़ॖॖॵग़ॸॱॵॱऄऀॱऒॕक़ॱॶऀॾॱऄऀॺॵॵॖॱॸय़ॸॱड़ग़ॺॵॵग़ऻऄॕॸॱक़ॖॖॖॱॸॆॱॸ॓ऻऀॱ ॴॸॱऄॺॺग़ॺॏऀॱग़ऻऄॕॱग़ऄॕॱॻॏऄॕज़ॸऺऀॱज़ॖॵॕॖज़ॱॺॸ॓ॱज़ॖॖऒॺॸॱफ़ॵॱऄऀॱऒॸॕक़ॱऄॖॵॕज़ॱड़ऀॱॶॾॸॱऄॿॱॻॏऄॺॵॵॵॱग़ॏऄॕॱॵढ़ॕॱय़ऄॖख़ॱॸ ऄॖग़ॵॵऒॱॵऄॕॴऄक़ॱॾऀज़ॷॎख़ॖॖॱऄॖॸॱग़ॷॱॶॵॾॕॸॱॻऄॵॾॕॱज़ॿक़ॱऄॵॵॾॵऄक़ॱॾऀॱज़ऀॻॱॵॷॵॾॱॸक़ऀॵॵॾॵॺॵॵॕॱग़ॏऄॕज़ऻऄॕॸॱ ॴॺक़ॱॸ॓ॵॾॵय़॓क़ॱॾऀज़ॷॎक़य़ॱज़य़ऀॱऄॾॵॴऀज़ऻॾॕॱज़ॿऀज़ॱय़ॾऀॱज़ऀय़ॵॵॴॵॶॏॱऒॾॵॴॵॕॱॾॕज़ॵक़ॵक़ॵय़ॵऄॺॵॸॵऄॖॵऄॾॵॾऄॱॵक़ॕक़ॱय़ॕॵ ॷॸॱॼॖॺॱॻॱऄॺॵग़ॵऒॵॾॵज़ॻ॓ॸ॓ॸॵॵॵॾॕज़ॵऄॺॵॼक़ॵॵऀॱॾॕज़ॵॵॴॵऄॾॵज़ॵक़ॵॻॵक़ॵक़ॵॵॵॵॾॵऄॺॵॵॵॵॵॵऄॵॵऄॵऄॵॵक़ॵॾॵॵ









Do humans have unique neural systems that support empathy? Recall at the beginning of this primer that we introduced spindle cells, the large-bodied cells having a single axon and dendrites facing opposite directions that are considered to facilitate rapid communication in large-brained animals. As discussed earlier, these cell bodies are located in a portion of the anterior insula that plays a role in using emotions to guide decision-making, and often are activated by situations that induce empathy. Spindle cells have been found in many species of animals that are both social and large-brained, but it appears that humans have a lot more of them. Does this mean that humans are more likely to empathize? Are they faster to empathize? Are they able to use their ability to empathize to make more complex decisions? These are all questions that face scientists who want to understand what makes humans unique as a species.

The story so far

Pause for a moment to survey our journey through neuroscience so far. The first neuroscience primer considered why nervous systems, particularly brains, evolved to meet an organism's basic need to sense, process, and respond to the world. Because humans rely so much on sight, we focused on the visual system as a good example of how the brain achieves this vital goal. In the process, we learned basic principles for how the brain gathers, organizes, breaks down, integrates, and then applies information. The second primer took a fine grained look at the chemical, physical, and cellular processes by which information is encoded and communicated in the brain. We also saw how the biological principle relating structure and function operates in neuronal diversity and brain structure as well as in feedforward and feedback systems that regulate the body's functions. This basis was applied to better understand how the brain hosts our senses and regulates movement.

In the current primer, we took a wider view and asked how the brain supports the complex richness of human experience. How is it that the movement of ions in particular ways could support the powerfully fearful feeling we have during a dangerous situation? How could neural processes support the love of a mother for her child? The complexity of the topic seems overwhelming, yet we have seen how answers to these and related questions are emerging. As in any other field of inquiry, clearly defining constructs is crucial in neuroscience, as is testing and revising them in the light of new evidence and insights. Accordingly, take a moment to review some of the fundamental terms we have discovered along the way. As you read through, see if you can recall the neural systems that play a role in each.

Emotion: in contrast to a mood, a brief and specific evaluative response to a specific stimulus.

Arousal: the amount of resources, principally in the form of attention and energy, allocated in response to the emotion-eliciting stimulus.

Core affect: a state which signals that a stimulus is positive or negative, helpful or harmful, rewarding or threatening, pleasurable or displeasurable. Ultimately, it is the motivation to pursue or avoid the emotion-eliciting stimulus.

אריאָדין אאאאיאָדיביבאקיעדיאַלןייעליאָטיאָאָקיפֿקיישישישישקיאַטאָליפאיילידאיילידידיאַ אאאיאַדיאַריאן אלאיאיאַדי รุราสุฆาร์นิ:สุฆารราสูุราราพิสุ

वहवानदेषायदाग्री हसामादेग

᠋᠊᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠆ᡪᠴ᠋᠊᠋ᡒ᠊᠋ᢍ᠋᠋ᢋ᠄ᡬ᠋᠋᠋ᡎᡃᡅᢆᡰ᠈᠈ᢓᢆᡆ᠈ᡅᡱᡭ᠈ᢋᠴᢄ᠋ᠴ᠅ᡬᠯ᠅᠋ᢋ᠋᠁ᡷᢧ᠗᠄᠕᠄ᡬᡆ᠋᠋ᡇᢂ᠋ᠴ᠙ᡷᢂᡭ᠈ᢓᢅ᠆᠋ᠴ᠈ᡷᢆ᠋᠋ᡎ᠙ᢓ᠆᠋ᢄ᠅ᢂ᠙᠘ᢓᢆ᠆ᡘᠱᡃ᠌ᡭ᠔ᢋ᠄ᠴ᠆᠋᠆ᢣ ૹૣઽૢૻૻૻૹૻૻૹ૾૱ૡૢ૽ૼૡ૽૽ૼૡ૽ૺ૱૱૱ૡૻ૱ ᠊ᡲ᠋᠋ᢋ*ᠧ*ᢍ᠇ᢌ᠈᠋ᢍ᠈ᠴᡭ᠂᠋᠋᠋ᡎ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᢋ᠋᠉᠈ᢣᢩ᠆ᠵ᠉᠈ᡬᡇ᠋᠋ᡢ᠋᠋ᡎ᠋᠋᠋ᡢᡎ᠋ᡎ᠋᠋᠋ᡎ᠋ᢓ᠆ᡅ᠈ᢩ᠋ᢓ᠆ᠴᡭ *ॻा*ॷड़ॱढ़ॎॏॺऻॱॷख़ॸॱॻॏऄॺऻॱॺख़ॖॕॸॴॱऄऀॺॱॻॱॸढ़ॎॏक़ऻॖॎख़ॾॎज़ॾॵख़ॵक़य़ॱड़ॷख़ॱॾक़ॵॺऻढ़ॺऻॱॸॺऻॱॷॵॺॶॱॷॵॺख़ॱख़ॕॸॱॻऀय़॓ॸ॓ॵक़ॕॺऻॱऄॖॗॕॱॸॱ ५वींशप्य'ते'गवर्राक्वे ने'नवित'तु'र्नर्रेश'नलेर'नहग'न्धन'न्दान'म्भूर'विन'ग्रे'ग्रु'न'क्रश्रश'ग्रद'नगर'हगश'गश्रर'म'क्रेन'य'न्द'हेंगश'श्रर' ॴॺॸॱय़ॱऄॖॖॖॖॖॺॱॻ॑ढ़॓ॱॺॻॕ॒ॺॱॸॖॸॱॸॷॢॺॱॸॖ॓ॱॸॷॣॸॱॸॖॺॕऻॺॱॻॿॸॱॺऻॺॸॱऄॖऻॱऀॖऺॺॱॺॸॱऄॕॺॱॿॡॖॗग़ॱड़ऺॺॱऄॎग़ॱऄॱॸ॓ॸॱॸय़॓ॱॸ॓ॸॱय़ॸऀढ़ॱॿॸॱॻ

ᡊᡲ᠂᠋ᡃᡆ᠋᠋ᢋ᠊᠋ᢍᠲᡃ᠋᠊ᡃᢆᢧᡃ᠆᠄ᢅᢅᢍᡭᠴ᠋ᡪᠴ᠆ᢞ᠊᠋ᢍᠯᢋ᠄ᡭ᠇᠋ᡎᢆᠯ᠙ᠽᢩᡎᠬ᠇᠈᠊᠋᠊ᡆ᠋ᡪ᠆᠋ᡷ᠆᠄ᡭᡆ᠋᠋ᡎ᠄ᡆᡇ᠊᠋᠋ᠴᡚ᠋ᠬ᠄ᢓ᠆ᢣ᠋ᢩᠧ᠋᠁ᡔᢙ᠆᠄ᢖᢧ ૿૾ૡ૽ૺૡૡ૽ૼૼૻૻૼૼૼૻ૱૱ૹૻૹૻ૽૾ૼૼૻૻૹૻ૾ૼૻૻઌૻૻ૾૾ૺઌ૾ૻઌૻ૾ઌૻ૾ઌૻ૾ઌૻ૾ઌૻ૾ઌ૾ૻઌ૽ૻઌ૾ૻૡૻ૽ૺઌૻૡ૽ૻઌૻ૾ૡૻ૽ઌૻૻઌૻ૾ૡૻૻઌૻૻઌૻઌૻઌૻ૽ૡૻ૽ૻ૽ૼૻૻ૱૿ૻૡૻ૽ઌૻૻઌૻ૾ૡૻૻ૽ૻઌૻ૾ૡૻૻઌૻૻઌૻઌૻૻૡ૽ૻૻ૽ૺઌૻ নমমান্দ্রনান্দ্রমার্দ্রিনা ᠵᠵ᠋᠇ᡆᡭ᠋ᢋ᠋᠂ᡪᠵᡎᡪ᠆ᢣᡭ᠄᠋ᢍ᠋᠋ᡎᢂ᠂ᡆᠯᢅ᠆᠂ᡆᢌᢂᡃ᠋ᡃᢧᢄᠮᢆ᠆ᡃᠸ᠄ᢟ᠈᠋᠋ᡎᠵᡃᠵᡄ᠄ᡆᢆ᠋᠃ᡆᢂᢁ᠃᠌ᠽᢩᠳᡎ᠋ᢩᢐᢁ᠋᠆ᠵ᠋᠋᠆᠋ᡝᠴᡭᡆᡪ᠊ᠧᡃᠺᡃᢩ᠕᠉᠄ᢋᠵ᠉᠋᠉᠄ᠼᢂᢂ᠉᠃ ૹૢઽૹ[੶]ૡ૽૿ૼૼૼૼૼૡ૽ૢ૽ૼૢૼૻઌૡ૾ૺૹઽૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૻૻૢૹૣૻઌ૽ૻૡૼૼૻૹૻૡૡૻૻૡૻઌૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡૼૻૢૡૻ૽ૡૻ૽ૡૼૻૡૻ૽ૡૡૻ૱ૡૻ૽ૼૡૼૻૡ૾૾ૡૻૻૡ૾ૻૡૻૻૡૼૻૡ૽ૼૡૻ ૱ૹૡ૾ૻૼૼૼૼૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૹૡૻૡ૽ૼૺ૾ૺૹ૾ૢ૾ૺૢૻઌઌૻ૾ૢૼ૾ૹૣૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૹૡૻૻૡૻૹ૾૾ૡૻૹ૱ૹૡૡૡૡૡૻૹ૱ૡૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૼૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡ

หา๊יฯקיבריฏิישָּקריחָקאן

ᠴᡧ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡆ᠋᠋᠃ᡦᡎ᠋᠋᠋ᠴ᠋᠋ᡎ᠆ᠴᢆᠯᢂ᠂ᡆ᠍᠍ᢅᢣ᠉ᡷᢋᡃᡇᢆᢂ᠂ᡆᡬᢅ᠆᠂ᠮᡭ᠆ᢣᡭ᠄᠊᠋ᢍ᠋ᢋ᠄ᡬ᠋᠋᠋ᡎ᠆ᡘᡃᠼᢂ᠉᠒᠋᠂ᠺᡜ᠆ᡘᡭ᠄ᢓ᠂ᠴ᠂ᡬ᠂ᡐ᠋ᠴ᠄ᡬ᠆᠋

૽૿૽૽ૺૺૼઽ૽ૺઌૣૻૹ૾ઌ૾૾ઌૻૻૹૢ૽ૺૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૻૹૼૹ૱ૡ૽ૺ૱ૻૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૻઌ૽૿૱ૡ૽ૻ૱ૡૻ૱ૡૻૢ૱ૻઌ૾૽૱૱૱ૡૻ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ ๚ูสาฏิ :ฮาลู๚าลิๆ เราศ์สาพีราชิรา ฮาลู๚าริมามิผมของราวิรามีรามิรายรายที่สังหายๆ ๆชีรามาการฐมาผู้สามิราบิ พีรารารา ๆ ๆสมามกมามรารัรามหมา ฉริ่งเมิสุมมาขามหมายี่ราทิามิมมาผู้ามานี้ราวางอีสารเพิ่สาสม มิเสมมาปิมามหมายี่ราทิามิมมาผู้ราวรารผู้ราราชมิสาสม มิเสมมาปิมารราทิามหมา **Appraisal:** an evaluation of the eliciting stimulus with respect to its meaning and consequence.

Salience: a stimulus that sticks out and grabs our attention, likely due to its importance for our well-being.

Interoception: the feeling of the state or condition of all of the tissues of the body.

Consolidation: processes that stabilize or strengthen a memory trace into a long-term memory.

Simulation: activation of a set of neural systems in response to another organism's actions or emotions that is also active when performing or experiencing those actions or emotions.

Empathy: understanding what another person is feeling based in part on taking on the feelings of another.

Mentalizing/Theory of Mind: the attribution of beliefs, desires, knowledge, and emotions to others or to oneself, even if those mental states are discordant with reality or to one's own mental states.

The cycle of inquiry: knowledge, questions, research

Often, the more we know, the more questions we have, and you probably have more questions now than you did when you started reading this primer. If so, you are in good company with other scientists who study emotions. Here are some of the questions that are at the forefront of research on the neuroscience of emotion and memory right now:

- 1. Do individual emotions have distinctive signature brain states? For example, is the emotion sad always associated with the same pattern of brain activity, and is it distinctly different from the emotion anger?
- 2. How do development and aging affect the neurobiology of memory? Do children encode and consolidate memory the same way as adults?
- 3. How do we first learn and remember classes or categories? For example, how do we come to know what a dog is?
- 4. What does forgetting look like in the brain?
- 5. Is there such a thing as too much empathy? What would it mean to take on the suffering of everyone that you meet?
- 6. How do displays of emotion help us understand another's mental states?
- 7. Does the neurobiology supporting empathy differ from that supporting compassion? If so, how?

What questions and thoughts have arisen for you as you read about the neurobiology of emotion, memory, and social connections? Use the space below to write down your questions or ideas. Then spend a few minutes thinking about experiments – either thought experiments or actual experiments using methodologies that you have learned about – that you might carry out in order to address your questions.

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विगागभवारु प्योनिमरा हु हे। ने नगवी

רב זאיים אין אָלאַשאון אַראַט אָראַ אַראַ אַראַ

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नहन'छेन'छ'न। इन्यये'हेर्थ'भुय'विगास्त्र वहें द्वर्य यथे हें र्येन'क्रुर'छेन'न्य खायहन'छेन'यथे क्रुन'रेथ'ने 'थ'(इन'य')यहन'छेन'छन'छेन'छेन'

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Yet more questions

Here we have presented the Western scientific understanding of emotion, but we end our discussion by making room for other ideas. First, note the evidence that arousal, salience detection, and fear conditioning are evolutionarily adaptive, leading to a view of emotions as adaptive and beneficial to the organism. Westerners generally characterize emotion, even negative emotions such as fear and anger, as something that has a purpose. Taking this idea to an extreme, many Westerners believe that if anger and aggression are not expressed every now and then, a person's emotions will boil over, often in ways that are inappropriate. Some have suggested that the purpose of sport and art are to act as outlets or conduits for negative emotions.

But is this the case? Fear and anger may have adaptive value that allowed organisms to survive during evolutionary history, but would a person be better off if they removed all fear and anger? Could a person train their mind to respond to a poisonous snake quickly, but not fearfully? Would a person be able to respond appropriately to stimuli if he or she were free from anger or fear? Or, would these emotions eventually express themselves, unable to be contained? Are



fear memories adaptive? If scientists could create a drug that interfered with fear conditioning, would people be the better for it? These are questions about which most scientists have intuitions, but if pressed, they likely would not be able to cite definitive proof to support their intuition.

How might someone trained in a Tibetan Buddhist tradition answer these questions, and what would serve as their supporting evidence? Is 'emotion' thought of as a relatively short-lived response, or is it rather thought of as something that conditions the mind and leads to states, or ways, of being? What are the grounds for distinguishing the relative benefits of emotions with positive and negative valence?

The next primer will offer more insight into this topic, stepping back yet further to examine the neural systems that regulate long-term states such as sleep and arousal. Stress and the autonomic nervous system will be examined in more detail. And we will return to the question of what the brain does "at rest", going on to ask whether individuals differ in resting brain states in ways that affect mood and well-being. Understanding these topics will require, again, both a detailed look at synaptic and neuronal processes as well as a more global understanding of the ways in which systems in the brain are wired and interacting among themselves. More than we have thus far, we will take a "whole-body" approach by examining how the brain and body work together. Such an approach is vital for understanding how organisms respond most effectively to the environment that is around them and within them.

ᠵ᠆ᢣ᠉᠆ᡪ᠋᠊᠋᠋ᢌ᠉᠋᠊᠋ᡢᢆᡲ᠉᠙ᡃᢋᡆ᠋᠅ᠼᢩᠣᡘᡬᡄ᠂ᠴᡠ᠈᠇᠋ᠯ᠋ᡵᢂ᠈ᠴᠴ᠆ᡪ᠊᠋᠋᠋ᡎ᠉᠄ᢣᢩᠵᠺ᠉᠄ᡘᢟᢋᡃ᠍ᢓ᠆᠄ᢣᡭ᠂ᡪᠴᠵ᠇᠋᠋ᡎᢩ᠍ᢋᠬᢂ᠈ᢂ᠙ᡆ᠋᠋᠉ᢅᢔᡘ᠂ᢁᡃᢙᠴ᠆ᡪᢄᢧᢅ᠆ᢃᠳ᠋ᡃ᠍᠍᠁ র্ঝঝর্মন্দ্রন্থ ૹૢૹ[ૢ]ૡૹૻૻ૽૽ૼ૿ૡૢૻૣૠૻઙ૽ૺૢૻૻૡૢૼૡૻૡ૽ૻ૽૾ૢૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡ૽ૡૺૺૼૼૠૻઙ૽ૺૢૻૻૡૡૻૡૻૡૡૻઌૻૡૹૻઌૻૢૡૡૹૻઌૡૻૡૡ૾ૡૡૡૻૡૡૡૡૡ૽ૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡ

શું જ્વંતરફળશાં વારસાદેશાં આયાં છે શેયયા છેંતરાવે યાત્રા સાથયાં સાથયા સાથયા વારતા સાથયા વારતા છે. જે આ પ્રાંત સાથયા છે સ્થાય સાથયા સાથયા સાથયા છે. સુવ

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र्वेवरग्रमने ख्रमण्डेवर क्रु मेन न्या व्हेषाय ख्रम्पन मिन हि गहिश्रायानश्चुत्राद्युरायीः रेत्राव्ररायेन्गरानहेत्रत्रश्राययेया শান্ম'দি' ৽ৼ৾ৼঀয়৽য়ৢৼৼঀৼ৾ঀ৾য়৾ৼ৾ঀ৾৾য়৾ঀ৾য়য়ঢ়য়ড়য়য়৾ঀৼয়য়য়য়৾য়৾ નન્ના સે નેં ને મને નય ગામ મન્યુ કેંવાય છે નમ બાદ્ય મેં ન મા <u>ૡૢ</u>ૢૢਗ਼੶ઌૢઽઽૢ૽ૺૣૻઽૡ૽૾ૣ૽ઌૣૹૻૹૣઽૻ૱ૺૢૻઽઌ૽૽ૼઽ૽ૹ૽ૣૼૼૻૡૹૻૻઌૻૻૡૡૼૹૄૢ૱ૹૻૺ૱ૻ aहिनाश्वाञ्चरायश्वानहत्तुं र्वेयातन्त्ररादेशयदोयार्थेन् भ्राया

૿૾ૺૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૹૻૻૡ૾ૻૹ૾ૻૡૼૡૻૡ૽ૼૡૻ૽ૼૡૼૻૢૣૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૡૺૡૢૡૻૡ૽ૡૢૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૢૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽૿ૢૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽૿ૢૻૡૻૻૡૢૻ૱ૡ૽ૻૢૡૼૡૡૣૻૡ૽ૻ૽૽ૺ૿૾ૡૻૼૼૡૣ

ૹૢ૽ૺઽૻઌૡ૾ૺૹ૾ૣૢૼૼૡૹઽૢ૾ૢૡ૾ઽૹ૾ઌ૽ૢ૽ૺૹ૾૽ૼૹૹૣઽૻૡ૾૾ૺૹૢૡૢઌૻઌૹૣઽ૱ૢૢૼ૿ઌ૾ૡૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡ૾ૡૺૡૢૻૹ૱ૡ૾ૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡ નરુશાવા વરે 'દ્રવા વસેવા વશુ મારી કુંદ્ર 'દેશ' શિંદ 'વસૂર વશુ મારે દુંદ્ર 'વશુ મારે 'સુંવય છે' દ્વારા કેવા શાં છે 'દ્વારા કેવા શાં છે' દ્વારા કેવા શાં દુંદ્વ શાં છે 'દ્વારા છે' દ્વારા છે 'દ્વારા છે 'દ્વારા છે' દ્વારા છે 'દ્વારા છે' દ્વારા છે 'દ્વારા છે' દ્વારા છે 'દ્વારા છે' દ્વારા છે 'દ્વારા છે 'દ્વારા છે' દ્વારા છે 'દ્વારા છે 'દ્વારા છે' દ્વારા છે 'દ્વારા છે 'દ્વારા છે' દ્વારા છે 'દ ૿ૡૺૼૼૣૻૹૣૢૣૣૺૹૻૢૺૡૼ૱ૢ૽ૺૼૢૺૼૻઌ૽ૻ૱ૡૹૻ૾૱ૡ૾ૢૻૡૻઌૡૢૻૣૣૢૣૻૻૡ૽ૢૺૼૢઌ૽૿ૢ૽ૻ૾ઌ૾ૻૼૢૻઌઽૻ૱૱ૢૺ૾૽૽૾ૢૺૻૼૻ૾૱૱ૡૻૹ૽૾ૢૺૻૢઽૼૻૼ૱ઽ૽ૺૼૼ૱૱૱ૡૡૼૡ૽૿ૡ૽ૻૡ૾ૡૼૡ૽૿ૡ૽૿ૡ૽૿ૡ યરે રેની વુરાર્સેનાય મહે. શુે મારાદા ના બાજરાતી છે. સંસાય વાય કે મું સાથ મું સાથ મું સાથ મું સાથ સાથ સાથ સાથ સ

Imagine

Notice one last point as you finish reading this primer. We began by trying to understand processes - emotion and memory - that appear to be wholly internal. Yet we ended by talking about simulation as a foundational process for understanding others' emotions and mental states. Simulation, moreover, is not reserved for social connections; rather, we use it all the time as we remember, think, and plan. You used simulation throughout the reading of this primer in order to imagine the snake scenario and to understand the topics presented here. In reading Primer II, you simulated the movement of ions through the brain to understand action potentials, and neuroscientists have discovered that we activate motor systems in the brain to understand physical concepts such as this one. You also simulated the pathways and conceptual models presented here, and perhaps experiences you have had in the past, to test out theories of emotion, and your limbic system was likely activated as you "tried on" emotions during our thought experiments.

Science also relies on simulation as we think of seemingly mundane objects in new ways, just another instance of the capacity for imagination that permits us to think of and experience worlds of possibility outside our skins. Any time you begin a thought with the phrase "I wonder how...", it is likely that your next thoughts will rely on simulation. With this in mind, watch how you use simulation when you leave this text and go about your day. ฿๎ๅ๖ฏิ๙เรีๆเล๛าเฉๅิเลรเดิๆเฏิาเราเ

ઽૻૹ૾ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૹૻૹ૾ૹૻૹૼૢૻૼૼૻૡૢૻૻૡૻૡૢૻૡૢૻૡૢૻૡૻ૾ૼૼૻૡૢૼૹ૾ૣૼૼૼૼૼૼઌૢૻૡૻૻૡૼૹૡૻૡૻૡ૽૿ૡ૽૽ૺૡૻૻૡ૾ૻૡૻૻૡૻૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡ મંવે કેવા ત્રશાવર્વી ગ જીયશાળા વેંત્ર ગ્રાટ અથર દાર્છે શાવતા કુટ શે એય શાંદે દાટ દાય શોગ વત્ર શાવા કુશાવેંત્ર ૽૱ૺૢૻૻઌૻૻૻૻૹૡૢૼઽૹૻૻઌઙ૾ૼૹૻ૱ઌૻૡ૾ઽ૽ૺૹ૾ૺૢૻૹઽૻઌૡ૽ૺૡ૽ૺૡ૽૱ૢૺૼૢૻઽ૽ૼૹઌ૿ૡ૽ૡૼૡૢૼૡૻૹ૽ૣૺઽૻઌૡ૾ૺૹૻૣૼૼૡૹૻઌઌૡૻૻ૾ૹ૾ૺૡૻૡ૾૾ૢૡૻૡ૽ૼૺૡ૾ૡ૽ૼઌ ૹૡૢ૾ઽૹૻઌઙ૾ૼૹૻ૽૱ૢૻઌ૽ૻૡ૽૾ૺઽૻૹ૾૽ૼૹૻૹ૾ૻઌૹૻૡ૽૾ૡ૽ૺૡ૽ૡ૽ૡૡઌૡૻૡ૽ૼૡૻ૱ૻૹૢૢ૾ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૻૢૡૻૡ૽૾ૡ૽ૺઌૻૹ૾ૡૻઌઽૣૻ૾૾૾ૡ૽૾ૡૻ૾૱ૹ૱ૻૣ૽ૼઌ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼ ઽૺૼૢૻૐૹૻઌૹૣઌૹૻૻૹ૽ૡ૽ૺઌૹૹૻૹૣ૾ૺૡ૾ૺઌૡૢਗ਼ૢૻૡઙૡૻૡ૽ૻઌ૽૿ૡ૽ૻઌ૽૿ૡ૽ૻઌ૽ૻઌ૽૿ૡૻ૽ૡ૽ૻૡ૾ૻૡૻ૽ૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡૻૻૡ૾ૻૡૻૻૡ૾ૻૡૻૻૡ૾ૻૡૻૻૡ૽ૻૡૻ พราธิ์ราข้ามรณาผ์จัรเมาเอาๆานายรามูณาริกมาพรารา

Active	भ्रेतप्परपर वर्षेत्र या सुर यें। सुर यें।	
Alcohol	અવ્યર્ગો ર્કેવા ફોંચા ટ્ રથા	
Amphetamine (amphet)	બેચ'સે'ત્ર'ચેંત્ર'ફોંચ'ટ્ટચા (બેચ'લેત્ર'ફોંચ'ટ્ટચા)	
Amygdala	ायत्रा ³ रेगा ग्रान हो।	
Anterior insula (AI)	યન્વ ચલે ગ્લેન્સન	
Anterior thalamus	સનુવ દેશ છે. સાન સુયા	
Appraisal	53:25	
Arousal	NT XT	
Artificial rewards	નર્કેશ સાવે કે નું ન	
Basolateral Amygdala	ૡૺ૱ૢૡઌૹૻૡૹ૾૱૾ૻૹ૱ૡૼ	
Biologically determined	શું નર્દેશ વાત્ર શુવાય છે શાળા ત્ર ભાગવા છે છે.	
Biologist	क्रोन्द्र रूपि प्राप्त निर्णय क्रोन्द्र रूपि प्राप्त निर्णय	
Bipolar projections	৾৾ৡ৾৾৽য়৾৾৾ঀ৾৵৽ৼৄয়৾৾৽য়৾৾ঀ৾৾৾৾য়৾৾য়৾য়য়য়৾৾য়৾৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়	
Blood flow	মিশ ক্রুবা	
Blood Oxygenation Level Dependent (BOLD) ह्रया ये के किंग्सू राजन या के राजे के किंग्सू राज		
Brainstem	यन'वन्रेश यन' ग न'	
CA1 layer	N. 1. 2 22	
Cannon-Bard Theory	गो र्वे व न न न न न न न न न न न न न न न न न न	
Carbon	<u>শিশং</u> র্শ্বিবা	
Case studies	ૡઽૢઽૡ૽ૡ૽૾ૡૢ૽ઽૻઽૢૻૹૣૢૣૣૣૣૣૣૣૢઌ [ૣ] ૡ૽૾ઽ૱૽ૢૺૡ૽૽ઌ૱૱	
Central Amygdala	ાયસ [.] રું માં સૂર્ન રહેતે. કે કિંતા	
Central nucleus	<u>ક્</u> રે/સવ્ય:ર્સેંચર્ચ.સુ	
Cerebellum	यान् 'हेन्'	
Cervical nerves	અદ્દેત્ર પ્રતે 'તૃત્રત્ર' સ્થિ	
Cingulate cortex	ૡ૾૽ૢ૾ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૹ૽ૡૻૡૻૡૻૡૡૻ	
Cingulate gyrus	ૡૹ૽૾ૡઙૹ૾ૻૡ૽ૻ	
Clinical psychologist	गर्थे न्युन् सेवर्यानवर्ष देया या ना	
Cocaine	मिं मित्रा	
Conceptualization	$\tilde{\mathfrak{F}}^{\operatorname{anightar}}$	
Conditioned reflexes	ૠૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૻ૱૱૱૱ૡ૽ૡ	
Conditioned stimulus	ૡ૽ૼૼ૱ૹૻૡ૽ૼ૱ૹૠૡ૽ૺૹૢૡૻૹ૽ૢ૾ૡ	
Congenitally blind	JENNIAT	
Conscious mental events	ૡૺૹૻૹ૾ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼઽૻૢઽૻૻૻ૱ૹૻૻૹ૽ૡ૽ૺૹ૽ૺૹ૱ૻ૽ૹ૽ૺૢ૱ૢૻૹૢૡૹ	
Consolidation	नहनः हेन: ह: न	
Constrict airways	^{કુ} દ.તાલા તાલલા કેટી	
Constrict pupils	૱ૼૡૻ૽૽ૼૡૻ૽ૢૡૻૻૹૻૺૡૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૠૼૡૡૢૼૹٳ	
Cooperation	য়য়ৢয়য়৾য়৾য়৾য়ৢ৾৾৴য়	
Co-opting	ૡૻ૱ૼૹ૾ૄૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼ૱૱	
Core affect of an emotion	ઐચ [્] સો દુંદ: લિવા વી રહેં ર : સુવ	

Core affect	र्केन्द्रभुवा	
Cortex		
Cranial nerves	म् रिजे । बेर्ने रेजे रेनेन्र इ.सिन	
Default mode	र्शेन्द्र माहरू स्व	
Dendritic spine	यम् खेद उत्पत्र न	
Dentate gyrus	র্মান্ট্রনগারী ক্রা	
Diamagnetic	শিশ প্রেন্ : নন : নরির : তরা	
Dopaminergic action	ર્ને ગાંચે તે ને	
Dorsal striatum	भेरःगे:/च्रनःग्रे:भूव भेरःगे:/च्रनःग्रे:भूव	
Dorsolateral cortex	२ मि जाविनार्थः योगार्थः यानः स्तुता	
Drugs of abuse	ર્શું શરી મુંદ્ર મું મુંદ્ર મું મું મુંદ્ર મુંદ્ર મુંદ્ર મુંદ્ર મુંદ્ર મુંદ્ર મું	
Embarrassment		
Emotion induction	ર્ચેશ્વર્ગ શેંદ્ર 'સુવ' સુવ	
Emotional contagion	એચરુ: શુંદ્ર વર્ષે [દુન] એઝરુ: શુંદ્ર વર્ષે ગુંબેરું	
Emotional facial expressions	એચરુ: શુંદર્: દુ: બાંચવે: વાર્ને દર્: તે આ ફુંચા બનું ટ્રા	
Emotional memory	શેશ્વશ્વ શેંદ્ર કર્ત્વ શેંદ્ર દેવ સાં	
Emotions v/s moods v/s traits	શેશ્વર્ય શેંદના વિશ્વ નુસ્વર્થ	
Empathy	ચણ્ર્સ હેંદ્ર ગે એસગ	
Entorhinal cortex	वरःश्वदेः यारः भुव	
Episodic Memory (events, experiences)	ગુર મલે કરૂ માં (ગુર મ દર્સે માં સ્વેગ્સ્ય)	
Evaluation	शुर्भे प्रेने न मे रेत मा रेत मा रेत मा रेत मे र	
Evaluative response	र्रेत्राव्रमायम् विष्णायम्	
Evolutionary advantage	ૡૡ૽ૡઃૡૹૄૢૢૢૣૣૣૣૣૣૣૻૻૡૣૡ૽ૡૡૺૡ૽ૡૡ	
Experimental design	ન ક ના'નર્સન'શે'નર્ગોન'ના	
Explicit Memory (conscious)	૬૨૮૨૮૨૮૨૨ સર્દેવ વ્યયત્ર સ્વાયત્ર (બેશ્ર ર્સેસ્ટર્ન્ડ વ્યરુશ)	
Face-selective neurons	รั ^เ ฑุรีร [ุ] เฉริมม _ี นนี้เราระสายสู่ยุม	
Facial muscle	য়৾৾ৼ৾৾৾ৼ৾৾৽ঀ৾য়ঀ৾৾য়ঀ	
Fear conditioning	વ્ટ્વીચ પ્ર ેવ વ્યુચ ત્ર	
Fear-potentiated startle (FPS)	ૡૺૣ૾ઌૢૢૢૢૢૣૣઌૻઌૹૣૢૻઽ૱ૡૣ૾ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼઌૻ	
"Fight or flight"	"ฉุรุลาวลาฉุริสุพ" "ฉุรุลาวอุลาจุริพาวาทุการูก"	
Fluorodeoxyglucose (FDG)	ઙ [ૢ] ૡૻૼૻૼૼૼૻૼ૾ૺૡ૾ૻૼૼૼૼૼૼૼ૽ૻૹ૾૾ૼૡૢૻૻૹૢૻૡૢૻૻૹઽૻૻ <i>ૻૻૺૼૼૼૻ</i>	
Fornix	ગલુ ન્વીનચ કર્યુ શ્રા ગલુ છતા	
Frontal eye field	ચનુ ન દેશ છે સે માં બચા	
Frontal lobe	શ્વ રુવ પ્લ ગ	
Fronto-insular cortex (FI)	શ્ર-ત્વ સાવે જોત- ભુવા	
Functional imaging	डेन प्रमायमा मार्ग प्रमे न राग	
Functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) બહારાયું વાય		
Gallbladder	NANATI	
Gamma photons (High energy particles)	જ્ઞુઆવેં મુખ્ય (તુચાય છે ગવે મુખ્ય મેળાચા)	

Gamma rays Genetically programmed Glutamate receptor Glutamate Glutamatergic cells Granule cells Gray matter Heartbeat Hemoglobin **Hippocampus** Human Mirror Neural System Human trait Hydrogen Hypothalamus Imagination Implicit Memory (unconscious) Inferior frontal gyrus (IFG) Inhibit activity of intestines Inhibit activity of stomach Inhibit salivation Insula (insular lobe, insular cortex) Interior parietal lobe Interoception Intestines Intra-parietal sulcus Isotope James-Lange Theory Lateral central nucleus (CeL) Lateral parietal Lateral sulcus Long-term Memory (lifetime) Long-term potentiation (LTP) Lumbar nerves Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) Mammillothalamic tract Medial central nucleus (CeM) Medial Prefrontal Cortex (mPFC) Mentalizing/Theory of Mind Mesolimbic dopamine system

ন্থ্র'ম'র্দ্রিনা ક્ષુ ભુ ત સે ક્રે ખેત ગા ગુ સુર જે ચિ સુ સ સ સે જે ક્ષુ ભુ ૨ સે મર્ગે ભ મધે સુ સુ - ' <u> ৰ</u>ুমাৰ্ম্বজ্জন্মস্থন্য ¥.€√I ૹૢૣ૾ૺઽૻ૽૽ૼ૽૾ૡૹ૱૽ૹૄ૾ઽૻ দ্রন্য'নঝ্র-শ্রি'ন্থঝ্য ચર્જે દુ:મા মনি:দ্রিদ্র'যাক্ষিমা ⁴⁴5.⁴2.1 শ্বন্ স্থ্রনা র্বনা আ हिंगापकम्। पकम्'श्वम्' नकुन्द्र सर्देव सेन्द्र भा (लेस केंन्द्र से खुव भा) અર્ત્વ શે ત્રે સુર વેંગાય કુ અવે ગુ વગુ વા વા વગે વા રે આ ૡૢૻૼ નવે ગુ વગુ વગુ વગે વગે સું આ ุ่มธิญามาต่าโการ์โม দ্বীন প্রবা (দ্বীন প্রবাদন নামা) শার্ত্তশান্দ্রদার্দামা ৰন:ঠিঁনা ক্ৰু'মা প্রশাবন স্লান গুলা মন্তরাশার্শা স্তি হিশা য়ৡ৾য়৽ঽৢৢয়ৼ৾য়ৣ৾৽য়৾৾ঀ৾য়য়ৼ৾য় শর্কিশশুশী শ্লুন প্রথা सुतार्क्सताइताम (केंग्गमार्मा) अन्त्रिय्यस्य स्वयः [मनायोदासक्सायन्तरामरायोदा] (मनायोदार्श्वेगान्मरा) র্'শার্গাঝ'স্লদ'শ্রশ'শ্র্রিঝ'অমা (વસાર્કે ગા સુર લેવે) ક્ષે સુવા શું ર શું વા જ พกสาयราสามารสาญิราญิณาสนิามาราชุสุ ลิลสาวารุรัญญ /ลิลสาวิสารา <u>સવલવર્ષે સ</u>ત્ર છેલા ગ્રુટ છે ટેંગ્લ એક સાવવા

Middle prefrontal cortex Middle temporal Mirror neurons Mirror simulation Monoamine neurotransmitters Monoamine transporters Monoamines Mood Mossy fiber Motivation Motor cortex Natural rewards Negative stimuli trigger avoidance Neural systems Neurobiology of memory Neurobiology Neurochemistry of emotion Neuroendocrine bases Neuroscience of compassion Non-congenitally blind Non-core expressions Nucleus accumbens Occipital lobe One 3D volume Orbitofrontal cortex (OFC) Oxygen molecule Oxygen Oxygenated and deoxygenated **Oxytocin Receptor** Oxytocin Parahippocampal gyrus **Paralympics** Paramagnetic Parasympathetic nerve Parietal lobe Pathology Periaqueductal gray matter Physiologist Positron Emission Tomography (PET) À'र्येन्द्रन्त्रन्द्र⁻स्च'ग्रनुगुरु। *ล*้าสัรารราช_ีตาฏิเลฮุรุพาจจิ้พาฏา ^เพาสิสา<u>ส</u>รายสามี รากราชาวะมีสาม ષાસેવ મુદ્ર પ્રુવ দ্রিপ্রথা র্র্যাপিন:স্তার্ক্তুম্থা শ্ধুন্ম-পূব্যুম্মা ন্থাম্য স্ক্রি স্ক্রন্য প্রবা ર્ત્ત સુત્ર ક્ષેત્ર ગ <u>พู</u>ณ ภูส รส จรา ๆ พี่ ณ ลา พ ন্নন্দারুবাঝাঝাঝা <u>ક્</u>ત્રપાદ્યમાં સુધાર્ય સંસ્થાય સાથે સુધાર્ય સુધાર સુધાર્ય સુધા સુધાર્ય नगर इते क्रे नर्रे भ रेगा मा नगर इते क्रे नर्रे भ गाम भ खुगा था ઐચ[&]ર્શેદ⁻ ગૈ'દ્વર્નર સંવે'<u>ફ</u>્ય સું ર ગઠ્ય બુગયા नगराङानरावराक्षेवासम्पर्धाः हेवागवी <u>ૹૣ</u>ૺૹ:ૢૢૢૢૹૻૹ૾ਗ਼ૢૡઽૢૺૹઽૡૢૹૻૼૼૢૡૻૼૼૢૡ૱૱ૡ૽ हे.वन्त्र श्रुं मेला প্লুমা'দ্দেনা মনাস্থ্রন:শ্বন্দ্রন্ ૡૹ૽૾ૼૼૼ૾૱ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૻૡ૱ૢૢૢૡ૱ૢૢૢ ୵ୖୖୖୖୖ୕ଶ୍ୱ୍ୟୁମ୍ବା *ૡ*ୖୖୖଈୄୢୠ୵ୄୢଌୠ୕୳୳ୄ୕୵୵୳ୡୖୖୖଌୄ_ୖୠ୵ୖଈୄ୲ୢଌୠ୕୳ୄ୲ क्षेंग भेर्ते भेत क्रे मेतरा भेगा भेर ते भेव (सेव हरू) ผสังสามนิเพลนเนนี้รายิเล่าสูา हे नवे के हेना [मन'द्रेबे रूट'न दिवा *हे*'नदे'गठेश'र्ळेन्-'ननन्'हा শার্ভ্রনা'ন্দ্রনা वनःग्रे क्रम्भ क्रिंग वन नहमारेमामा র্মানমর্মা হিন্যা দা দা

क्त न देश पकेन मग सन भुवा Posterior cingulate cortex # ન મેં આ છે સે મ જ તે સ ત્વન ગ સન સવા Posterior superior temporal sulcus (pSTS) તૃશ્વ સુવા શું છું તુરા તુશ્વ વર્દે તુલા શુ Potentiating નગીવાજીવાઅનુવાગીજીવા Precentral sulcus *भें कें र हे र भ* Precess ચર્વ વન્ન ચર્વ શે સૂન બુવ Prefrontal cortex (PFC) વ્યાવા ર્ગ્નેન સ્વ સેય સુન બુના Premotor cortex (PMC) ๚ดิ์:ฉิ่ม รุษิ:ชิรายาวรราวระวิมารุษิ:ชิรายา Primary appraisal and secondary appraisal ગવિ મેસ મું એ સમ હું ના **Primary emotions** শনস্ট্রার্যস্থন্য Purkinje cell Pyramidal cells মি'ম'মিল'শ্বাস্থ্যমা দার্চিম'দার্বাশ'শ্বাস্থ্যমা <u>क्र</u>ूप्येव ग्रे श्रूप्य पद्वि ग्रुग Radio control Radio frequency pulses <u>૱</u>ઽ੶ૡૹ૾૱૽ૣૢૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૹૻૻઙ૽ૢૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૻ૽૽ૢ૾ૺૡૡઽૻૡૼ ૡૹ૽ૢ૽ૢઽૡૼૹૻૣૺૡ૿૽ૻઽઽૻૻ૱ૡ૽ૺ૱ૹ૽ૢ૽ૺ૽ૺૢ૽ૺૼ૽ૢ૽ૼ૱ૹૡ૱ Radioactive tracer त्र्योन् प्रदेवि अद्यगात्र अ हा ह शा Radioisotope નમ્નર લેન ન્દ્રો ર્ટેના નમ્નર ગરેના Reappraisal Red blood cell দ্রন্যা:ধ্রুমান্বমন্র্যা କ୍ଷ୍ୟୁ-ଅର୍କ୍ଷ୍ୟୁ-ଅର୍କ୍ୟର୍କ୍ଷ Relax airways "দথান্দার্থীঝারঝারঝাওচ্বানা" "Rest and digest Resting state দন্মান্যর্থিয়োরঝাননমা দথা বার্থী সালমির্বা শা Resting Reticular Activating System (RAS) ચઽ'તુેઽ'રુ'ઽ'ચ'વવ Reward prediction error *ୖୄୠ*୵୳ୖୄ୬୕୶୵୳୩'୶ୄୠ୶୲୶୲ Sacral nerves Salience network ঝর্নির্ন্নি-রে:র্ক্রিশাঝা এর্ম দিনা মর্দির দিনা Salience Salient stimuli ચર્નેનર્'નેન્'ૠ઼ૣ૾ૣૣૣૣૣૣૣૣૣૣૣૣૣૡૢૢૺૡૢ भेगालरार्ट्र भेराझरागहेशा मुदा सेंदागी स्वयागवग Schachter-Singer Theory এক্টন'দৰ্শীৰা Secrete Semantic memory (facts) নহার্নরার্যা (নর্নিমান্তুনা) Sensory gating รุจราจราสูาจะจัญาฏาญ Short-term Memory खुनःवहेंबःइबःग ุ่มสู่รุ่งเวอิ์งเว็เป Simulation Sinus cavity শ্বুনি'ন্যুন্ম'শা স্তম্যন্দর্শ্বেমার্থায় প্রথা Skills and habits ર્જેનમાંવરોવાયેમયાવર્જનાવણ્યાં સ્ટ્રેંગ (SAD ર્જેનમાંવરોવાયજનાર્ સ્ટ્રેંગ) Social anxiety disorder (SAD) Social neuroscience ર્કે નાશ્રાવસે નાશ્રાજ્ય જો Spatial resolution Spindle cell ধ্বদ্যস্থাস্থ্যদ্য

ਤਿਉਂਕਾਂਕੇਂਨਾਂਸਕਾਬੂਨਾਂ ਉਂਬਾਬ੍ਹਨਾਂ ਕਵੇਂਨਾ

Startle response Startling stimulus Stimulate activity of stomach Stimulate saliva Stomach Stressor Striatum Subiculum Subnucleus of the amygdala Substantia nigra Sympathetic nerve **Temporal** lobe **Temporal resolution** Tendon Thoracic nerve Two-factor theory of emotion Unconscious mental events Universal emotions Valence of an emotion Vasopressin Receptor Ventral striatum Ventral tegmental area (VTA) Ventrolateral cortex White matter Working memory

वर्द्देगावर्गेविष्णलवा पर्देग'दर्गे'र्श्चेन'नदे'श्चव'र्मुव ผู้ ราวิ เวา เกา เมือง สธิญามา พิราวร์สุ র্ন্থ:না गर्वे व मुवा শ্বৰ'প্ৰা র্বিশা দ্বিবা เกม ซิกา สุรา ดั้าพิ เสรา ซึ่มพุ শ্বন কি বিশাৰ্শ্য গ্রিমার্ক্টন্দ্র্ব্র্যা ₹'ণ্বন্বা न्रगप्रमेन्गगगळा ইনি, প্র রন'শী'ননন:স্তা ૾ઌૢૺૹૻૻૹ૽ૼૼૼ<u>ૠૼૡ</u>ઽૻૡૻૻઌ૱ૹૻૹ૾ૻઌૡ૽ૻઌૻૹ૾ૻૹૻૻઌ૱ พักพายุภาพิมพาผู้กา พิมพาผู้ระดิๆเทิาริสาร์ก अर्थे मेर भेव (होव हरू) हे जेव या देगागी / শन्त मी भूत भुता दश्वसः र्वि र्देगा सिला র্বনান্দী'নার্বিনাঝ'র্মনাঝ'স্নান'পুরা <u> বশান:≅</u>শা অশ্বার্শ্বনার্বন্যা