ๅุ๛ๅ;ҙҡ҈ҩํѧๅ๚๚๚҈ѯ๎ѧҡฃ҈ҡฃ҈ҳๅ๛ๅ๛๚





ۿؙ؆ٙۼٚ؆ڿؖٵؚ؇ٵۥڲٚڟ؞ٵ؈ٛٙ؉ڶڡ؞ڹڂڔ؞ۑۛؖٵ؞ڂ_ۣ؉ڣٳ؉ڣ؊ۊڂ؞ڟڲٵ؞ڟؽٵ



ETSI Neuroscience Primer I Perception & Vision

Written and organized by **Dr. Arri Eisen** Translated by **Geshe Dadul Namgyal**

Emory - Tibet Science Initiative science primers

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ਸ਼ੑੑੑੑ<mark>ੑ<mark>ਗ਼੶</mark>ੑੑੑ<mark>ਜ਼</mark>ਗ਼ੑਲ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਲ਼ੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਲ਼ੑੑੑਲ਼੶ਖ਼ੑੑਗ਼ੑੑੑੑਲ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑ ਜ਼ਗ਼੶ਜ਼ਗ਼ਲ਼੶ਜ਼ਗ਼੶ਫ਼ਗ਼੶ਫ਼ਗ਼੶ਗ਼ਗ਼੶ਗ਼ਗ਼੶ਜ਼ਗ਼ੑੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ਗ਼ੑੑੑੑੑਗ਼੶</mark>

รุณราสติ สิ สาวิทาทิ ซิสาต ขึ้ติ ซิสาวิการ รารัง สราชิสาราสสี ราชีรา

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

ਗ਼ਫ਼ੑਖ਼ਗ਼ਖ਼੶੩ੑਸ਼੶ਗ਼	<i>ਕਾ</i> ੨ੇ'ਅਧੇ'ਵੱਗ੍ਰ
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ૡૹૄ૱૿ૡ૽૿૽૾૾ૡૢ૽ૻૡૢૻ૱૿	ਜ਼ਫ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ਜ਼ਸ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ਖ਼ਗ਼
ਗ਼ੑੑ ਗ਼੶ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਗ਼੶ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑ	ૹૻૢૼ ॱ དམར་སདས་རྒྱས་བཀྲ་གིས།

Written by:	Arri Eisen
Edited by:	Wendy Hasenkamp and Carol Worthman
Translated by:	Geshe Dadul Namgyal
Translation Revised by:	Tsondue Samphel
Layout and design by:	Sangey Tashi (Gomar)

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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.

have

4 October 2010

אססס מֹרוֹשֵׁיש איני אין

รู หลิ สู สพ

ᠵᡧᡃᠵ᠋ᠴ᠊᠅᠀ᢆ᠆ᢧᡚᢆᡃ᠍᠍ᡜᢆᡣᡈᡃ᠌᠌ᠴᢅ᠉᠋᠉ᡸ᠄ᡱ᠋᠋ᠳᢩᡒ᠋ᠳᡎᠬᡨ᠈ᡯᢩᢅᡆ᠋ᠳ᠋᠀ᠴ᠋ᠨᡊ᠆᠋ᡅᢆᡃ᠋᠋᠋ᠯ᠉ᢅᢅᠯᢄᡩᢋᡃᠭ᠖ᡃᡆᡧᢄ᠋ᢋ᠉ᢤ᠈ᡱᠳᡃᢋᠴ᠋ᡪ᠆᠋᠋᠉ᢤᡘᡝᢅᡲᡃᡪᠵ ᡆᢅ᠆᠈ᡚᡃ᠋᠋᠊᠋ᡠᢌᡃᡭ᠊᠋ᠳ᠈ᡊᡆᡧᡃ᠋ᡱ᠋ᠼᡃᡱᡆᡃ᠋ᢓᠴ᠋᠄ᡸᡆ᠋᠋ᢋᡜᠴ᠋᠋ᢩᠱᢩᡷᡃᢩᡆ᠄ᠼᠼ᠋᠋᠋ᠳᢩᠬᡆᢋᡃᢍ᠋᠆᠈ᠺᡇᠬᡧ᠋ᡃᢋᠴ᠈ᠺᠲ᠅᠀ᢆ᠆᠉᠂ᢧ᠋᠋ᢩᢖ᠋᠁ᢅᢓᠴ᠋ᡨᢋ᠆ ᠋ᡘᡆ᠋᠈ᠮᡅᢅᡄ᠋᠋ᢋ᠈ᡅᡃ᠋᠋ᢓᢋᢂᠼ᠋᠋ᢋᢄ᠆᠈ᡘᢓ᠆᠈ᠺ᠋᠋ᡜ᠄ᡬᡆ᠋᠋᠋ᡩᡆ᠋᠋᠋ᡩ᠋ᠴ᠋᠋ᡩᡬ᠋᠋ᢩᠺᡬ᠋ᡩᡭᡃᡭᡆ᠋ᠯ᠋ᢂᡃ᠋᠋ᡆ᠋ᢩ᠋᠋ᢖ᠋᠋ᢓ᠆ᡃᡆᠴ᠋ᠺᢥᡆᢂ᠋ᢂ᠋᠋᠋ᠯ

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न्ञुन्द्रन्द्रन्द्रयाक्षे स्त्रन

र्थेन'ग्ले-"

THE DALAI LAMA



Translation

Office of the President



EMORY

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.

. Wagner James W. Wagner

James W. Wagne President

Emory University Atlanta, Georgia 30322 An equal opportunity, affirmative action university Translation



Office of the President

देव्र'से'खेग'व≍। गॐ'द€व।

> Emory University Atlanta, Georgia 30322 An equal opportunity, affirmative action university

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Robert A. Paul Emory-Tibet Science Initiative (ETSI) owes its existence to the far-reaching vision of His Holiness the Dalai Lama, who has not only provided constant guidance and support, but who has also provided financial support by providing \$100,000 towards the program's endowment. It also owes its existence to the generous support of Dr. James W. Wagner, President of Emory University, who made available key funding through Emory's Strategic Initiative funds and 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, and Dr. Preetha Ram, Associate Dean of Science Education at Emory University, both of 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 for several years and continues to be one of ETSI's strongest supporters.

We thank also the ETSI science faculty, who have worked tirelessly to develop the science textbooks who have and 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.

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

We thank all those who have contributed the financial support needed to operate ETSI and ensure its long-term sustainability. We are extremely indebted to Joni Winston for her long-term generous support to ETSI. Funding for ETSI has also come from Emory University and Emory College, including the Science and Society Program and the Neuroscience and Behavioral Biology program.

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- The McBean Family Foundation
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- The Joni Winston Fund
- The Buddhist Learning Center, New Jersey
- Drepung Loseling Monastery, Inc., Atlanta, Georgia

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- Sogyal Rinpoche, Rigpa International and the Tenzin Gyatso Institute
- Dr. Gary Hauk, Vice President and Deputy to the President, Emory University
- Geshe Lhakdor, Director, Library of Tibetan Works and Archives
- Dr. Alan Wallace, President, Santa Barbara Institute
- Dr. Preetha Ram, Associate Dean for Pre-Health and Science Education, Emory University
- Dr. Robert A. Paul, Charles Howard Candler Professor of Anthropology and Interdisciplinary Studies, Emory University
- Geshe Lobsang Tenzin Negi, Director of Emory-Tibet Partnership, Emory Unviersity
- Geshe Thupten Jinpa, Principal English Language Translator for H.H. the Dalai Lama and President, Institute of Tibetan Classics

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.

ਸ਼¤ૡ੶ૼૼૼૼૼ**ਖ਼**੶ੑਗ਼ਖ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑਖ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ਖ਼੶ਗ਼੶ਗ਼ਫ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ਫ਼ਖ਼੶ਫ਼ਖ਼ਖ਼ਖ਼ਖ਼ਖ਼ਖ਼ੑ

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- ᠗᠈ᢅᡸ᠄᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠊᠋᠋᠋᠋᠊᠋᠋᠋᠊᠋᠄᠋᠋ᡎ᠋᠊᠋᠊᠋᠋᠋᠊ᠳ᠈᠋ᡇᢆ᠆᠋ᡃ᠋᠋ᠳᠵᡃᡆᢆᡃᢁ᠋ᠬ᠈ᡭᡃ᠂ᡔ᠋᠋᠋᠂ᡆᠴ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠉᠋ᡀ᠋᠋᠋
- ۿؗ؆ڲٚڹػٛ؆ۑۊٵڛٵۥڲٚڝٵ۪ۘۘۘۘ؇ؾ؆ڹڟڹؾٵؖڹڔڟۣٙڔ؞ڝۼۘۼۥڲۊ؞ڔڝڟٙڹڔؾۿۼ؉ػٵڹڟؚ؉ڹڛٙۼ؈ۛٛڲٳؿ؉ڹڟڿٮٵڮٞٵڛڮ*ؾ*ڹڮڹڝڮڝٵ

- ૹૢૡ੶ਙ૾ૢૢૢ૽ૡ૽ૺ૽ઽ૽ૺ૽૽ૡૻઌૺ૾૾૾ૻૼૹૻૻ૾ૹ૾૿ઌૹૻૡૼૻૡૹૢૻ૱ૡૺૼૻૡૼૺ૱ૻૹૢૻ૱ૹૼૼૡ૽ૺૡૢ૽ૺઌ૱ૹૻૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૡૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡૻ૽ૡૻ૽૾૾ૹૻ૾૾ૼઌ

- ฅଵุฐาพุรา
- <u> ਕੈ</u>ਲੁ'ਕਵਸ'ਐ'ਤੁ'æਗ਼ੑੑੑੑੑ[ੑ]ਲ਼੶ਸ਼ਖ਼ੵੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਲ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਖ਼੶ਖ਼ੑੑੑ
- **₹ॅं**ने'सेन`[®]`र्रेन'सेन∾'ङ।
- **ዾ**ພໍ່າສາ∓ີ[®]'ק='[™]'[®]'ऌ'ສ'∯'ק'¶'æ'
- · ਕੇਂਗ੍ਰ`ਡ੍ਰੇਤ`ਡਿਕ`ਛ`ਙ``ਸੈ`ਙੀ
- <u></u>5'ਟੇਓ'ਐग'ਊन'ਙਙ'ਙਿ'ਟੇਓ'ਐग'ਊन'ਙ।
- ພືສງ

नर्देअ'देण'मसे'परूर'बे'मंसे'ऄ'য়ॅ'दे'য়र्व'र्स्नुम'त्रुक'ग्रुन'र्देणस'न्5ुल'ॼॢॸ'ѿॅन्। न'ॸॖॖन'णमस'णॐन'ॲन'ख़ॅन'ख़े'मंस'क़ॖॕॖॸ'म'ॠसअअ'u'ѿॸ'य़ॖॖणस'ॾॆ'ळे'ॶॱक़ॖॖ

^{ਜ਼}ૼ੶ਫ਼ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ਫ਼੶ਸ਼ਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਜ਼ੑਗ਼੶੶ਗ਼ੑ੶ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਫ਼ੑ੶ਗ਼ੑ੶ਖ਼੶੶

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ᠵ᠋ᡊᡃ᠋᠋ᠴ᠈᠊ᢡᢅ᠋ᡊ᠈᠗ᢆ᠆᠈ᡚᢆ᠉᠄᠋ᢁ᠋ᢖ᠆᠋ᡎ᠋᠋᠋ᢓ᠋ᠴ᠈ᡜ᠆᠋ᡨᢋ᠆ᡆᠴ᠈ᠺᡆ᠆᠄ᢅ᠋ᡷᡎ᠈᠋ᡨᢋ᠆᠂ᢋ᠉᠈ឪ᠋᠋ᠳ᠈ᠱ᠂ᡱ᠃᠖ᢆᡆ᠋᠆ᠭ᠋ᢖ᠆ᡃᢓ᠊᠋ᢋᡃᠭ᠉᠍ᢁᢋ᠄ᡱ᠋᠋ᠳ᠈ᡚᢆ᠉᠔᠊᠋ᡜ᠆᠈ᡚ᠉᠋᠔᠆᠂ᠫ᠂ᢖᢧᡃ᠋ᡨ᠆᠂ᡎ

ਸ਼੍ਰੋਤਾਸ਼੍ਰੋ ਅਤੇ ਸ਼ੁਰੂ ਦੇ ਸ਼

ᠵᡃ᠍᠍᠍᠍ᠯ᠋᠉ᡩ᠋ᠴ᠄ᢂ᠋᠆ᡩ᠉ᡸ᠋ᡜ᠆ᡎᡄ᠅᠋ᡇᡃᡪ᠋ᢓᡃᡊᢄᠯᢋᡃ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᠲᠯ᠉᠄ᢡᢩᡣᢄ᠋ᢩᠽᡳᡊᡆᢂ᠄᠘᠆᠅᠋ᢢ᠉ᢋ᠄ᢣ᠋᠗ᢙ᠋᠕᠋ᡚ᠉ᡍᡓ᠘᠕᠕᠕᠘᠘᠘᠘᠘᠘ periode set and the set of the ਙੑੑੑੑਸ਼੶ੑੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼ਗ਼੶ਗ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼

ਗ਼ਖ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ਫ਼ੑਗ਼ਖ਼੶ਗ਼ਫ਼ਜ਼੶ਜ਼ਸ਼੶ਜ਼੶ౙਖ਼੶ਜ਼ੵੑਖ਼੶ਜ਼ੑ੶ਖ਼ੵਗ਼੶ਗ਼੶ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਜ਼੶ਫ਼ਖ਼੶ਫ਼ਗ਼ਖ਼੶ਞੑ੶ਫ਼੶ਫ਼ਗ਼੶ਜ਼੶ਫ਼ਖ਼੶ਫ਼ਗ਼ਖ਼੶

᠉᠄᠌᠊ᡘᡝ᠊᠋᠋ᠫ᠂ᠫ᠆᠋᠆ᡏ᠆ᡃ᠋ᡚᡃ᠍᠋ᡦᢩᡆ᠉ᢟᡆᢂ᠄ᢓ᠄ᢩᡸᡆ᠆ᠧᡸ᠋᠋ᡜ᠆ᠻ᠅ᢩᠮᢅᢩᡎ᠃᠆᠆᠂᠆ᡇᡅ᠅ᢓᢅ᠃ᠴ᠆᠂ᠴ᠋ᡷᢋ᠈ᠺᢓ᠊ᡆ᠈ᡱ᠉᠋ᡙᢆ᠀᠉᠂ᡚ᠋᠉᠖᠉᠋᠂ᢓ᠆᠉ᢓ᠋ᡎ᠉᠉᠋᠂᠕ᡧ᠕

ๅฺธฺ๛ฃ๊)ๅฅ๎๛๙ๅส๙ๅรัฅ๙ๅธฺ๛หฺ҈฿๚๛ๅ๛๚ฦ

<u>ਸਿੱ</u>ਤਾਬੀਆ

ผิनन्भःनर्झसा

SUPPORT AND INSPIRATION

This primer was written by Arri Eisen, and edited by Wendy Hasenkamp and Carol Worthman, based on curricular materials developed by a group of Emory professors along with Emory and Georgia Institute of Technology graduate students and post-doctoral fellows. Carol Worthman led this group, which also included Charles Raison, James Rilling, Michael Kuhar, Dieter Jaeger, Paul Plotsky, Gillian Hue, Gaelle Desbordes, Wendy Hasenkamp, Leah Roesch, Amanda Freeman and Nicole Taylor. Paul Lennard contributed leadership in initiation of the program, which also benefited from materials contributed by Larry Barsalou, Todd Preuss, and Hilary Rodman. They are responsible for many of the ideas and much of the text as they are elaborated in this primer. Many thoughts were also drawn from Essentials of Neuroscience and Behavior (by Kandel, Schwartz, and Jessell; Appleton and Lange, 1995). Our discussion of nervous system evolution was based on an article from the University of Illinois, Champaign-Urbana (http://faculty.ed.uiuc.edu/g-cziko/wm/05. <u>html#Heading2</u>). "Parallel processing strategies of the primate visual system" by Nassi and Callaway (Nature Reviews Neuroscience, p. 360, Vol. 10, 2009) was helpful in developing the discussion on vision processing.

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The Emory-Tibet Science Initiative Neuroscience Team Emory University 2012

ૹૺ સેં રે વાર્જુ વા બવા સેંગ વા જે રાષદા દ્યું તેં ૧૦૧૧ ગ

२६ँव'२माम्स स्थायानिमानेना

᠊᠌᠌᠉᠄ᢅ᠌ᡘᡝᡃ᠋ᡲ᠆ᡪ᠆᠈ᡚᢆᢧᢍ᠋᠋ᢋ᠄ᡷ᠋᠋ᠳ᠉ᡧᢍᠵ᠙᠋ᡭ᠋ᡲᡏ᠋᠋ᡎ᠉ᡭᡘ᠄ᢩᢂ᠂ᡬᠯᢋ᠆ᡪ᠆᠃ᠴ᠊ᡪ᠊᠋᠋᠋ᡪ᠄ᡨᢩᠬ᠉᠊ᢔ᠉ᢟ*᠆ᡆ᠀*ᠳ᠋᠈᠋ᡨᢆᡋ᠋ᠳ᠄᠊ᡁᡃᠲ Ă॔དॱགངས་ठན੶ཕৄོངས་ཀྱི་ལགོང་ས་ཏྱ་ལའི་བ্ল་མ་སྐུ་ཕྲེང་བऊུ་བཞི་པ་ཆེན་པོ་མཆོག་ཡིན་ལ། ঝ়্মানক্রমান্দ্রীর ক্রিঁমা

<u>ઽઽઃૹ૱ૡૢૼ</u>૱ૡઙ૽ૡૺઌૻૻૹૢૢૡૼૻઌ૽૾ૢૺ૾ઌૹૻૡૢ૽૱ૹૢૣઌૹૡ૱ૹૢૻૡઌૹૻ૽૾ૼ૱ૡ૽૾ૺ૱૽ૼઽૺૢ</u>

ୠୖୢ୕୶୳ୖୣ୵୳୕୵୶ୖୄୠୡ୕ୖଽଈୢୖଈଡ଼୲ୄୠ୲୳ୄ୵୳ୄ୲ୖ୶ୖୣୖୖୠୡ୲୶୵ୖଡ଼୲ୄୠ୵୲ୡୖୄ୵୳ଢ଼୲୵ୡୖ୳୷ଽ୷ୠ୷ୡୄୖଈଡ଼୲ୖଡ଼୲ୠ୲୳୲୰ଋ୶୲ นरः झुः (बनषः अः हे दे रे ये यः रे रे ते र ते र व षः याया या प्रबाद के रादे के ये के स्वार्थ मा या या या या या य

ମତ୍ୟ'ମ୍ବମ୍'ର୍ଯ୍ୟୁ

^ۥڵڹٛڴۿ؆ڔڂ^ۥڬڷۿڗؠڂڗڿڗۿۊؠػٛڡٳٵۛڲٚؿؚۻۿۊ؆ڡٚڂ؆ۥڲؚٚڡٳڡ؆ؾؖٛٵۣ؞ٛڛٛڡٳ؞ڲ_ۣؾڂڟ؞ڟ؋ٚڹڟڟۣڂؚؾڰۣ؆ڛڟ র্মিদ্র'যান্টিম্ব' ૬૮૮૨૨૪૨૪૨૪૨૪૨૪૨૪૨૪૨૪૨૪૨૪૨ นา ดริดาพี่ศาสมาขุดๆ หาการ์สมมาร์ๆ ๆดูหากอิยาสมาขุดสาราชาวิสารสมาชิสาร์ <u>ે</u> ને બાજા પેટર જ્રિંગ પ્રદેશ સાથા બાવર સેવા અલે પે પાળા બાજા પ્રતા તે પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપત પ્રાપત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપત પ્રાપ્ત પ્ર શુપ્તસ્રવ લદ્દેવ પર્શેન્ વચલા ર્જ્ઞેન્ચન્સ્થન્થન્ જીયપ્વપીયા ગઢા દ્વપ્ત વસ્રવા વસ્રવ લદ્દેવ નચયા ર્જ્ઞેવા છે ચર્નેવ ગુપ્ત

सेवने फे सेव สุลเพาะผิาสัาวินิาสันาร์ที่สารสิน สาร์ เนาาอิยาร์กา เพาะสีาร์ เนาอิยาการ์ สายอิยาการ์ สายอิยาการ์ สาย เนาวินาสาร ᡷᡘᢅᡆ᠋᠋᠋ᡎ᠋ᢙᠵ᠋᠋ᡎᡄᠴ᠋᠋ᡎᢓ᠋ᠴ᠋ᡸᡆ᠋᠊ᡸᡆ᠋ᡎ᠋ᡏᡆ᠋ᡆ᠋ᡎᡭᡆ᠋ᡎᠴᢐ᠋ᡎᠴᢐᢁᢋ᠉᠕᠀᠋᠕ᢋᠴ᠉ᠿ᠉ᢋᠴ᠉ᡚ᠉ᠴᢓ᠉᠋᠁ᡬᡭᠴ᠋ᢓ᠋ᡆ᠁ᡆᡭᡭ᠄᠊᠋ᢖ᠄ᢧ णविंग्यानवणावमानक्षेणमायाविणानेना क्षुवाळेणमानेवेय्वर्गीविन्तिर्मेयार्थेनवायेवर्ग्धेवावेना नेवेरळेणमायेवे ॺॎॕॸॺॱख़ॖॱक़ॸॱ॓॓ॺ॓ॸऺॎ॓ॱड़ॕॱॺॖॱॸॸॱऻऀ ड़ऺॺॱॺ॓ॱॸऀॸॸॱऒॱॹॸॱऄॱॹॸॱऒॱॹॸऻ ॸॕॱऒॱॵॴॎक़ॱक़ऀॶ શ્રુપેય ? ર્સેંગ સેવરે કે સેવ ગોયના યેખ રેવ લા સેવ કુ સેરે સેવા વે ગાયરે વે ગાયરે જાય તે જાય છે. वर्तन्श्रीश्वग्थश्वात्वरुरविविवर्षे विष्टित्ववर्ष्त्र विद्याप्र विषया मार्वि क्या कार्यक्र के कार्यका के कार्य वृत्रः र्श्वेस्वायमृत् मुस्वायमे देवाया तत्र पर्वे द्वारा स्वायम् वित्र स्वयायस्वाय देवा स्वायम् स्वायम् स्वायम् भित्र स्वायम् यावन् स्वायम् स्वायम् यावन् स ୴୷୷ୖୠୖ୶ୠ୷୕୩⁻୷୶୷୷ଽୖଽ୕୲ୖୡ୩⁻୵୳୷ଽଽଌ୕୶ୖ୷୩⁻୵୷ୖୢ୶ୢୖୠ୷ୢୖୠ୷ୖୢଽ୶୲ୡ୶୲(୲୳୶୵୶୳୵୲ୄ*୶*୲୴୷୷ ร์ สิ่าสิ่านายสูงเขิงการสงลาวิกา พายนาวัสารกายการสิ่านาายการสงเชิงนี้ ๑๙๙ นารสูง (ลูง)มลิวัญา ષ્યર ક્ષેત્ર ત્વ : તુ : हेत्र गति : ગુરૂષ મારી 'છે' 'થે' 'થે' 'થે' 'થુદું વા પણ ક્ષેં ન ગતે ત્વારે ન થયે ન થયે ન થયે છે. (http://faculty.ed.uiuc.edu/g-cziko/wm/05.html#Heading2)ર્વેગ'લગ્રેચચ્ચ જ્યોલય ત્વી સંસ્થલેગ ગાલે' ณาตุดุทาสุพาธิพานาพิสุ พษัราชีราพาณทุ่าที่ายิราริพาษีกาณที่การยิราพาพา(า๐๐๙ ณีรายราพิสาตุพา ગુપ્તરા ૧૯૦ પત્ર વાજાવા પ્રવિ:) રુ જો ૧૮૮ ગો વ્યા સે વાલેજા ગુે જા દ્વે જા પરિ "ર્સે ભૂર સેવે સેવા રુવા જા ગુે અર્ધે પર્સે ત્ર આવા '

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HOW DO WE SEE WHAT WE SEE?

Look at the pictures of His Holiness the Dalai Lama. What do you feel when you look at these images? In what ways do you feel differently looking at such images of His Holiness versus looking at similar images of someone else? What happens when you look at these images, that is, how are you able to see them? How does what you see translate into feelings?

These are important biological questions. And you don't have to think for too long to realize that the answers to these questions and how one tries to answer them have implications well beyond biology. For example, there are implications for how we interpret things (in fact, in most languages, including both English and Tibetan, 'to see' (mthong) means both to see with our eyes and to see with our minds' eyes); two different people certainly see things differently in their minds, but do they also see things differently with their eyes? Are the two phenomena seeing with your eyes and seeing with your mind— separable?

In the last forty years in the West, questions like these, while still discussed in the field of philosophy, have also come under the umbrella of the relatively new field called neuroscience. As we will see, neuroscience—the study of how organisms behave and think, or as Nobel Laureate Eric Kandel puts it from a related angle: "how the brain produces the remarkable individuality of human action," like the different and unique responses people experience when they look at the images here of His Holiness—is an exciting area that bridges biology from molecules to populations and sneaks into nearly all disciplines. After all, we can't do any-thing—pray, exercise, eat, sleep—without using our brains.

Addressing the deep questions about perception, interpretation, and emotion posed above is our ultimate goal in the Neuroscience primers. To get there, in this first primer, we will look at levels of questions leading to the deep questions: How do the eyes see? What parts of your body, beyond the eyes, are involved? How does the light of what you're looking at become 'what you see'? To get there, we integrate yet another level of questions—those examining the fundamental biology of the nervous system and the brain, and the cells of which they are composed.

The underlying foundation of our discussion in this Neuroscience Primer 1 is built from the central themes and concepts developed in the Life Sciences Primers in discussing evolution, genes, cells, physiology, and development, and we will use these themes and concepts to tell the story of neuroscience. We tell this story using vision and the eye as our example.



Figure 1: His Holiness the Dalai Lama.

. त्रे. दु: नूर: र्रे. क्वे. क्वे. रे. म. दू: भेरा नूर: स्वे. के रा

5्मे मेश १ व्यॉन्स मृत्यदे ह्वा सामकेंग









ঝর্ন্র-দু:নয়ু-ম-মঝা

ਫ਼ੑੑੑੑੑ੶[੶]ਫ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑ੶ਗ਼ੑਫ਼ਗ਼ੑੑਖ਼ੑਫ਼ੑੑ੶ਖ਼ਫ਼ੑੑਖ਼ੑੑ੶੶ਫ਼ੑਖ਼ੑੑਖ਼ੑੑ੶੶ਫ਼ੑੑਖ਼ੑੑੑ

NEUROSCIENCE IN CONTEXT

Why are we asking these questions the way we are and with the particular language we are using? Everything, every study, every exploration has a context. Context allows richer understanding, as well as an appreciation of the limits of that understanding. So, before we begin our journey into vision, let's briefly look at neuroscience in the 21st century—a bit of Tibetan Buddhist context, a bit of disciplinary context, and then three kinds of historical context.

In the United States, using our brains to study our brains now consumes a major portion of research time and money in the life sciences. Since it became clear in the 19th century that the brain is the seat of our sensing, perception, emotions, thought, and mind, exploration of the brain and how it works has grown immeasurably. In the 21st century, neuroscience has emerged as perhaps the most exciting branch of the life sciences. Certainly, greater understanding of how we behave and think has an impact on every aspect of human life and society. One indicator of research growth in this area is that the major professional organization for studying brains and behavior, the Society of Neuroscience, has grown from 500 members in 1969 to nearly 40,000 members across the world today!

Understanding the mind has many applications, and its relevance can be linked to almost any element of our experience. Neuroscience thus represents a broad range of phenomena that exist at the intersection of many other fields, including biology, chemistry, physics, engineering, psychology, anthropology and very recently even religion. The interdisciplinary nature of the field means that the best work is often done in collaboration with experts in these other fields. In fact, entirely new areas of scholarship—for example, neuroeconomics (how do we make decisions?), neuroethics (how do we make ethical decisions?), and neurotheology (have we evolved to be religious?)—have recently sprung up in response to an appreciation of new findings in the neurosciences.

Along with this multidisciplinary approach, the brain and mind can be studied at multiple levels, moving upward in size and scope (see Figure 2). At the molecular level, we study proteins, DNA and intracellular systems. At the cellular level, we measure activity in individual and groups of neurons. At the systems level, we investigate how multiple brain regions work together to perform complex functions. Finally, at the behavioral and cognitive level, we study wholebody actions, as well as thoughts, memories and emotions. As you might imag-

าชลาฏิ.ยิราร์ส์ลิ:ฮราตุดิเราะเลยิญเราะิเอียเด็นเราๆ พายา มายาริมายาร์มารายสิ.ฮาตูญาระสัตรายาริเ २ेष[्]र्हेण'रेबप्पर'शुष्पर्य'र्धु: विंगाणी'गु'म'न्द्र'। देर'ब'वता क्रबर्हेण'न्द्र'। इव'प'न्द्र'। बेबष'ळेंर'पठष'ग्री:क्रॅन พระราชังเรายิเด็นเยิรารูาพีรๆ หรือรางกระหนายระเบาหลาง บัรเขาพางเราสำนักรายิเ

<u>તૃષાणषत्रय</u>धेत्रयने ५८५ अटर्मे के कर रहा ही र ५५ का के कि

શેષ્ઠાશાય્વશ્વર્થો સંગળમાં જીયાયું છે. આ પુરાય પુરાય છે. આ પુરાય પુર รรัสาริตานารุณา สุลาร์ฐารริตาน รรัสาคมลาซสาริต กลังสถาริตาน ลิมลาคมลาริตาน มินิารณาอูณา न्नन्: इते रेगा गुक्र पर्ने रेग ଽୖ୳୲୕୕୲ୠ୶୶୕୴ଢ଼୶ୖ୶୕ଈୖୖୡ୲ଌୖୄ୵୕୶୲୶୶୕୳ୄୣ୕ଽୣଡ଼୕ୗ୵୵ୖୠ୶୲ୡୖୠ୲୰ୖୢଈ୶୲ୠୄୄୠ୲୵ୠୖୣୗ୶୲୰ଽୢୖୢୢୡ୲ୢୖୡୡୄ୲ୠୄୗ୲ୣ୵ୖଽ୶୲ୡୖୠଡ଼୲୕୵ଽୖ ୩૪૨૨૬ ભૂમ: ગ્રેન્સ્યુપ્ર પ્રાયમાં આવે.)ને વર્ષ્સ છે. આ પ્રાયમાં આયોગ આ પ્રાયમાં આવે. આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આવે. આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આવે. આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આવે. આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આવે. આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આવે. આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આવે. આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આવે. આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આવે. આ પ્રાયમાં આવે. આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આવે. આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આવે. આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આવે. આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આવે. આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આવે. આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આવે. આ પ્રાયમાં આવે. આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આવે. આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આવે. આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આવે. આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આવે. આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આ પ્રાયમાં આપ્રાયમાં આપ્રામાં આપ્રામાં આવે. આ પ્રાયમાં આપ્રામાં આપ્રામાં આપ્રામાં આપ્રાયમાં આપ્રામાં આપ્રામાં આપ્રામાં આપ્રામાં આ આ પ્રાયમાં આપ્રામાં આપ્રામાં આપ્રામાં આપ્રામાં આપ્રામાં આપ્રામાં આપ્રાયમાં આપ્રામાં આપ્રામાં આપ્રાયમાં આપ્રામાં આ

[৻]अॱॸैऀऺऺऀॱॺॖॸॱॸ॓ॸॱॺऀॱख़ॕग़ॱळ॔ॺॱॸॆऀॻॱॸॸॱय़ॾॖ॒॒॓ॱॻय़ऀॱॿऀॸॱय़ड़ॖॖॻॱॻऀॱॾॖऀॻॺॱॹॖॱॖॖॺॱॻॖॕॺॱॸ॒ॸॕॺॱॻॕय़ऀॱॹॖॗॻॕ॒ॺॱ ᠊᠋ᢙ᠋ᠵ᠋᠋᠊᠋᠋ᡎ᠋ᡭ᠋ᡆᡄ᠋᠆ᡪᠴᡄ᠄᠊᠋᠋ᡒ᠄ᢜ᠋᠋ᠳ᠋ᡬ᠊᠋ᡗ᠋ᢆᡒ᠆ᡠ᠋᠄ᡬᡜ᠋᠋ᠴᢁᢋ᠅ᡭ᠋᠋ᡎ᠋᠊᠋ᠴᡜ᠋ᠴ᠋ᡎ᠋ᢆᡆ᠆ᡊᡆᢂᡧ᠋᠕᠋ᡆ᠉ᢙ᠉ᡷᠴᢄᢅᢩ᠉ᡵᡄ ૹુ ૻ૽<mark>૱</mark>ૡૡૺઌઙૼૢૻૹ૾ૼઽૻ૱ૡઽ૾૾૾ૡૹ૾ૺૡૺઌૼૹૻૼૻઌઽૼઽૻૹ૾ૢૺૹૻૼઌૹૻઌ૽૿ૢૹૻઌૹૻઌૢ૽૱ૡૹઌૡૹ૽૽ૡ૾૽ઌ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ ५६्णणे छुप्पर्णेत्य्वेय्ये अर्हेव स्वाय्ये व्यक्तेव स्वाय्ये व्यक्तेव स्वाय्ये स्वाये स्वाय्ये स्वाये स्वाय्ये स्वाये स्व स्वाये स्वये स्वये स्वाये स्वये स्वये स्वये स्वाये स्वये स्वाये स्वये स्वये स्वये स्वये स्वये स्वये स्वये स्वये स्वये स्वयं स्वाये स्वाये स्वाये स्वाये स्वये स्व स्वये स्वये स्वये स्वये स्वये स्वये स्वये स्वये स्वय ภะษะ ณีสาลิ·ยุรสานออ พีรานาสุลาราชาวรีสามิรายัสาราชออออ ลิสานาอานิานสานสาชายูรานาราพสา

୲ଵୖୣୣଡ଼୲ୖ୴୵୳୶୲ୢୄଈ୳୶ଽୄୖୄୄୄ୰୲୰ଽ୷୳ୠୄୢୡ୶୶ୖଡ଼୲ୖୄୡ୕ଡ଼୶ୖୄୢଈ୵୶୲୰୳ୠୄୢୠୄ୵୳୰୵୷ୄ୲ୖୖ୳ୄ୳ୡୖ୵ୖଡ଼୲ୖୄୡ୕ଡ଼୲୶ୄୖୄୄୄୄ୰୲ଽ୶ଌ୶୶୲ୡୖୖୖୖୖଽଵ୲୕୶ୠ ય ઘુેન ઘુન પરિ ત્વો અઢવ ખેંનુ તેય વ ત્ર જેવા અર્થે જે છું તરે વા દેવ તે ત્વા છું વ તે ત્વા પ્રાયમાં ત્ર જેવા તે ત્ય *ᠭᠧ᠋ᡯᢆ᠋ᡪ᠆ᡆᢩᢐᠧ᠆*ᢋᡄ᠆ᠴᡇᢋ᠆ᡪᡄ᠋᠘ᠺᠴᡎᡅᢅᡏ᠆᠋ᢍᢋ᠊ᢜ᠋᠋᠋ᠬ᠈ᢩᢆᡩᢁᢋ᠓᠉ᠴᢧᢛ᠆ᠴ᠋ᠵ᠇᠆᠈ᡷ᠄ᠸᢩᠭ᠋᠉᠆ᡔᡆ᠉ᢙᠵ᠋᠋ᠳᡭᠳ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡨ᠆ᠲᡄ᠆ᡒ᠄ᢁᡒ

ine, different levels of study lend themselves to different fields of specialization. For example, neurochemistry is most applicable at the molecular level, whereas neuropsychology is most related to the behavioral and cognitive level.



Figure 2: Neuroscience can be studied at many levels, ranging from small molecules to broad phenomena such as thoughts and behavior.

TIBETAN BUDDHIST/WESTERN CONTEXT

His Holiness the Fourteenth Dalai Lama has long been fascinated with neuroscience. He holds up neuroscience as a nexus for synergy, a crossroads for mutual learning and growth for both Western and Tibetan Buddhist cultures and learning traditions. Such growth could certainly benefit the science of both traditions, but His Holiness also suggests benefits far beyond. In a renowned speech to the Society for Neuroscience in 2005, he said:

... a dialogue between neuroscience and society could have profound benefits in that it may help deepen our basic understanding of what it means to be human and our responsibilities for the natural world we share with other sentient beings... I believe that the collaboration between neuroscience and the Buddhist contemplative tradition may shed fresh light on the vitally important question of the interface of ethics and neuroscience.

How does the brain work? How are brain and mind related? How do we and other organisms sense, perceive, think, and behave, and why? What is consciousness and how does it work? Can we gain a deeper, more nuanced understanding of the big questions in neuroscience by gaining a richer understanding of the big questions in Buddhism and vice versa? Such questions represent the driving force of the Emory-Tibet Science Initiative and His Holiness' vision: learn more by learning from each other.

ڟ٦ؚۥۧڡٳڟڡ؞ؘۿ؞ڡٳڴؚ؏ۦۊۣ؊؉؞ڡ؞ڛٛ٦ڗۿڟ؞ڛٛ٦ٳ؞ٚڰڟ؞ڡٳڟۣڋڟ؞ڛٛ٦ٳ

૬ે 'ચેવ' શેુ 'રૅશ'લ્દે વ' ઘન' ર્થે ફેંગશ્વ સ્વ 'દુ' ગર્ફે દ' શુરુ 'ધવ' શેંગશ્વ 'હેંગશ્વ' ત્વરુ દ' 'ડે દ' પર્ચ 'ચેવ]" &ેશ્વ'ન્દ'] "'''ન્વદ' જ્ઞ 'જ્વે 'રેગ'ન્દ' વન દ' સંગ્રહ્ય 'પ્રેશ્વ' શુરુ 'ચાલે 'સ્વ 'ચું વ' ગુરુ 'ગલે શ'નુ દ' પ્રધાન 'ચું દ' જ્ઞ 'જે વ' 'રેગ'ન્દ' પ્રચાન 'શેં અર્થ' ગુરુ શ' શેં અર્થ 'ગુરુ શ' હોં ચ' શુરુ 'ચાલે 'ચું વ' 'છે '' પ્રધાન 'ચું હ

નયે 'રેશ] ૧ નવર'ક્ટ હવ 'રેવા વી 'બેશ' ગુ સ્થય 'હર' શ'વર્ડ્યા 'દુવ' 'કો થેવે 'રેશ' યં વર્ષા છે 'શ' સ્થ કેવા નર વળે શે કુવ' 'ગુ 'રેશ' માં વે 'વર' છે ! રેશ' માં જ્યાર 'વે ' આ ગુ ને બે ના ને ના ના ના 'છે નો ના ના ના



୴ଽ୕୵୳ୖ୳୵୕୶୲ୄ୵୳୵୕୕ୖଽୡୖଽଢ଼୶ୄୖୢଈ୕ଽୖୖଽୣ୩୕୰ୖୖୠ୕ଡ଼ୗୖୖୖୖଽ୕ୖୖୖୖୖୖୖୖଌ୕ୖ୕ୖ୕୵୲୵ୄୠ୕୶ୄୖଽ୴ୖୖୖୖୖ୕୕ୡ୶ୖ୳ୄୖଽ୷ୖୖୠ୶୶ଽ ୲୶୶୶ୖୖଽୣ୩୕୳ୖୠ୕୳ୄୖୗୖୖୖୖୖୖଽୖୖ୕ଽ୕୶୲ୠୖଵ୶ୄୖୄୢଈ୕ୄୖୢଽ୵୵୵ୖଽ୕୶ୖୖୄଽ୕ୄ୕୩ୖୖୖ୕ଽଈ୕୳୵ଽ୕୳ୠୢୖ୲୶୲୰୴ୖୖୖୖଢ଼ୄ୵୰୵ୖଽୡୖ୲ୖଈ୶୶

SCIENCE CONTEXT

When the Dalai Lama honored Emory University with his request to develop a comprehensive contemporary science curriculum for Tibetan monastics, he specifically asked that neuroscience be a major thrust of the initiative. As you will see in the Neuroscience Primers, neuroscience is very much a part of the life sciences as well as the social sciences. As we noted above, a true appreciation of the big questions in neuroscience listed above requires an appreciation of the basic underlying information and concepts of the life sciences (presented in the Life Sciences Primers): evolution, cell biology, genetics, development, and physiology. For this very reason, when we initially taught this material to the monks and nuns in Dharamsala, the Life Sciences teaching was always before the Neurosciences teaching, so the former could set the stage for the latter. To help you understand and engage the neurosciences, we will often refer to particular parts of the Life Sciences Primers.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT IN THE WEST

Two concurrent and seemingly paradoxical themes about the mind and the body weave themselves through western thought to this day. One, rooted in the philosophy of the ancient Greeks and René Descartes' and his famous 17th century dictum 'I think, therefore I am', says that mind—thoughts, ideas and body—the physical brain and its related constituents—occupy separate spaces, are separable phenomena. The other is articulated by contemporary neuroscientist Antonio Damasio: 'This is Descartes' error: the abyssal separation between body and mind, between the sizable, dimensioned, mechanically operated, infinitely divisible body stuff, on the one hand, and the unsizable, undimensioned, unpushpullable, nondivisible stuff: the suggestion that reasoning, and moral judgment, and the suffering that comes from physical pain or emotional upheaval might exist separately from the body....' Thus, Damasio suggests that the mind and body are not separate at all.

More or less ever since we could think thoughts like these, humans have struggled to identify *where* the mind might be located and to account for the vast diversity of interpretation of shared human experience. Ancient Egyptians (3000-4000 years ago) considered the heart the central organ of thought, emotion, and soul. The heart, not the brain, was carefully removed and preserved in special containers separate from the mummified body of the dead.

ન સેંગુરુ છેનુ સેંબ ખેંનુ

ॻऻॸॖऀॻऻॺॱय़ॎख़ॸॺॱॻॖॱक़ॖॗॱ൘ॺऻ

ଌ୕୶ୖୖୖଽ୴ୖଡ଼୲୵ୄଌୖୖୖୡୖ୲୴୶୶୲୴୴୲

Aristotle, the Greek philosopher whose ideas helped shape much of Western thought for centuries after his death in 332 BC, also considered the heart the locus of thought and emotion. The heart still takes a central place in modern cultures, for example, in Japan where, probably due to the influence of the Shinto religion, one is not considered dead until the heart stops—unlike in America where more attention is paid to brain activity. However, the importance of the heart is still found embedded in many English phrases and concepts. We talk about the 'heart of the problem', meaning the central, most important part of it; much of our language concerning love involves the word and symbol of the heart; also, we use phrases like 'in my heart, I knew it to be true' and 'that was a heartless act', meaning it was cruel.

Basing his conclusions on the effects of brain injuries, the Greek physician Galen saw the brain as the home of thought and emotion. Galen lived from 131-201 AD and his ideas drove Western medicine for more than a thousand years. Early thinkers were challenged by the problem of how representations in the mind are related to external phenomena, that is, how the material becomes immaterial. Although they formulated different solutions to this problem, each assumed that the mind could not be a physical phenomenon; thus, a distinction between mental and material phenomena was not questioned.

Building on the views of ancient Greeks, medieval philosophers 'solved' the physical/mental problem by saying the fluid-filled spaces of the brain they observed (known now as ventricles) were where the "animal spirits" circulated to form sensations, emotions, and memories (Figure 3).

During the Renaissance in Europe, from roughly 1450-1650, the ideas of the ancient Greeks were re-examined; this ushered in a period of intense scientific exploration, including anatomical studies in animals and humans that revealed the true gross anatomy of the brain (Figure 4). New questions were raised: since dissection demonstrated that the ventricles are not the spaces through which animal spirits flow, then where do the spirits or soul live? Descartes, as we note above, had an answer; he drew a sharp distinction between the rational soul and the body. He thought that soul/mind and body made contact in a particular part of the brain called the pineal gland, because, his reasoning went, it is the only structure that is singular, not duplicated on both sides of the brain. Conscious sensation (body affecting mind) could arise through the connection made in the pineal gland. Reciprocally, the soul/mind could initiate a flow of animal spirits (Figure 5).



Figure 3: Medieval philosophers' described fluid-filled spaces of the brain, known as ventricles. Ventricles were where "animal spirits" circulated to form sensations, emotions, and memories.



Figure 4: One of Leonardo da Vinci's early anatomical drawings of the human skull and brain.



Figure 5: Descartes' rendering of the pineal gland (circled). The gland, according to Descartes, existed on one side of the body and dictated sensation.

สัฐราจสาวรัฐา

५(र्झेन् चेगा गीश नर्झेन् तरा थेंन माने) নন্দ্র-ম্বিক্ষা नमें रेग्र भीषा रेना देग्नू झंग्री श्र सेव सु'ने ख़श्र ग्री गर्विगश्रागर्डगा, हुप्येन पेन प्रान्ता नेशा के राहीता



মাইমা

ઽપે રેશ 🗢 વેવેં તર ટેં ટ લેવે છે ખેશરા શાસા જોય છે. દ <u>ઐ</u>ঀ৾৽**ग**॒ঀ৾৽ৼৼৼ৾৾ৼ৾৾ঀৼ৾৾৽৻ৼ৾৾ৼ৾৾৾ৼ৾৾ঀ৾৽ৼ৾৾৽ৼ৾৾৽ৼ৾৾৽



ন্দ্র্যুন:মন্ম:রপদ্বা

<u>નને સ્યા ૨ નુય સ્વય સ્વય વૃષ્ણ</u> વાર્ય છે. સુધાર સુધા સુધાર સ ᡧ᠋᠋᠋ᡣ᠋᠊ᢎ᠙ᠴᠴᢅ᠆᠋ᠴ᠋᠈ᠼᡆ᠄᠋᠋ᢩᢐᡧ᠋᠋᠌ᡥᡄ᠋᠉᠂ᠴᡭ᠄ᡎ᠆᠋᠈ᢣᡭ᠄ᠴᠽ᠈ᡷᢅ᠆᠃ᡅᢆᡰ᠋ᢁᡃ᠋᠋ᡲᡭ᠄ " ૹૢૢਗ਼ પવે સેં વયર્ દેં મર્શે મંદ્રમાં શેયયર્ શેના કવા સ્થય



<u>ୄ</u>ୖୄୗୢ୲୕ୣଡ଼୶ୡୖ୶ୡୖଽୄୖୣଢ଼୲ୖଽ୶୲ୄ୶ୄଢ଼ଡ଼୳୕ୣଵ୲୕ୄୄ୴୲୰ଵୄୢୠୄୢ୕ୄ୷ୖ୲ୡଵ୲ୄୢୠଵ୲ଡ଼୲ୖ୶ୖୡ୷୲ୡୄ</u>୲ୡ୲ଡ଼୲ଡ଼୲ୖଡ଼୲୰ୠ୶ ૡૹ[ૣ]૱૾ૻઽૢૼૢૻૢૢૢૢૻૡૹ૽૾ૣૼૡ૾ૺૡઽૻૡૢ૾ૼઌૡ૱ૢ૽ૡ૾૽ઌ૱૱ૹૻ૾ૼૡૻૹૼૡૻ૱૾ઌ૽ૻ૽૽ૡ૽૾ૡ૱૱ૻૻૼ૱૱ૡૻ૽ૼ૱૱ૡૻ૽ૼૡ૱ૡ૱૱ૡૻૼ૱૱ૡૻૼૡૼ૱૱ૡૻઌૼ (รุนิ:วิลา ๔)) พุษพร้ารๆๆ....รายพระวิสายพระนายระวิจาร เลา เป็นการการ เป็นการการการการการการการการการการการการกา <u>५</u>णा"नेषायदेः क्रुवः " क्रुणाषदेः क्रेंदाः कः क्षेत्रायत्रः क्रेतायषा ५ दियेनेषायतयः इत्रानेषाण्चेः णतृषाण्वाय्ये वयाक्षः सुः सुः भित्रा ॺॊ॔ॸॱॖॖॱॻॺख़ॱॸॱॸऀऀॺऺॖऻ॒ऀऻ॓ॸॱॸऺ॓ग़ॗक़ॱॻॖॖऀॺॱख़ॸॱक़ऺॸॼय़ऀज़ॱॻॖॖॺॱऒऀॸॱऄऀॸॱऻऀॱख़ॺॱक़ऺॸ॓ॸॱऻऀॺॱॷॺॱॸ॒ॸॱॾक़ॱ รษีราชสาขิงพิมพายาดิพารกรายรายรายรัชาลิยายิพายา โช้รายิรศักรฑายราพิมพา/สมาดิพารกายเพียาติดพาร์กา ૢૡૺૡ૽૿ઙૡૼૻૹ૾ૢૼૼૼૼૼ૱ૻૢૻૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૻૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌ૾ૺૡ૽ૻઌ૾ૻૡૻૻૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡ૾૾ૡ૾ૻૡ૾૾ૡ૾ૻૡ૾૾ૡ૾ૻૡ૾૾ૡ૾ૺૡ นาระๆ ริงานานสายิ์ สู่ณารู ลิมพา/สมเศิลาปิสาขิสาขาคานลิ อูสาวริสมสายผู้รายงานรัรราษีรา(รนิวริสา ฯ)

શ્રેયશ્વ શુંદા દ્વ માસ્યયત્ર વાર્ય છે. આ પ્રાપ્ત આ પ્રાપ્ત છે. આ પ્રાપ્ત આ પ્રાપ્ત છે. આ પ્રાપ્ત આ પ્રાપ્ત છે. આ પ્ર આ પ્રાપ્ત છે. આ પ્રાપ્ત

᠊᠋᠊᠋᠊ᢎᢦᠡᡎ᠋ᡈᡄᢦᠠ᠊ᡅᡭ᠂ᡎᡪ᠆ᢣᡅᡭ᠂ᡆᠵ᠂ᢅᢩᢤᡄᡃ᠋᠋ᢆ᠋ᠳ᠋᠋ᢆᠣ᠄(᠋ᡪᢆ᠆ᡪ᠊ᢊ᠋᠋ᢋ᠆ᡃᠹ᠋᠋ᠳ᠋᠄ᡜᠵᡃ)ᠲᢆ᠂ᠵ᠋᠋᠋ᡢ᠋᠃ᢔᢁᡃᡅᡭ᠂ᢩ᠊ᡍᡆ᠋᠉ᠼᠯ᠋ᠴᡭ᠄ᢩᢜᡝ᠋ᢋᡆ᠉ᢅᢜ᠆ᢣ᠍ᢆᢧ᠆ᡃᡪᡄ᠋

યર દે નર્જ્યુવ એન રેવા તૃ નજી શાસા સેનુ

<u></u>ૺઽ૾ૡઽૻૡ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ ᠴᡭᡆ᠄ᡄᢅᡏ᠋᠋ᠵ᠊᠋ᢟ᠄᠋᠋ᡩᡵᡃᠺᡆᡎᠵᡃᡞᢌᡅᢙ᠋ᠭᡅ᠄ᠫ᠂ᡬᢋ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋ᢩᢖᡄᡃᠵᢈᡆ᠋᠉᠈ᡗᢆᡣ᠊᠋ᡍᢩᢍ᠂᠒ᢅ᠆ᠵᡆᢂ᠉ᢓᢅᡸᠴᡃ᠋ᢋ᠋᠂ᡘᡆ᠋ᢆᢂ᠉ᡏ᠆ᡢᢂᡧ᠋᠆ᡢᡅᡘᡃ᠋ᠳᡆᡪ ๚ุธสาสสาพิสาสิาสิทานาลิทาญราราร์ทาสสามาสูราพัการิสาสารารทาทิสาสิมสารราทสูทสาธสารการขิบอรา

ૡ૾૽ૼૣૼૼૼૹૻઌ૽૾ઽૹ૽ૢૼૼૢૼઙ૽૽ૢ૾ૢઽૹ૽ૢૼૹૡ૾ૻૼઽૢ

ਗ਼ਫ਼ੑੑੑૹ੶ਸ਼ਜ਼੶ਫ਼ੑੑੑੑੑਗ਼੶ਫ਼ਗ਼੶ਗ਼ਫ਼ਗ਼ਫ਼ਗ਼ਫ਼ਗ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼ਗ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼ੑ੶ਗ਼੶ਜ਼੶ਫ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼ਗ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼ੑੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼ੑੑੑੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼ੑੑਗ਼੶ਗ਼ਫ਼ੑੑਗ਼੶੶ "वेषायहॅनर्खेयाणॅनर्छना नेवेग्गवषार्नेवावेगांगेक्षिन्यंययागयागवनरकेर्वेषाण्णेकरत्नेग्गेकर्तन्वे नियावेवरतु नहेःणत्तरात्रदोयायतेः महेत्यायरात्मारुणहेण वृत्त्न्नेराय्यकार्ग्रे वेत्तर्भवत्त्वका क्रियाय कावता Despite the formidable mind-body split established by Descartes, convergent lines of evidence accumulated during the 19th century that the brain is the center of mental activity, the seat of emotion, thought, self, and morality. Laboratory research established that control of specific functions (such as movements or behaviors) was localized to specific areas in the brain. For instance, electrical stimulation of specific sites in the brains of experimental animals was reliably observed to cause or disrupt specific functions such as leg movements, or expressions of fear or rage. Discovery and exploration of electricity supported a dawning understanding of the role of electrical phenomena in nervous system activity, while other studies also indicated a role for chemical agents.

You may have come across this structure/function connection before. The idea that structure and function are intimately linked so that knowledge of either is complementary to the other is a fundamental concept of the life sciences we studied extensively in understanding evolution, molecules and cells (Life Sciences Primers I and II). Here we will see the same concept is also key to organs (such as the brain) and systems (such as the visual and nervous systems).

Another powerful argument for localization of brain function was provided by studies of patients that repeatedly linked specific emotional, behavioral, or cognitive deficits with damage to specific areas of the brain. Most compelling were the documented examples of dramatic behavioral changes after damage to the brain. Phineas Gage is one such famous case, where a pleasant, sociable and reliable railway worker suffered the passage of an iron rod through his cheek and the front of his brain during an explosion (Figure 6). At first his miraculous physical survival was widely heralded, but then he began to exhibit huge changes in behavior. This formerly well-respected and popular man became irritable and aggressive, hostile, and unreliable, lost his job and became a social outcast.

Another case that argued for localization of brain function was that of "Tan," reported by the surgeon Paul Broca in 1861. Tan had a stroke (when lack of oxygen to brain tissue leads to the death of that tissue) that left him able to speak only one word, "tan". Broca dissected Tan's brain after his death and found that the left frontal lobe had been damaged. This plus other clinical cases argued for the localization of speech to what is now called "Broca's area." This was more evidence that you could 'map' the brain—that is relate one area to one function—and mapping the functions of the brain became a central focus of neuroscience (Figure 7).



Figure 6: Phineas Gage's famous injury. After Phineas Gage had an accident and suffered the passage of an iron rod through his cheek and the front of his brain, he exhibited huge changes in behavior.



Figure 7: Paul Broca. Broca's dissection of the brain of his patient Tan led to the discovery of localization of speech control in an area of the brain later named "Broca's Area."

ग़ॖॸॱॻऺऺऺऀॱख़ॱॺॖॖॎऺऀ॓ॴॱॺॕॱॺॕॱॺॺॱऺॖॖॖ॓ॸॱऺऺॺॺॱॸऺड़ॖॖॸॱढ़ऺऀॻॱॸॸॾॖॖ॓ऀ॒ॴॶॻॺॵॖॖॱॾॗॖऺॖॖॸॱॻऄॕक़ॱॻय़ऀॱड़ॖॖॖॸॱॻॺॖऀक़ॱढ़ऀॻॱढ़ऀऻ ૹ૾ૢૺ[੶]ૼ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ [,]तव[,]भग्नन् झ'रुणणणण् वृन्'(ग्नन् भदे'श्वर्त्त्यान् न्त्या, हु, पळें' क्रूत्त्र लुरुष भदे 'न्यर्त्योष'श्वर्त्या यत् क्रथ्य विभवे वन् ୩ଵୖ୲ଵୖ୩)ୖ୶୕୩୮୳ୖୖୡୄୖ୷ୠୄୢୖୢଈୠୄୖୢୄ୴୶ୖ୶୶୶୶ୖଵ୶୳୳ୡୖୖଌ୕୕୩ୄ୷୵ୖ୵୕ୖ୰୶୲୶୶୲୩ଵୠୄ୳୷୷୴୵୳ୖଢ଼ୣଽ୕୵୶ୄୠ୳୰୵ୄୄୠ୵୲ୖୖ୶ୖଽ୕୵୩ [૾]૿૾ૹૻૻૹ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ ઙૢૢૢઌ૰ૻ૾ૼૹૻૡૺ૿૽ૣૼૼૼૡૻ૽ઙ૽ૢ૽ૺૢૼૻઌૻૻઽૻઌૡૢ૾ૺૡૼૻૹ૾ૢઌૻઌૢ૿ૹૻઌૻૼૢૻૹ૾૾ઽ૽ૻૢ૾૾૾૾૾ૻૹૢ૿ઌ૾ૡ૽ૼૻ૽૱ૻૻ૾ૻઌ૽ૻૡ૽ૻ૱ૻૹ૽૾ૡૻ૽ૡૼૡૻૻ૾૾૱ૹૻ૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡૻ૽ૡૻ૽ૡૻ

ग़ॖॸॖॱॻढ़ऀॱख़ॱॺॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖज़ॱऄ॔ॱऄॖ॔ॸॖॱ॒ॺॺॱदेॺॱॸड़ॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॱढ़ऺॖॎॺऻॱज़ॖॖऺॷॴॺॱॻॖॖॖॖॖऺॱॾॖॖॖऻॸॱॻॖॖॖऺॖड़ॱॻऄॕॱक़॓ॱॸॱॻढ़ॎक़ॱढ़ऀॻॱढ़ऀॱक़ड़ॱॸ ୶ୄଈୣୣୣୠ୶୶୳ୡୖ୲୵ୄୢୠୖ୲ୡ୷୲୶୶ୖଌ୕ୣୠୖ୰ୖ୵ୄୖ ᠊᠋Ŷᢩᠯ᠉᠊᠋᠋ᢜ᠋᠋ᡏ᠋ᠯ᠋ᠬᠴᢐᢦᡊ᠈ᡃᢩ᠋᠋ᡦᡄᠵᡆ᠋ᡲ᠄ᢁ᠘ᢤᢣ᠘᠂᠘᠋ᠴᡱ᠕᠆᠘᠕᠕᠕᠕᠘᠘᠘᠘᠘᠘᠘᠘ नन्गर्थायदेष्ट्रिम् नेप्त्यायायसंस्त्रायायद्रेम्स्याम्यादेष्यान्यादेष्यान्यम्याद्वेयान् स्त्राक्रीत्रार्थ्याहेस्यान् स्त्रायाविषाह्येन्याययुग् नःत्रनःर्येःहैःग्रुतःगीःनर्देत्रःयद्येयःग्रुतःन्यर्वेःवर्येनःग्रुत्रःयनेन्त्याध्येत्रयाः नेःश्लवेःग्रायात्रात्र वात्रन्यवेः वित्ययाः व ᠺᡏᢆᡵ᠊ᡃᠬ᠋ᢦ᠋᠊ᡆᢆᡃᢖ᠆ᡃ᠋᠊ᡅᡃᡭᡆ᠋᠋ᠬᠬᡃᡎ᠋ᡆᡊᢓᡏ᠊ᡳᡭᡆ᠋᠋᠋ᡃᠭᠴ᠋ᠲ᠇ᢦ᠋᠋ᠴᠵ᠆ᡆᢆᡅᡘᠽᠴᡆ᠋ᢋᢋ᠋᠋ᢋᡎ᠋ ٮڎڎػؚۧٚٚڟ؆ڟڟ؆ؽٵٛٛٛ؆ڹػ٦؞(ڔڬڹػٵڮ)ٳػٚڟڹۿۣڟڮڟ؆ۿڹػڹ؆ۻ؇ڂ؉ٮٵۿٚڟڬؽٮڡڟڰ؇ؿڟ؊ڮڹڮٳڝ

୩ଟିଷ'ୟସ'ଞ୍ଜିସ'ଟି'ସ' ଞ୍ରିଭ'ସ'ଞ୍ଚି ୩ଟି୩'ର୍ମିଷ'ଞ୍ଚିଁ' ୧ କିଁ୩ଷ'ୟ'ଷ୍ଟ 'ସଷ'୩୧୮ କାଁ ୩୧୮ କି୩ଷ'ୟ'ଷ୍ଟ 'ରି'ର୍ମି' କିଁ୩ଷ'ୟ'ଷ୍ଟ 'ରସ' କିଶ୍ୱାର୍ଥ୍ୟ' २५२३ के र्श्रेणळव रेणणे स्र गबिदि क्व गविण के पाथेता क्व गविण यही (क्वें र्श्रेण कव रेणणे र्श्वेव र्श्वेव रेश्रेंव र्श्वेव रेश्रेंव र्श्वेव रेश्रेंव र्श्वेव रेश्रेंव रेश्वेंव रेश्रेंव रेश्वेंव रेश्रेंव रेश्वेंव रेश्वे त्र श्वेंव रेश्वेंव रेश्व व राग्वेंव रेश्वेंव रेश् वांव रेश्वेंव रेश् નેન'નર'પેંનર'ગઢેશ'યલે' રૂર')લ્યેભ'લગ્રુર'નર' ભુજરૂરા સુધાર પાર્ટ્સ સુધાર સાથે સુધાર સુધાર સુધાર સુધાર સુધાર સુધ รอิเด็จาสูงานรายจาลิสา คริราราชีงา(พรายาสูเริง) รารารัรรา (พรัราชาวยารีรายาน เมือง เป็นการสาย เกิน เป็น เป็น เ

<code>ਸ਼ੑੑ</mark>ᡗᠹ᠊ᢛ᠈ᢓᢆ᠆᠋ᡃᡎᡃᠽᡭ᠄)ᢓ᠆ᡣᠬ᠋ᢦ᠆ᡪᡭᡆᡎ᠋ᢦ᠇ᠴᡢ᠆᠇᠃᠉ᢩᡨᠵ᠆ᢦ᠂ᠺ᠋ᢟ᠋ᢆ᠆᠍ᡃᡚ᠂ᠺᡢᢋ᠂ᠺ᠖᠊ᠵ᠇ᠺ᠅᠋ᡎ᠆᠄ᢣᡭ᠂᠋ᢁ᠙ᢩᠬ᠆ᡘᡭᡢ</code> पगार परे प्रदार्रे अप दे दे दु खुर्य प्येना न्ये राषा पहुंगान धुन पश्च ना करे दुन पर्ये दे यान परि का खुर्य रे या नज्जा न

न्मे रेश ७ मे दे 'अर्थ के के हि मा रे मा राषे का के नवे समा क्रेंचि ने दे पदा रे मा मिंट पा खटा पर के के द ๛ๆเอิจาสุรารราชาเวลมายากสู้รามรายสายรู้ *ૹૢ૽ૺ૬*ઃඞ૾ૢૺ૾ૻૣઌ૾ૺૹૹૣ૾ૼૼૢૼૻઌ૿ૻૡૣ૾ૢૢૢૢૢૢૻૢૢૢૢૻૻઌૻૻૢૻૼૼૻૻૼ૱ૹૻ শন্দি



न्मेर्रेश " मॅल्ग्मेर्रेग मॅर्नेगण्धेश्रान्त्यी नक्ष *ૹ૾ૢૢૼૼૼૼ*ઽ૽૱ૢૺૼૢૼૻૻૹ૾ૡ૽૾ૺ૱ૢૻઌૻઌ૽ૻઌ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ न्छन् छुरु म्या सन् मित्र हिंद् नु म्या मी महेन मन ^२४८४ प्रहें त. ग्रेन प्रते रंग हिला ने क्रेन पर्य न के रा ૡૢઌઽૢૺૠઙૢૺૹઙૢૻૻ૱ૼૼૼૼૼ૾ૼૼૼૼ૾ૻૼૼૼ૾ૻઌૻૻ૾ઌ૿૾૾ૻ૱ૡૢઌૺ૿૿ૡ૾૾૱૱ઽ

ব্দ্র্র্যাম্য:ন্ত্রুমার্দ্র্যান্



As is often the case in science, evidence from new experimental techniques also contributed to a shift in paradigm; these new techniques allowed for staining tissues to identify cells and complex cell structures. Such techniques at last exposed the extent of the brain's complexity and provided the first insights into how the brain might actually be complex enough to produce the phenomena we experience as mind, consciousness, experience, emotion, and volition. The illustrations in Figure 8 are histological drawings by Ramón y Cajal, the great Spanish anatomist, of the cellular organization of the retina (we will discuss the retina and brain and their roles in vision in much more detail below).

Thus, the brain, which had appeared for so long as inert and relatively unstructured, became recognized as by far the most active, most structurally and functionally complex organ in existence, and it became the focus for studying the basis of human experience and behavior.

Intriguingly, the entirely unanimous consensus of scientists that the brain is the control center of behavior and thought has not ended discussions and controversies over the mind/body dualism championed by Descartes four hundred years ago. Whereas Tibetan physicians tend not to separate mind and body, the mental and physical, when treating illness—or they at least consider both as potential contributors to disease—many Western physicians treat only the physical, only the biological and chemical, without considering the mind and mental. Some Western physicians see the physical as the whole story; there is no 'mind' at all. It is all body. The field of psychiatry in the West is based largely on the assumption that mind equals body.

A mutual growth in understanding of illness and the treatment of it is clearly one of the potential 'profound benefits' of collaborations between East and West referred to by the Dalai Lama in his speech quoted above.

Today, neuroscientists agree on several core concepts that guide the work of the field. These are summarized in the box on the following page. Neuroscientists seek to understand how the nervous system, brain, and mind work, partly because we are curious and hope to add to human self understanding, and partly to create knowledge that helps prevent and treat suffering. In this series of neuroscience primers, we explore current knowledge and understandings about these core concepts and concerns.



Figure 8: Histological drawings of the retina by Ramón y Cajal, the Spanish anatomist.

one important organ: Facts about the brain

Complexity: 100 billion neurons (nerve cells) with over 100 trillion synapses (nerve cell connections)

Energy requirement: makes up only 2.5% of total body weight, yet uses 25% of the body's total oxygen consumption and 25% of glucose

All that work, but less than 5% of the information about internal and external worlds collected and processed by our nervous system ever reaches consciousness.

બેંન જ્વાયું અન્ય સુરાજ્ય સાથે છે. વશુરુ:શુ:ચેન

<u>র্</u>ষামন্দিন্দ্র্মীর্ষামনি ૡઽ૾ૺૡૺૡ૽ૣ૿ઽૻૻૻૻૼ૱ ૡૢૹ੶ૡૢઽ੶બેૼઽૹ੶૽૽ૢૺૡૣ૽ૺઽૢૻૻૼૼૼઽૼ૽૽ૼૢ૾ૻ૱૱ૢૼૻૹ૽૽ૼૺ૾ *ે સુરાદ્ય પ્રાથ*ય સંસ્થાય સાથ સાથ સંસ્થાય સંસ્થાય સાથ સંસ્થાય સાથ સંસ્થાય સાથ સંસ્થાય સાથ સંસ્થાય સાથ સંસ્થાય સ ૡ૽ૼૼઽૹ੶ૹૣઽૢૢઽૡ૽ૡ૽ૺૡૼૹૼૼ૽૱ૢઽૻઽઽ૱ૣૢૼ૱ૡ૱ૢૣૹૻ अन्रन्तुन्र्रेग्रेविनकुक्वार्थ रेप्रेय વેન ર્શેન છેલ્લા

र्हेगाय्हेरळेखुण्या यनेप्यन्तर्ज्ञ्झ गतिगमा.(रेयर.इ.स.सेर.)इर.ज्ये. ७०० ' સ'સુંદ'મી' વસેવ્ય અઢંચચ્ય) દ્વિત્ય દિવ્ય છે ' ગ १०० নক্রমানার্থিনা

মুদ্র'দ্র'শার্ব'শ্বার্কুম্যা

न्नन्द्रें द्यान्रु छेत् विय

ઽ૽ૼૹૼૼૼૼૼૼૡ૾ૻ૾ઌૻૻઌૻૻૡ૽ૻ૱ૡૻ૱૱ૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ শ্রন'শবর্ষ'থ্রেশব্য'মার্ক্টর'র্মার্র'র্মি



૬નગર ૨૪ જ વ રેવા વી ગજ્ઞ વ વાલે ૧૮ લ્વા વે ગળવે છુ. વાલવા ગણવ લા જીવા છું વ છું ન ત્યાં તે તે વાલે સ્વાય છે તે આ দ্রিক্ষা विद्याली के रिये रियो. नषार्ररः हेन्ग्यारः विषाध्वेदाधेवः धनः हेवाषायाषान्यते छेन्येवे त्या धरः र्धेवाषायाववः वषाधेते त्य्यों पते न्यातः ध्रूवा ૨૮૪ૐૹૡૹૡ૽ૡ૱ઽ૮ઽઽૡ૽૽ૡૹ૱ૡઽ૽૾ઽૡઽૡ૽ૡૡ૱ૡૡ૽ૡૡ૱ૡૡ૱ૡૡ૱૱૱૱૱૱ ઐૅૅॺॖॱॿॸॱऀॿऺऀऺऀॸॱॸॾॸॱॻॖॱक़ॖॗॱऀऄॺऻ

ॺॊ॔ॸॱॸॖॖॱड़ॸॺॱॸय़ऀॱ॰ॺॊ॔ॸॱॺॱॺळॅज़ॱॺऀॱॺॺॖड़ॱय़ॾऀॺॱॸॆय़ऀॱॺॸॱऒॺॱॳॺॱॳॾॱय़ॾॖ॓ऀॴॱॺॕॣ॓ॺॱॻॺॸॱॸख़ऀक़ऻ वनःनन्नेवेः

૱ૺૼૡૢૻૡૢૻ૽ઌૻૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૹ૽૾૾૾ૡ૽૽૱ૻૡ૾૾૱૾ૻૡૻઌ૾૾ૡૻઌ૾ૻૡૻૡ૾૽ૡૻ૽ૡ૾૾ૡૻ૽ૡ૾૾ૡૻ૽ૡ૾૾ૡૻ૽ૡ૾૾ૡૻ૽ૡ૾૾ૡૻ૽ૡ૾૾ૡૻ૽ૡ૾ૻૡૻૡૡૻૡ૾ૻૡૻૡૡૻૡૻૡ ୴୵ୠୣୣୣ<mark>୳</mark>ୖୢୄଔୣ୶୶୳ୖୖ୷ୠ୶୳ୄୖ୷୶୶ୄୖୄ୷୶୶ୖୄଌଡ଼୲ୖୄୢୖୄୡୖ୶ୡ୶୶୕୶୶ୖ୶୶୶୵ୠୄୄ୲୷ୖୢୄୄୄୄ୲୷ୖୄୢୄ୴୷୶୶୲ଵୖୣୡଡ଼୲୕ୖ୕ୡ୶୴୷ୖ ୖ୬^୲ୖୠୄ୵୳୵୲*ଞ୍*୶୲୵ୄୄୄୄୄ୶ଽୄ୵ୠ୶୲୵ୄୄୄୄ<mark>ୠ</mark>୕ୄ୵ୖୄୄୄୄ<mark></mark>୴୷ଡ଼ୄୄୄୄୄୄୄ୷୵୲୵୳୵ୖୖୡୣୣ୴୲ୖୖୄ୴ୄୖୄଢ଼୵୕ୣଵୣୖ୶୲ୡୖ୕ୖ୕ୖ୕ଈ୲ଌ୳୶୳ୖୢୠୄୣୣୣ୵୲୰ୖୣୣୣୖ୲୵ଽ୶୲ <u></u>चन'कुप'र्ध्रेषाबायदे'ङ्कव'य'त्वप्रतिवा'गैबा'र्थन'ळन्'गत्रुगबल्युर'ग्री'र्केबाखु'पक्षबावबाकेबबाय'गठव'वका ଌୖ୲ୣ୵୳୵୵୶ୖୄୖଽୣ୵୳୶୲ଌ୶୶୕ଌୄୣ୵ୄୠ୶ୄଶୢ୕୲ୄୢୢୢୢୢୄ୶ୣ୷୳୵୳୵୷ୣଌୄ୲ୖ୕୕ୄ୩ୄଵ୵ୖୖୄଌ୲ୣଡ଼୷ୄ୲ୠୄ୷ୄୠ୷ୄୠ୷୷୷୶୲୶୶୲୶ୡ୲୷ୠୡ୶ ڴਗ਼ਸ਼੶ॸੑୖ੶ਗ਼ਲ਼ੑੑੑ੶ਗ਼ਲ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਗ਼ਗ਼ਸ਼ਗ਼ਗ਼ੑੑੑੑਸ਼ੑਗ਼ੑਲ਼ੑ੶ਸ਼ੑਫ਼ੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਖ਼੶੶ਸ਼ੑਖ਼੶੶ਸ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਗ਼ਸ਼ਖ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑਗ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਖ਼ੑੑੑੑੑ੶

ळंद्र'रेण'गे'नक्तून'रेअ'दर'ण्पर'अर्घेर'क्तु'र्थेन'य'नबिदा नह्नण'नधन'ग्री'धनष'र्ख्याणषर'य'णकेर'न'य'श्रहेंन' - प्रति'न्धनः म्हणबाने 'नणाणीबाणविने रेक्षाण्ची क्रेंक्षणविति 'यार्धेणबानक्रुराण्ची के प्रति' ने बाक्ष राणवित् 'या क्रिंग विद्या प्रति 'या क्रिंग व प्रति 'न्या प्रति 'या क्रिंग विद्या 'या क्रिंग विद्या प्रति 'या क्रिंग विद्या प्रति 'या क्रिंग 'या क्रिंग 'या क 'या क्रिंग 'य યપે નગાગીયા સાસુદાનદાર્જુના વર્દ્દે દારુવા છે. સાસુદાગી નગોનિયા દેશા કેવા ચાસુ સુદાગુના ગાર્જી વર્ષ્ટ સુગાયલે : ุณฆาฐัณาริ ซิ) นาวิรา ยนพาษิพาริ รุญาติพาฆยราฏรานนิ รัฐญานธิ์ ราติ ฃอสพานนายิรานรัฐ เอพาพ์ราญ ริรามา สๆ ร้ารุตาติพาฆรานสิำสู้ตานรี้เราตำณฑูราชนพรุตาณพาพิมพารุรา ศิพาชีรา ยังราต พิมพายังรา ภูสาชัรา ૡૢૻૡૢૡ૾ૺૡૢૹૹૻ૾૱૾ૢૼૻઌ૽૿૾ૺઌ૾૾ઌૹૻ૽૾૾ૡૢૻૡૻૹ૾૽ૡૻૡૡ૾ૺૡૻૢૺઌૡૡૻૹ૽ૢૹ૽ૣૺૹૻૣૺૹૻૣૹૻૣૹૻૣૹૼૡૡઽૡૢૹૻૡ૾ૻૡૢૻૡૻૡ૾૾ૡ૾૽ૡ૾૽ૡ૾૾ૡૡૡ૽ૡ૽ૡ

CORE CONCEPTS IN NEUROSCIENCE

Neuroscience is a rapidly changing and evolving area of research. Even so, neurosci entists agree on several key concepts that are central to this field of study. Here are some of these key points, based on a list developed by the Society for Neuroscience. More information can be found at http://www.sfn.org/index.aspx?pagename=core_concepts.

- A. The nervous system controls and responds to body functions and directs behavior.
 - 1 The brain is the body's most complex organ. It is made up of specialized cells (about 100 billion!) called neurons. Each neuron communicates with many other neurons to form circuits and share information. The nervous



Neurons from the hippocampus growing in culture

system inter-acts with all other body systems (cardiovascular, endocrine, immune, etc). Proper brain function is very important: malfunction can lead to mental and physical disorders.

- 2 Neurons communicate using electrical and chemical signals, which form the basis for all thoughts, perceptions and behavior. Electrical signals called action potentials travel along a neuron, and synapses are the junctions between neurons where information is passed. Communication between neurons is strengthened or weakened by a person's experience and activities (e.g., exercise, stress, and study or meditation).
- B. Nervous system structure and function are determined by both genes and environment throughout life.
 - 1 Neuronal circuits are the foundation of the nervous system. They are formed by genetic programs during fetal development and modified through interactions with the internal and external environment throughout life. Sensory circuits (e.g., touch, sight, hearing) bring information to the nervous system, whereas motor circuits send information to muscles and glands.
 - 2 Life experiences change the nervous system. Differences in genes and environments make the brain of each animal unique. Most neurons are generated early in development and survive for life, but some neurons continue to be generated later in life. Continuously challenging the brain with physical and mental activity helps maintain its structure and function.
- C. The brain is the foundation of the mind.
 - 1 Intelligence arises as the brain reasons, plans, and solves problems. The brain makes sense of the world by using all available information, including senses, emotions and memories. Emotions are based on value judgments made by our brains and are manifested by feelings such as love, anger, empathy and shame. The brain also learns from experiences and makes predictions about best actions in response to present and future challenges.
 - 2 The brain makes it possible to communicate knowledge through language. This exchange of information and thought can both create and solve many of the most pressing problems humankind faces.
- D. Research leads to understanding that is essential for development of therapies for nervous system disorders.
 - 1 The human brain creates a natural curiosity to understand how the world works. The nervous system can be studied at many levels, from the interactions among individual molecules, to complex behaviors such as speech or learning (see Figure 2).
 - 2 Fundamental discoveries promote healthy living and treatment of disease. Neuroscience research has formed the basis for significant progress in treating a number of disorders.

พลามการุณา์ชิญาลิณาจาณ พการาพารรัฐการารุญา

ᡎ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡪᠴ᠋᠉ᢣᢧᠯᡭᡭ᠊᠋᠊᠋᠊᠋᠊ᢩᢖᡪᡃ᠋ᡚᢋᡄᡃ᠋ᡎᡶ᠋᠉ᠡᡐ᠉᠊᠋ᢋᢂ᠉ᢋᢂᠴᡓᡬᡊᡆ᠉ᡆᢄᡓᢅ᠆ᠭ᠊ᢅ᠋ᠱ᠆ᡅᠧ᠇ᡱᢁᢩᡝ᠕᠂ᡭᡭᢘᢋ᠆ᡘᠼ᠉ᡷᡆ᠋ᠴᢄ᠂᠗ᢋᡃᡚᡏᠯᢆᢣ᠉ᡊᡲ᠉ᡭᡭᠬᡆᢆ᠋ᠴ᠆ᡊᡆ᠋᠆ᢣᡝᡭ᠊᠋᠋ᢍᢂᠴᢄᡃᠽᡎ᠔ᡃᡆᡘ᠆ᡢᡊᡇᡢ 3

ᡎᡆ᠋ᡣ᠋᠊ᡵᢌ᠋ᢂ᠂ᠬ᠋ᡃᡆ᠋ᡏᢅ᠆᠋᠄ᡆᢆᡒ᠄᠋ᢓ᠆᠋ᡃᠴᡬᠴ᠋᠋᠋ᠴᡆᢂ᠋ᠬᠴ᠋ᠴᡄ᠈ᢅᠪᢂ᠂᠋᠋᠋ᠳ᠋᠆ᡬᡬ᠕᠂᠋ᡃᢆᢧ᠄᠈ᢓᢆ᠆ᡪᡆ᠋᠋ᡢᡃ᠋ᢧ᠆᠄ᢓ᠆᠋ᡃᠴ᠇᠋ᡬ᠆᠋

न्दा विंदहिन्दा अक्ष्यर्श्चेन्यीयम्भययन्दा देळव्यर्थवम्यदेदेविंद्यस्यदेवन्तुव्युन् नेत्रयवन्त्रा यत्मयवन्त्रयविश्चेन्यन्याय्यस्यप्रान्द्यविन्यत्त्य विद्यत्त्यवन्त्रय्वत्यत्त्य विद्यत्त्यवन्त्रत्यवेन्यायः

ग] यानग्वर्भस्रम्यस्र ग्रे हेवरनेन

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બદ છેન ધરેની નવર જ અભવાવીએ ભુષાસુર વી અભવા (ગ્રુર જ અભવાનર) નર ક્રેન અભવા ન વર ભવેવા આવવા બાર્ચવાયરા)વાલન ગુન મરાયત હું ન અભ્યા એક પ્રારંગના ગ્રામ પ્રાયમ મરાવી છે. આ પ્રાયમ છેને પ્રાયમ પ

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नगरः इत्वतं रेगांवे ग्रिश्वाग्वस्रणः नुप्वेर्गप्रयुरूरनरः प्रयेणः कुभावर्षे ग्विवाग्वे विगण्द् गांगे हेवगावि विगारेन् ने भूरत्ववरः नगरः इत्ववं रेगा ন'রঝম'গ্রীম'রীয়াম্বর্ম'ব্বীধাবম'ব্বীধাবম'বি নার্ট নীদ্বাতি বার্টি ম'বেইর'গ্রীম'বাদর'বেনিবম'ন্তম'র্থনি বাপবম'বামব্বী'নবন'স্ক'র্জর'রীবাম স্তর্ব ᢜᡏ᠋ᡣᢂᡃ᠋᠊ᢔᢧ᠋᠉ᠴᡏᠶᢅᢋ᠄ᠴᡭᡆ᠌᠊᠍ᠮᢆ᠋᠊ᡏᡁᢩ᠋᠋᠊ᠲᢩᠵᢋᠵ᠇᠋᠋ᡃᠭᢂᡣ᠋ᠴᡭᡄ᠋᠋ᡩ᠙ᠴᡭ᠋ᡎᡆᠬ᠅ᡭᡆ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡆ᠋᠋᠋ᢪ᠖ᢆᠯ᠋ᢉᡆ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᠿ᠋᠋᠋ᢆᡦᡎᢣᡗᢤᢂ᠋ᡇᡏ᠆ᢅᡘᠼᡸᡭᡆᠯᢂ᠈ᡘᡭᠼ᠄᠌ᡈᡆᢂ

*`*ळे८'र्'्सु*र'पंदे'गवि'*क्तुंदे'वर'अर्ळे'ह'अंदे'र्'नर'र्'र्स्र'गडुगशायग



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NATURAL HISTORY: EVOLVING SENSES AND A BRAIN

Of course, while we humans for centuries have been exploring and struggling with figuring out how we sense the environment and think thoughts, this organ system—the central nervous system (or CNS) made up of the brain and its complementary components-that we're using to do all that struggling and figuring has been around and evolving for millions of years. Just as looking at the societal historical context of the development of neuroscience gives us a richer understanding, so does looking at the natural history, the evolutionary context of our brains, the seat of our minds. Looking at the evolution of brains will lead us into an exploration of how and why our brains evolved and then of what our brains have so far evolved into, what they now look like-their anatomy.

Let's refresh our brains on evolution. In Life Sciences Primer 1, we discuss the central themes of evolution: (1) the different environments that organisms experience greatly affect them and vice versa; (2) evolution integrates simple rules to develop complexity by conserving what works and using simple building blocks to create diversity; and (3) structure reflects function and vice versa. These themes all emerge in life according to Charles Darwin's tenet of natural selection: organisms that happen to have the collection of traits that best fit a particular environment will be 'naturally selected' by that environment and will thus have more offspring. Following this principle of natural selection and the three central themes of evolution, which are manifested at all biologic levels-molecules, cells, tissues, organs, organisms, and populations of organisms-all organisms evolved from a common ancestor. We can develop family Figure 9: Family tree from Life Sciences trees demonstrating the relative relatedness of all species (Figure 9).

Keeping the principles of evolution in mind, how might something as complex as the human brain evolve? As a way into thinking about where and how our brains and the rest of our central nervous system began and evolved, let's think about what our brains-together with the rest of our bodies-are capable of doing now in us modern humans.

Look again at the pictures of His Holiness at the start of this primer. Remember we asked you what you saw and felt when you looked at these photos. Seeing them, you might experience recognition, happiness, love, peace, or other thoughts and emotions. As biologists interested in the brain and human behavior, make a list of all the different processes that must happen in us when we 'experience the pictures'.



Primer 1.





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રેઢાંગુવાંને) વર્તુષાંસ્ભાંતમાં લાલમાં લુમાંચુમાં નગમાંથી સુંભૂવા સુંભૂવા જેલ્વા જેલ્યા સાથવાય સાથી રેઢાયાં સેંસાં

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*বিষ*শ্বাম্বন্য'শ্বন্ नेरः(वृषाबार्धाते आय्यणाः श्ले) यान्यान्तन्देते जुत्ता यद्ये व्याप्य व्याप्य व्याप्य व्याप्य व्याप्य व्याप्य व्य ૹુઃૹ૽૾ૹ૽૱ૹૺૹ૾૾૽)૽૾ૢૺ૽૾ૢ૽ૺૼૢૺૼ૾ૻઌ૽ૼૻ૾ૻૼૹૻૻઌૻૻૹઽૻૻૼૡ૽૿ૺ૽૾ઽ૾ૺઽૡૡૺઌૻૡૹૄૢૻૢૢૻઽૻઌૹૄૢૼૼૼૼ૾ૻૹ૾૽ૢ૾૱ૻૢૻ૽ઌૣૻ૱ૹ૽ૡ૽ૼ૱ૡૻઌૼૼૼઽૻઌ૾ૼૼૼૼૢૺૻ૾૾ૼૻૹૻૻૹૻૻ૱ૻૻૼૻ૾ૼૹૻૻૡૻઌૻૡૻૻ૱ૻૻૹૻૼૹૻૡૼઌ૱ૹૻ ૹૼૼૼૼૢૻઽ૾ૺૼૼૼઌૢૻઌ૿ૻ૽ૺૡૡૺઌ૾ૻઽ૾ૺૼૼૼૺૹૻઌૻઌ૱ૢૻૢૼૢૻૻઌ૾ૼૺ*૾૾ઙ૾ૢૺ૽ૺૹ૾ૼઌૻૢૹૼૢૢ૽ૢૻૢૢૢૢૻૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૻઌૻઌૼઌૢૻૢૢૢૢૼૼૻઌઌૻઌૢ૽ૼ૱ઌઌૻઌ૽ૼૡૢૻૼઌૻ૾ૡૡ*૽ૡ૽

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As you develop your list, you may want to consider the discussion we present in Life Sciences Primer II about what happens when we touch a hot cup of chai. How do we experience touching the cup? How do we respond? Why? How is responding to touching a cup of hot chai different than responding to pictures of His Holiness? How might such differences be reflected in our biological response?

At the most basic level, your list of what happens when you look at the images of His Holiness should include these phenomena:

- 1. sense
- 2. take in and interpret what is sensed
- 3. respond.

These are the three most basic challenges of any organism (and of any cell, for that matter; see Life Sciences Primer II). Even the simplest organisms on earth, single-celled bacteria and yeast, can carry out these three basic steps. In Life Sciences Primer II, we discuss whether bacteria can sense. Monks and nuns we were teaching in Dharamsala designed experiments to test this question: are bacteria sentient beings? They grew bacteria and observed them under the microscope responding to the environment. Everyone agreed the bacteria were responding, but there was disagreement on whether this counted as being 'sentient'.

Biologists see these bacteria and other single-celled organisms as definitely responding. And if you appreciate the concepts of evolution, you shouldn't be too surprised that many of the basic mechanisms and molecules involved in sensing and responding are similar in these single-celled organisms and in us. For example, the molecules that yeast, single-celled eukaryotes, use to communicate are basically the same ones that our nervous system cells (neurons) use to communicate; it's just that our cells use many more and more diverse molecules to do so.

And, whereas one species of yeast cells may contain at the most two to three different cell types, humans have evolved many different types of cells that have special and coordinated functions. The evolution of cooperation and multicellularity is discussed in Life Sciences Primer III.

Let's elaborate the list above; our three basic sensing phenomena begin to re-

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 quire more complex biology. For example, we could add to the list as follows:

- 1. sense: use our eyes to detect the light reflected from the images;
- 2. take in and interpret what is sensed: transfer the information experienced in the eye as light into another kind of signal that can go to the brain, and the brain perceives this image as that of His Holiness;
- 3. **respond:** signal from the brain based on interpretation leads to relevant response, for example, to the hand muscle to pick up the pictures, to the eye to keep looking at the images.

A huge leap occurs here in step 2—a huge leap in structure and function and capacity. We leap from sensing like bacteria and reflexive sensing (like we do in response to feeling a cup of hot chai) to perception. In Life Sciences Primer II, we discuss basic sensing; here we move to perception, or the complex interpretation of that sensing. How does the brain construct a perception? For example, how does your brain take what you see in the pictures of the Dalai Lama, recognize the picture as a person first of all, and as the Dalai Lama, and mix in past experiences, feelings, plans, and ideas to emerge very quickly with a perception of those pictures and even the construction of new experiences? To begin to explore these questions, let's trace how the capacity to move from sensing to perceiving may have evolved.

Clearly, without many different types of cells working together, the capacities outlined in our more refined and complex list above would not be possible. Single cells eventually—over millions of years—evolved the ability to differentiate, that is, to develop into different types of cells working together within one organism. As seen in Life Sciences Primer III, the slime mold, Dictyostelium discoidum, is an example of a contemporary organism that represents the evolutionary transition from single-celled to differentiated multicellular organism.

Slime molds live anywhere in the world where there is a cold, moist, dark forest floor. They exist as single-celled organisms until they sense a lack of food. Then they send out a signal along the forest floor that tells the single cells of the slime mold nearby to gather together. Once these single-cells gather and reach a critical mass of about 100,000 cells, they essentially become a multicelled organism that moves around as a slug on the forest floor and then, if still no food is found, quite dramatically begin to differentiate, that is, form new types of cells (Figure 10). The slug stops, shrinks, and its cells differentiate to



types of cells (Figure 10). The slug stops, shrinks, and its cells differentiate to Figure 10: Life cycle of a slime mold.

નચે રેશ્વ ૧૦ હાગા સત્ત લેવા વી રહેવે વર્ષે ત્ર સુવા



ને 'બા શુવા 'સુદ ' કે 'ગ્રુદ ' લેદ : સૂત્ર 'બા જ્ઞુવા ' રુચ બ્લે વર્ષ અપે ' સ્વ ' અપે ' સ્વ લે બા ' અપે ' ' અવે ' બેદ ના જ્યાં ' અપે ' અપો '

form a base, a stalk and, at the top of the stalk, a bag of spores. The spores are very tough and can survive lack of resources and most other environmental challenges. Eventually the spores are released across a relatively wide area, and if one happens to land where food is available, it becomes a single-celled slime mold and the cycle continues. Otherwise the spore and its potential new organism remain shut down inside the spore until the environment improves.

Slime molds don't have brains, but they have taken a giant evolutionary step in that direction—evolving the capacity to have different cells do different organized activities within the same organism.

Jellyfish (Figure 11) have taken the next evolutionary leap by evolving a group of differentiated cells devoted to one sense-and-response job—they have a very simple nervous system. For a jellyfish to swim, its skirt (the sheets of cells surrounding the tops of its tentacles) moves in a coordinated fashion over and over again. This movement, the only job of the jellyfish nervous system, is accomplished by a network of communicating nerve cells.



Figure 11: Jellyfish

The worm is the first organism in the evolutionary tree of life in which we see a centralized nervous system—differentiated cells within one system in an organism: a brain communicating with neurons spread throughout an organism (Figure 12). Worms have a tiny brain connected to neurons that run up and down the organism. This organization allows for more complicated behaviors.

Insect central nervous systems (Figure 13) demonstrate increased complexity of sense-and-response. They have connections called giant fibers which allow insects to respond very quickly to the environment; insects also have many (more than any other type of organism) and diverse types of sensory receptors located on their heads right near their brains, increasing the complexity and speed of response.

Insect brains are very small (see the grasshopper, Figure 13), of course, but do have discernible parts, suggesting evolution of more differentiation and refinement of structure, which, as we see in Life Sciences Primer I, correlates to more refinement of function. These parts indeed correspond to particular behavioral functions. For example, scientists are able to study individual neurons in one part of bee brains. They find that some of these neurons are involved only in vision, while others are involved in vision and smell. And, if you think about the complex social behaviors of insects like bees and ants—they build homes



Figure 12: Earthworm nervous system.



Figure 13: Grasshopper nervous system. Insect nervous sytems, like this one, contain large nerve fibers (circled) which allow them to respond very quickly to the environment.
દ્વો 'રેશા ૧૧ વર્સું હત્યું હતાં તે 'દ્વાર' ક્યા બાળ દ્વો 'રેશ' બંદેર' ગાયબ 'ગ' ગવેલું 'વસુ' શ્વેલ 'શે 'દ્વાર' હતાં બાળા હિંદ્વ' સું ક્રેદ્ર' પંલે 'દ્વાર' હતાં 'ચળા' રહ્યું શે શે 'દે 'દ્વાર' ગોય' અર્શે ગાય' શુરુ ક્રોં આ વિંત 'હુવા' બાળા બાળ ક્રોંદ્વ' ઘર 'રહ્ય બને ગાય છે દ્વા









न्ये:रेश्रा ११ ह:वेगा:वेग

યવે સુષાય વયેવા વશુર ગુદ્દ વ દે દેવા

together, take on specific tasks, signal each other about sex and about location of food—you realize insects do pretty well with their little brains!

The major defining characteristic of vertebrates, our next stop as we climb the tree of life, is the presence of a backbone. This backbone protects the spinal cord, which is a large bundle of neuronal projections that connects to the brain and carries information to and from the rest of the body. Vertebrate brains are again larger and more complex, growing from the end of the spinal cord and still including three parts, the hindbrain, midbrain, and forebrain, but also a fourth part called a cerebellum. The brain and spinal cord together are known, as we noted, as the **central nervous system** or CNS. In mammals like us (Figure 14), brains have evolved two complex parts that are especially large in humans: the cerebellum and the cortex. We will discuss these and other parts of the human brain in more detail below.



Figure 14: Relative brain sizes, complexities, and structures of brains across the animal kingdom.

If you think about the quick climb we just took on the tree of life—from slime molds to humans—we can see some driving principles of nervous system evolution: (1) the number, diversity, and size of the systems increase; (2) these systems move from dispersed network systems like that of the jellyfish to the more centralized 'headquarters' of the brain; (3) most of the important sensing machinery evolved to be together in one place, the head of the organism, presumably to allow for more efficient coordination; (4) each additional level of the system that evolved has not only refined and enriched the system's ability, but also has 'taken control' over the whole system (for example, the mammalian cortex is where much of the capacity for language and consciousness are located); (5) plasticity, the ability of nervous systems to learn and adapt, also increases across evolutionary time.

NEUROPLASTICITY:

The ability of the brain and nervous system in all species to change structurally and functionally as a result of input from the environment.

শশিশ্বন্দইন্দা

নন্দ: স্থি প্রমু সামা পি শা र्श्वेगळगश्र हे रेगश्र गुरु की यान मान राज राज มาณฑาที่) ฏิราณพารราชทุพารฏิภพาจอพาณา ᡏᢆ᠊ᠵ᠊᠙ᡁ᠋᠋ᡢᠯ᠋᠉᠄ᠼᡃᠵ᠈ᡸᢆ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠇᠋ᠴᡭ᠅᠊ᠭ᠋ᢩᠳ᠉᠂᠊᠋᠊᠋᠊᠋᠊᠋᠊ᢓᡃ᠆᠋᠋ᡪᠴᠵ ૽૿૽ૢૺ૱ઽૢ૽ૺૻઽૣઌૢૻૡૻૡૹૢૢૢૢૢૣૣૢૣૣૣૻૢૢઌૻૹ૽ૡૢૡ૽ૻૡૼૡ૱

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५२१'देश। १< अँगाळगशः ग्लेन्गा विंदानु अर्धेननु पॅनन्यदे ग्लन्ना दे प्रेन्य प्रदेश में किंदा के किंदान्ता किंदा के क के किंदा के क के किंदा के क



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BACK TO THE IMAGES: DON'T FORGET THE EYES

If your brain remembers, we started this conversation about brains by thinking about what and how you experience looking at particular images. So far in our discussion of evolution, we've only discussed evolution of brains and the central nervous system. But we haven't yet explored the first step in our list of senseand-response steps: sensing the images; nor have we discussed the eyes and the other parts of the visual system that allow us to see and respond to what we see. Shouldn't we consider their evolution also?

The truth is we should consider the evolution of the visual system as a whole. In Life Sciences Primer I, we discuss how it is the phenotype—the organism's characteristics, abilities, etc.—that interacts with the environment, and thus it is the phenotype on which nature places its selective pressure. In this case, then, our phenotype is the ability to see well and with accuracy. So, it's really the whole visual system (the eye, the brain, the nerves connecting the two) that evolves together as a suite of interconnected structures and functions.

Thus, as the brain has evolved, so too has the eye and the other components of the visual system we'll discuss in a moment. In Life Sciences Primer I we consider the eye and how it might have evolved over the millennia starting from a few light-sensitive cells. To briefly review that discussion (Figure 15A), recall Darwin's basic tenet, in which traits are selected that give organisms survival advantage. If an organism evolved just a patch of cells that were somewhat light-sensitive, it could detect the shadows of an approaching predator, increasing its chances for escape, and thus would be adaptive by increasing the likelihood it will survive. The evolutionary modeler Erik Nilsson shows that if such light-sensitive cells happened to form any kind of depression, by definition the cells across this depression would have differing exposure to light, and so each cell would detect or measure light from different orientation.

Thus, this patch of depressed cells reflected on a backdrop of other cells (a primitive version of which eventually evolved into a retina) carries information that is fuzzy (for example, it cannot detect movement), but is, nevertheless, valuable. Indeed, flatworms that live today (Figure 15B) have just such a basic version of an eye. As in Nilsson's computer model, if the center of the depressed cell patch is constricted, light becomes more focused on the cell backdrop, and light detection improves. This is what occurs in the modern seasnail, the chambered nautilus (Figure 15C). But, 'eyes' like these in the cham-

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Humans belong to a small group of mammals called primates (see Life Sciences Primer I), who share a distinctive set of features related to the evolution of our nervous system. The distinguishing characteristics of primates and their neurological implications include:

HUMANS & PRIMATES

1. forward-facing eyes with overlapping fields of vision, permitting stereoscopic, or three-dimensional sight with depth perception;

2. color vision, which allows for refined interpretation of the environment and of potential mates and prey;

3. increased reliance on vision and reduced use of smell;

4. opposable thumbs (thumbs that move freely from the other fingers), grasping fingers, and sensitive tactile pads on finger tips, allowing for a powerful grip, precision manipulation, and fine touch;

5. increased facial mobility and vocal repertoire, with progressive facial hairlessness;

6. complex social lives; and

7. progressive expansion and elaboration of the brain, especially of the cerebral cortex.

નેશ્વ સુસ્કૃત્વાલવ અત્પર્યેતે જીત્ત્વર્યૂં દ્વાર્ગ્યું દ્વિત્તુ પ્લે સ્પ્યું પ્લે પ્રસ્કૃત વ્યું સુધ્વ પ્લે સુસ્કૃત સુધ સુદ્વ સ્યું પ્લું પ્લ

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Figure 15: Eye complexity and evolution in mollusks. (A) Steps in the evolution of the eye in mollusks reflect many of the principles discussed in hypothesizing how the eye may have evolved. (B) Flatworms have a basic eye consisting of a light sensitive layer of cells similar to the topmost box at left. (C) Chambered nautiluses have a more complex eye, in which the center of the depressed cell patch is constricted, like in the lower three panels in A.





র্মিন্ শ্বি শ্ব শ্বদ শী কেলামা দীমা (উরি স্ট শ্ব শ্বদ দেশ দলদ স্ত শ্ব শ্বদ শ্বদ শ্বদ শ্বদ স্থান প্র

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bered nautilus, in narrowing their centers, significantly decrease the amount of light they let through and thus can detect.

Nilsson notes that evolution found a much better solution than constriction of the cell-patch center: cover the hole/cell-depression with two sheets of clear cells (this became the lens). This allows much more light to be detected by the cell patch and the cells under it. Better yet, when water is added between the two sheets of clear cells, the lens bulges out and becomes rounder, and the image on the cells below it (the retina) gets sharper. The more water, the rounder the lens becomes, the sharper the image. And so, in several relatively simple steps we have a description of possible eye evolution.

Of course, at the same time eyes were evolving, the brain was also evolving as part of the other sensory (like touch and temperature sensing in our skin discussed in Life Sciences Primer II) and motor (motion) systems of the body. It is for simplicity's sake that here we have discussed brain and eye evolution separately.

In thinking again about what happens when we look at the pictures of His Holiness the Dalai Lama, we can refine the steps of that process further:

- 1. sense: use our eyes to detect the light reflected from the images
- 2. take in and interpret what is sensed: transfer the information experienced in the eye as light into another kind of signal that can go to the brain, selecting out and 'seeing' only the image and only the important parts of the image from all the other background, synthesizing all the light and pieces of the image we see into one image that 'makes sense', while attaching to this image emotions and past experiences stored in the brain and thus, perceiving the images as that of His Holiness
- 3. **respond:** signals from the brain based on interpretation lead to relevant response, for example, to the hand muscle to pick up the pictures, to the eye to keep looking at the images, to other parts of the brain and body to feel moved or happy.

But here, as neuroscientists, we run into a bit of a problem.

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બૅન જ્ઞેન અવે બથો બાયવન જેવા જેન ખેતી

WHY DID OUR BRAINS EVOLVE THE WAY THEY DID?

As we have seen, evolutionary biologists have developed good explanations for how brain and central nervous system structure evolved. But how have humans evolved to feel compassion or religious or happy when we look at pictures of His Holiness? Come to think of it, how have we evolved to come up with complicated explanations of ourselves like the ones in this book and in the rest of science and other disciplines? It is not immediately evident how such capacities as being religious, or able to meditate, or fly to the moon would give us a selective advantage, per Darwin's theory of evolution, in the same way as would, say, being able to see well.

The basic answer to this problem from evolutionary biologists involves a phenomenon called **exaptation** (proposed by Darwin and named by Stephen Jay Gould over a century later). Exaptation occurs when a characteristic evolved for one function is later able to be used for another, often unrelated function.

THE PROBLEMS OF LIFE

To build an argument for exaptation, hypothesizing why the brain and such capacities *did* indeed evolve, let's first consider the problems and challenges of simply staying alive. To sustain life an organism must: (1) find and access resources (e.g., food, air, water, light, social and reproductive partners) and (2) avoid danger, while seeking and maintaining optimal and safe conditions.

These challenges are complicated by the fact that the world is complex (for example, resources are not evenly distributed and may be difficult to access), continually changing, and full of other organisms, which are often competing for the same resources. Therefore, another key resource is **information**. Obtaining *relevant* information, understanding it, and acting accordingly are vital for survival. The brain and the rest of the nervous system evolved as solutions to these challenges.

To address these practical problems of staying alive, an organism, of course, needs effective systems, but major constraints—time, energy, and materials— prevent the evolution of *perfect* systems. Besides, because the environment can change at any time, a perfect solution for one situation might be useless a day or a year later. Evolved solutions to life's problems only need to be *good enough* to allow the organism to survive and reproduce.

EXAPTATION:

"A trait that evolved under natural selection for one purpose but which later was co-opted for another purpose".

For example, feathers are thought to have evolved initially for insulation but were later co-opted for flight in birds.

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इस्रबादगादाविणादी द्वारीव्यास्रव्यास्र स्वयादयुर गुरायतेवारीदा

র্বির'শ্রুদা *ᡪᡢᡊ᠊᠋ᡊᡃᡭᡆᡪ᠋ᡃᡆᢎ*ᢋᡃ᠋)ᡪᡄᡃᠵᡃ᠋ᡪᠧ᠆ᢣ᠍ᡁ᠉᠋ᢩ᠋᠊ᡆ᠋ᢖᡪ᠊ᠭ᠙ᡬᡈᢅᢙᢩᡎᠵ᠊ᢓ᠆ᡪᡃᢔᢆᡆᡃ᠋᠋ᡪ᠂ᡎ᠋᠋ᢩᡆᢦᡃᡅᢈ᠊᠉᠋ᠴ᠋ᡪ᠋ᢩᡏᠬ᠉᠙ᡭᠵᡞ᠙᠋ᢜᢁ᠋᠉ᢄᡏᢋ <u>ၛ</u>ित्रसःगठैणॱरत्तःभः त्यात्र र्द्धेतः ग्रेतःग्रेत् रभेः स्वतः द्याःगैसः भित्रसः त्रसः थेंतः सः त्रीयः मेंतः यायाः भावः भिषाः स्वतः <u>ୄ</u>ଶୁ:୳ୄୄୠ୶ୖୠୣ୲୴ୖୠ୶୳ୠୄୢୄୢୄୢୄୄଈୖ୵ଌୖୄ୷ୢୖୄ୶ୡୖ୲୶ୖୄଽ୷ୖ୳ଌ୲ୄୠ୵୳ୖଌୣ୳୲ୖ୴ୡ୲୶୲ୄ୷୷୳୵୵୵୵୵୵୵ଽୖୡ୕୰୲୶୲୴୲୳୲୶୶୲୶୲୲୲୲୶୲

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वेनगपतर्नेन परेना ૼૹૻૹૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૻ૽ૼ૱ૼૺૡૻૻૼૼૻૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૻ૽ૼઌ૽ૼૡૻ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૻ૽ઌ૽ૼૡૻ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૻ૽ૼઌ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡૻૻૼૻ૽ૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡૻ૽ૼૻ૽ૡ૽ૻૡૻ

"झ्रन्भ'त्युर्'' दु'दर्येद'र्यदे' केंब'लेद'दे' त्यन्ने येव र्थेता केंब'लेद'दे' वे'दर'र्वेण'ठर'सेव'ग्रीब'ग्रीब'दर्यी'यर्तेव'रेद'

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୳ୖଵଡ଼ୄ୲ୄୠ୕୵୶୲୴୷୕୶ୖୖଈ୕୶ୖ୶୶୶୶୶ଌ୷୕୳ୖୖୖୖୖୖ୶୲୳ୖଵଡ଼ୄ୲ୄୠୖୖୄୖୄୖଽୄଌ୷୕୵ୡୖ୶୶୲୵ୄୢୄୄୄୄ୴୵ୄୢୄୠ୷ୄୖ୰୷ୖୄ୶୲୶୶୲୴୷୕୶୲ୖ୷ୖଡ଼୕ୗ୷୕୶୲ ู่สร้าผู้สาร์จัมพารุกา สู้มารุกาลร้ารกาทุดสายกาสสาริทารการิทาทุสพาทุดสารุทาภูาทุพณากาลติสุา มิลิาสุทั ૱ૡ૽ૼૼૼૼઽૻૹ૽૿ૢ૽ૺૢૼૼૡૻૻઌૻૻઌ૽૽૱ૻૡૡૢૼૻૻઽૺૡૻૹૢ૽ૺૡૣૡૼઽૺૺૻઌૼૡૹૻૹ૽ૼૡૼૹ૽૿ૢ૽ૡ૽ૺૡૡૼૹ૽ૢ૿ૢ૽ૡૻૡૡૼૹ૽ૢ૿ૡૻઌ૾ૡૼ૾ૻ૱ૻૡૼૡૻઌૻઌ૽ૡ૽ૻૡ૽ ૡ૾ૼૼૼૼૢૹૢૻઽૻ૾ૹ૾ૼૼૼૹૻૻૹ૾૾૱ૹૻૻૡૹઽૻૡૻૻઙૻૻૢઽૻૻ૽૾ૢૺૼ૱ૻૣૹૢૻઌૻઙ૽૽ૢૺઽૻૡૢૻૹૻૻૡૻૻઌ૾ૺૡૻ૽ૢૺૼૻૡૡ૽ૢૺૻૻૼૼૻૡૡૢૻૻૻૡૡૢૻ૱ૡૢૻૡૻૡૡ૽ૺૡ૽ૡ૽

ম্বুনম'ন্য্যুন

૬૬:કૅવાઽવૅૅરઅઑર્વેટેઅગ્વગ્રુઽ:લેવાવ્લ્યુવા ^মঐদ্ভ<u>ে</u>ন'যাপীম'পীয়া'ন'যাঁইনি'ন'থ্যমায়াৰ্ব र्धतेन्वे अयार्वे दिया क्युन मन्त्र मुन्द्रे न या নান্দাইন্য

नमेरता नरमेंग सुभागी के रेन गढ़ेर सुर ૽૽૽૾ૺઽૡ૽ૼૼૺૼ૱૱ૡ૽ૼૼૡૼૼૼૡૹૢ૱૽૾ૼૺ૱૱૱૱૱ ૱ૹ૾ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૼૢૼૻ૽૽ૢ૾ૢ૽ઽ૱૽ૼૣૼૹૻૻૹૡ૽ૼૼૡૹૣ૱ૻ૽ૹ૾ૢૢ૱ૻ वेनर्श्वायायांवेवर्ग्तेन्।

The observation that bigger brains are not always better (and, in fact, big brains have rarely evolved) provides a nice demonstration of the natural constraints on the evolution of mechanisms to address life's problems. You might expect that the bigger the brain, the more capacity to solve problems, and perhaps this is true, but brains are very expensive to maintain (refer back to page 18, "Facts about the Brain"), so their value to the organism must offset their high cost.

It might have been great if we had evolved to be able to detect wavelengths across the entire electromagnetic spectrum you learned about in Physics— from gamma rays to radio waves—but we evolved to see only a very small portion of the spectrum (what we call 'visible light'), from violet to red wavelengths (Figure 16).



Figure 16: A. The full electromagnetic spectrum. B. The parts of the spectrum visible to living creatues varies vastly across the animal kindgom and overall consists of a small portion of the full spectrum.

Other animals, such as insects that can detect ultraviolet light, evolved to see other wavelengths. In all cases, evolution balances the sensory system requirements for sensory organ and brain size and ability with all the other evolutionary pressures and constraints of the environment and needs of the organism. It is probably not a coincidence, for example, that the wavelengths we can detect most easily are the ones that move best through water and are, therefore, the ones most available in oceans, where life first evolved.

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So, we have seen the basics of how brains may have evolved and the constraints placed on that evolution. The next step in our argument to explain how humans may have evolved the capacity to carry out complex behaviors unnecessary for survival is to follow the evolution of a characteristic that is necessary, or at least very important for survival.

For example, early humans had to hunt to survive. The better hunter you were, the more food you got, the healthier you were, the more offspring you had. Humans whose brains had evolved a better ability to imagine where and how their potential prey moved through the forest in three-dimensional space were better able to predict where their prey was at any given moment. Thus, such 'three-dimensional thinkers' would be more likely to find and kill that prey. Such thinking would be selected for by evolution because it would lead to an advantage in obtaining nutritional resources.

While this evolved capacity of the brain to think in three-dimensions was selected for because it improved survival, you can see how humans might also have exapted this capacity for activities entirely unrelated to hunting. For example, such three-dimensional thinking would be useful in designing living quarters or communities, in drawing or in other artistic pursuits. So, whereas a Darwinian explanation of the capacity to do art would at first seem a stretch, here we have developed a reasonable argument for the evolution of such capacities. This is exaptation, and this explains how complex brain abilities, seemingly unrelated to survival, may have evolved.

We started by asking 'how do we see what we see?' Before we could get into the actual mechanics and complexities of vision, we spent some time setting the stage by contextualizing our discussion within the frameworks of science, human history, and natural history. Now we (our brains!) have a sense of how the brain and vision evolved, and also how the study of these systems evolved. Combining this discussion with that of Life Sciences Primers I, II, and III should allow you to follow the rest of this primer on how vision works and how we are able to see what we see.

WHICH PARTS DO WHAT?

Now that we have a sense of how our brains may have evolved, we can think about what our brains have evolved into so far and what the function of its parts are. Again, we'll use vision as our example. Which parts of our bodies

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אָרִיִיהּגישִאיחִריחּאיש:איחרימֿחישָּרימאי

᠊ᡳ᠋ᡃ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋ ୳ଞଷ୍ୟାଦ୍ୟା ନି'ବ୍ୟାଷଣିର୍ମାର୍ଜିନ'ଶ୍ରି'ଦ୍ୟାଞ୍ଜିଦାନ୍ମର୍ଦିଷାଦ୍ୱାନ୍ଦ୍ୟା ନିର୍ଦ୍ଧି ଶ୍ରିଦ୍ୟାଦ୍ୟର୍ମିକ୍ୟାନ୍ଦ୍ୟାଙ୍କ୍ୟାର୍ମ୍ବର୍ମାର୍ଚ୍ୟିନ'ଷାଗ୍ରଷା ୄୖୄୄୗ୰ୄୢୄୠ୷୕୵୳୶୲୵୶୶୲ୄୖୄୗ୰ୢୖୄଈ୕୶୲୴ୗଵୖୖୖୖୖଌ୲୶୷୷୷ୠ୷୲ୢୖୄୗ୰ୖୢଡ଼୲ଢ଼୲ୄଽ୷୷ୖୄୡ୷ୄୠ୷୷ୠ୷୲୷୷୷୷୷୷୷ୠ୷୲ नहरःचेत्रायम्। नर्ळेनाग्रनयानम्यम्टार्थ्वमाळेनाम् १४२४विषायणुराष्ट्रमाळुषानम्। याथमायनीनमार्भेनाग्रीमाग्रीपाग्री *ୄ*ୄ୶ጙ[੶]୵ୡୖ୶୶୲୵ୄୠୄୄୄ୕୷ୄୄୄ୶୰୲ଌୣୄ୳୕୵ୖୖୖଈ୕୕୕୕୕୕୕୕୵ୄ୲୵ୖୖଈୖୖୖୖୖୖୖ୕ୖ୷ୄୄ୲୷ୄୖ୳୶ୖୡ୶୲ୖୡୣୄ୷ୖ୶୷ୠୖୣ୶୲ୖୄୡୄୣ୕ୣ୷ୖୖ୴୷ ଞ୍ଜାମବ୍ୟ'ନ୍ମିନି'ମିଶ୍ୟ'ମ୍ରି:\$ଅଶ୍ୟ'ର୍ଚ୍ଚ' ଶ୍ର୍ୟି୩୮୦୫୶'ସି୩'୩'ଞ୍ଚିକ'ୟସ୍ଥିନି' ଶ୍ରିସ'ମିସ'ମ୍ମଦ'ସି'ମ୍ମଦ' ୩ନ୍ସିଶ'ୟା ୩ନ୍ସିଶ'ୟ' ସରବ୍ୟ'ସ୍ଥି' ସହିନ' ସ୍ଥ'ମ୍ମଦ'ର ଅନ୍ଥିୟ' ସମ୍ଭାୟ' ସମ୍ଭୁମ୍' ૹૡ૽ૼૼૼૼૼઽૻૹ૽૾ૢૺૼ૾ઌૹૻૻૡૢૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼઌ૽ૻ૽૾ૼૼૺ૱ૢૻૻ <u>ઽૻૹૻૼૹૻૻઌૻૻઽૻૻૹ૽ૼૼઽૻૻઌૻઽ૽ૺૼૼઽૺૡૢૻ૱ૼૢૻૡ૽૿ૻૡૢ૱ૹ૽ૼૼૼૼઽૡૢૼૹૻૻઌૼૡ૾ૺૼૼૼૡૢૼઌૻૻઽૻૻૡ૽૽ૼ૱ૻઌ૾</u> तर्योते र्श्वेपन्देनयत्द्दिते वृत्त्वी स्वतृत्त्यः क्षुणावा क्वव्या है स्वयानविवा वित्तु क्रुत्या स्वया प्रदेश क्वत्या क्या प्रदेश क्वत्य क्वया क प्रदेश क्वया क क्वया क्

ଶ୍ରି'ସ୍ତ୍ର'ସଦଣ। ଏଦଂଗ୍ୱା ମଧ୍ୟି ସିଷଂସର୍ବଦଷ୍ମଗୁଶ୍ୱ ଶ୍ରି'ସ୍ତ୍ର'ସା ମି'ସର୍ବିଶ'ଟ୍ର ଞ୍ଖୁ ୫୯୬୩ ଜଣ ୮୮୮ ଜଣି ଐ'ସର୍ଦ୍ଧ ସର୍ବ ၛၣၛႃၯၛၛႄၟၣၛၨၛႝၛႜၓၴၛႄ႞ၰႜ<u>ၣ</u>ႜ႞ၴၹၴႜႜႜဎၬႜႝၛၛၯၛႜၴႍႄႜႜ႞ၛႜၛ႞ၛႜ႞ၛႜ႞ၛႜ႞ၛႜ႞ <u> नःवेःवुबाङलानेः क्वबाहेः क्षूनः</u> <u></u>ᡜᠵᡃᡭᡇᡄᡃ᠋᠂ᠺ᠋᠋ᠻ᠊᠋ᠬ᠊ᡪᠯᢩ᠆᠄ᡚᢅᡦ᠆᠋ᢋᢁᡸ᠋ᢋᢁ᠋᠆᠆᠆᠙ᢓ᠋᠗᠋ᠴ᠋ᠴ᠗᠆ᢣᡅᡭ᠄ᡬᡏᢆ᠋᠋ᡎᡊᡛᡄᢅ᠆᠂ᢐᢋᡃᡚ᠓᠆ᡃᡅᡭ᠂ᠬᢦ᠋᠂ᢋᢩ᠉ᠼ᠋ᡘᢦ᠋᠄ᡃᡛ᠉ᢋ

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ૻਗ਼ૡૹ੶ૡ੶ਲ਼੶ਲ਼ਜ਼੶ਗ਼ૡਜ਼੶ૹ૽੶ਸ਼ਫ਼੶੶ਗ਼ਖ਼૽ૹਖ਼૽ਗ਼੶ਗ਼੶ਫ਼ਖ਼੶ૡ੶ૡਗ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਜ਼ੵੑਜ਼੶ਖ਼ਸ਼੶੶ਗ਼ੑੑੑੑੑૹ੶ૡૻૡ੶૽ૢੑਗ਼੶ૡૻૡ

help us see? Which parts of our nervous system are involved in sight?

To do this, let's start with a British version of a famous Indian story about blind men trying to figure out what an elephant is:

THE BLIND MEN AND THE ELEPHANT

John Godfrey Saxe

It was six men of Indostan To learning much inclined, Who went to see the Elephant (Though all of them were blind), That each by observation Might satisfy his mind.

The First approach'd the Elephant, And happening to fall Against his broad and sturdy side, At once began to bawl: "God bless me! but the Elephant Is very like a wall!"

The Second, feeling of the tusk, Cried, "Ho! what have we here So very round and smooth and sharp? To me 'tis mighty clear This wonder of an Elephant Is very like a spear!"

The Third approached the animal,

And happening to take The squirming trunk within hishands, Thus boldly up and spake: "I see," quoth he, "the Elephant Is very like a snake!"

The Fourth reached out his eager hand, And felt about the knee. "What most this wondrous beast is like Is mighty plain," quoth he, "Tis clear enough the Elephant Is very like a tree!"

The Fifth, who chanced to touch the ear, Said: "E'en the blindest man Can tell what this resembles most; Deny the fact who can, This marvel of an Elephant Is very like a fan!" The Sixth no sooner had begun About the beast to grope, Then, seizing on the swinging tail That fell within his scope, "I see," quoth he, "the Elephant Is very like a rope!" And so these men of Indostan Disputed loud and long, Each in his own opinion Exceeding stiff and strong, Though each was partly in the right, And all were in the wrong!

MORAL:

So oft in theologic wars, The disputants, I ween, Rail on in utter ignorance Of what each other mean, And prate about an Elephant Not one of them has seen!

Do different parts of our body, analogous to these men and the elephant, help us simply see, versus helping us understand what we see? How do we integrate all the pieces of what we see and make meaning of them? That is, how do we sum up, interpret, and evaluate all the information we sense so that we don't miss the whole picture like the 'men from Indostan' do in the poem?

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> ઽૺૹ੶ૢૣૢૢૢૢૼૼૼૼૡૻૹ૽ૢ૾ૺ૿૱ૻ૾ૣૼૼૢૼૻ૱ૢૢ ૢૢૢૢૢૢૺૺૻૡ૽ૺૡૢૺૹૼૹૻૻૡૢઌૣઌૹૻ૽ૼૹૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૢઌૻ ૡૢઌૡૹૻૻૼૼ૱ૹૻૻૡૼૡૻૡ૾ૺૺૼ૿ૹૣઽૻ૽ૹૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૢૢૢૢૣૢૢૣ ૱૾ૺઌઌૻૺ૱ૡૢૡૼૺૻ૾ૹૣૻૺૼૼૺૡૻૻૹૢઌૺૻ૾ૼૡ૽ૺૺૼૡૻ૽ૼૡૢૺૺ ૡૡૻૡૢૼૡૼૻઌૣૼ૱ૡઌૼૡૻૻૡ૾૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૿૾૾ૺૼ૾ૻૣૣ ૹૢૹૻૻઌૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૻૺૡૻઌૡૡૻઌૡૡૻૺૡ૽૾ૡ૽ૺૡૺૺૻ૾૿ૢૺૺ ઌૡૻૻ૾૾ઌ૾ૼૡઌૻૡ૽ૼૡૹૻઌૢૼૹૻૡઌૡૡૺ૾ૻ૾૾ૺ

ڔ૽ૺૡૢઽૻૹૻૢૻ૿ઌૣઽૹ૾ૺૡઽ૾ૺૼૼૼૼ૱ૹૻ૾ૣ ઽઽૻઽઽૼૹૢ૽ૣૻૻઌ૾ૺ૱૱ૡઽૻૣઌૣૻ૾ૡૣ ઙૺ૱ઽૻૼૺૼૼૺ૾૾ઌઽૼૢૼઽૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼઌૢૢૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૺ૱ ૱ૢૼ૱૱૱૱૱ ૹ૾ૢૺઌૻ૾૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ ૹ૾ૢૺૺૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૻ૾ૢૢૼૺૻ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱

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FUNCTIONAL NEUROANATOMY I: PATHS INTO THE PROBLEM

How do we figure out which parts of our bodies are responsible for which functions—a question addressed in an area of study called **functional neuroanatomy**? We hinted at one way into this question in the cases of Phineas Gage and Tan mentioned above. The following stories—focusing especially on vision, but relevant to any brain functions— should help you begin to answer the question. For each story, consider what information is suggested about function, and how you would test to see if indeed that information is correct.

1

Recently, my father went to the eye doctor. When driving at night, he was having trouble seeing road signs clearly. Unfortunately, my dad was diagnosed with two problems, glaucoma and cataracts. Glaucoma is due to insufficient drainage of the fluid in the eye. Cataracts are caused by clouding of the eyes' lenses; half of us will have cataracts by the time we're 80 years old. Fortunately, glaucoma can be slowed, if not cured, and cataracts can be surgically removed. Two years after his initial diagnosis, my dad is doing much better, although he still doesn't drive at night.

2

In the early 1960's a young man visited the offices of two French physicians, Drs. Hécaen and Angelergues (for details see <u>http://archneur.ama-assn.org/cgi/content/summary/7/2/92</u>). The young man reported that he could no longer recognize people, even his own brother. He couldn't tell the difference between his niece and his sister-in-law, when they were sitting on the couch next to each other. He said he had taken to recognizing people by the clothes they tended to wear or how they walked rather than by their faces. The physicians found that the man could see fine; however, they also discovered that the man had a tumor located in a part of his brain called the parietotemporal-occipital region (more on this later).

3

In a famous case described by the neurologist Oliver Sacks in *The Man Who Mistook His Wife for a Hat* (Simon & Schuster, 1985), the man referred to in the book's title, despite the fact that his eyes were working fine, went to retrieve his hat to leave an appointment with Dr. Sacks, but instead of reaching for his hat, reached for his wife's head! This man also had a brain tumor.

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(५९) र्क्नेरज्जूषायार्थेण (गृण्णुष्पया) वेरायादेरा क्रुवाविण ळण्षाया क्रेटा थेना

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णर्हेन्द्रे धुपर्दन् ने र्श्वेतर्त्त्य म्रूर्व् विंत्वी न क्षेत्रे णवत्र स्रूत्य कुरुत्त्य येगव्य स्थित्।

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German scientists published a study in the *Journal of Human Genetics* (2007) looking at students at Banaras Hindu University in Varanasi, India. The scientists identified one student who reported the inability to recognize faces; intriguingly, in this case, several other members of her family reported having the same face-recognition problem.

5

In a 2008 paper from The Vision Center at Children's Hospital Los Angeles, in California, two scientists report that a major cause of children born blind a disease called optic nerve hypoplasia, which results in a malformed nerve important for vision—often occurs together with developmental impairment or other brain dysfunctions. These researchers also found that this disease could be treated with therapies that intervene early to increase the chances of preventing blindness.

6

James Bainbridge and his colleagues, in a breakthrough study, attempted to help children with a different inherited disease that causes blindness, Leber's congenital amaurosis. This disease results from a mutation in a protein that resides in the retina of the eye. Amazingly, Bainbridge was able to restore some visual function in children with the disease by supplying to their retinas a 'good' non-mutant form of the gene encoding the retinal protein.

7

Due to an injury to the occipital lobe of his brain late in life, the painter Jonathan I., in a case described by Oliver Sacks and Robert Wasserman, lost his ability to see color. At first, Jonathan I.'s colorblindness, and the resulting grayness of people, food, and life practically drove him mad, but gradually he came to terms with his life, vision, and painting—now he is a color-blind artist.

8

In other studies, when scientists analyzed families with inherited color-blindness, they found six different DNA sequence mutations in one particular gene (for details see http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10958649). This gene encodes a protein in the retina that is part of a photoreceptor, a 'receiver of light'.

What conclusions can you draw about vision from these stories? You may want to consider our discussion of genetics in Life Sciences Primer II. What logic did you use to draw your conclusions?

pubmed/10958649) ક્રેનિંગ તે વાર્ષ સ્થાયત્ર જાયતે જાયતે સાથવા છે. ' તેને પોલ સાથવા છે. ' તેને પોલ સાથના છે. ' તેને પોલ સાથવા છે. ' તેને પોલ સાથવા છે. ' તેને પોલ સાથના છે. ' તેને પોલ સાથવા છે. ' તેને પોલ સ

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*ઌૡઽૻૻ*ઌૡૻૼૼઽૻઽૼૼ૽ૼૼૼૺ૽૾ૺૹ૾ૼૼૼૢૼૻૻઌ૾૾ૼ૾ઌૻઌૡૻૺ૱ઌૡૻઌૼૡૻઌૼૡૻઌૼૡૻૡૼૡૻૡૼૡૻૡૼૡૡૻૡૼૡૡ૽ૡૼૡૡૡ૽ૡૼૡૡૡૡૡૡ

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Thus, we can discover *how things work normally* in a given process by observing *what specifically has gone wrong when that phenomenon does not occur normally*. In Story 1 about my father, we learn—not surprisingly—that the eye, especially the lens and the fluid below it, is important for vision. From that story, it is evident that the clarity of the lens and the amount and pressure of the fluid are critical for normal vision. Story 6 tells us a part of the eye called the retina is also vital for vision, because when just one protein in the retina is mutant, the result is children who are blind.

Stories 2 and 3—about people who can see fine but have trouble recognizing other people's faces—suggest the addition of two new elements to our story of what parts are necessary for us to see and how those parts function:

More is necessary for vision, or at least the interpretation of what we're seeing, than just the eyes. The brain is also involved, because when the brain is damaged in a particular area, people cannot recognize others, even though the people with this disease, known as prosopagnosia, have no other deficits.

These two stories and the color-blindness stories 7 and 8 tell us that, although the eye and parts of the brain must integrate the many processes that go on to allow vision, many of these processes are also confined to discrete regions in the brain. Cancer or other damage to a specific part of the parietotemporal-occipital region of the brain results only in prosopagnosia. Damage to another discrete part of the brain results in color-blindess.

You can imagine there would be significant evolutionary pressure for the ability to recognize human faces (due to the extremely social nature of our species) and to see in color (due to the need to differentiate food, predators, and other organisms).

^{के}न-नम्बा-छेन-द्यन

(શ્રેવે 'శ્રે 'રેષાશ'બઃ ર્સેષ શર્ શું ન 'શું 'રુ. રર.' યાયે શ' રું 'રુ દર 'શશ' રે 'લે સ્વ' 'ય' ને વે 'ન રાય શે 'શું તે 'શું ન '

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Read stories 7 and 8 again. Both involve cases of color-blindness, but how are the cases different? In 7, the painter Jonathan I. is colorblind due to a tumor *in his brain*, but the people in story 8 are colorblind due to a faulty protein *in their eyes*. What does this tell us about vision system parts that are required to see in color, and about the visual system in general? The answer is an important one: not only are both the eyes and brain necessary for vision, but specific visual functions require *both* the organ of vision (the eye) *and* the organ of the interpretation of that vision (the brain). This is true more generally for all human sensory functions—the sensing organ, the brain, and, as we saw in Story 5, the parts that connect the two are all important for proper vision.

Story 5 tells us another part of the nervous system, the optic nerve, is necessary for seeing—because when it isn't formed properly, newborns cannot see—suggesting this nerve is responsible for linking the eye to the brain (which indeed it is).

Stories 4, 6, and 8 tell us that specific genes and the proteins they encode in specific cells—concepts we address in detail in Life Sciences Primer II—carry out the normal functions of the eye and in the brain that process visual information, but that when these proteins are altered by mutations, serious problems can result.

Over the last two centuries, functional neuroanatomists put together stories like these with many, many others. They combined these stories with the studies of evolutionary biologists whose observations, like those reviewed at the start of this primer, can suggest which parts of the body evolved to do what. When these stories and studies suggest a structure/function connection, scientists follow up with experiments to test the idea suggested. Techniques to facilitate such experiments continue to develop at a rapid pace. At first (refer back to Figure 3, 4, and 5), anatomists relied on the powerful technique of simple observation of bodies. Although the practice was disturbing to some and was banned in some societies, scientists began to dissect and draw the insides of the bodies of dead people.

At first scientists and physicians had to wait until a person died to see if what they suspected was wrong with a person was due to a tumor, other disease, or malformation. Was there anything different about a colorblind person's brain or eyes? But gradually, and particularly in the last 50 years, techniques have evolved that allow scientists to look inside people while they are alive and ex-

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amine normal and abnormal connections. Such techniques include magnetic resonance imaging and its many offspring technologies. (See box on next page) With such techniques, we can even observe the brain thinking or seeing, that is, we can determine which part of the brain is active when the person being observed is performing a particular task. And we can compare healthy people to ones with the impairments like those we discussed in the stories above. Based on these techniques, much is now known about brain function that could never have been learned from studying post-mortem tissue. This is one example of how the development of new technology and tools can drive our discovery and increase our knowledge.

As discussed in Life Sciences Primer II, much has been learned about the brain and sensing, and indeed most biological processes, by studying other animals—our evolutionary relatives. We also discussed the obvious problem that such research causes for Buddhists and many others. It is not a problem to take lightly, and few if any animal researchers do. Animal research and animal welfare in general continues to be addressed by many, including most effectively by scientists themselves and His Holiness the Dalai Lama (see Life Sciences Primer II).

In addition to examining animals, sometimes brain surgery is necessary in human patients due to a tumor or other disease. In these cases, much can be learned about brain function while also attempting to help the patient. Because our brains have no pain sensors, a live and conscious human can actually have part of her skull removed so that neurosurgeons can poke and prod, and stimulate and deactivate certain parts of her brain and ask her to perform certain tasks or think certain thoughts. This is often done during surgery to make sure the doctors are not going to lesion/harm areas important for motor control or speech, and also to find out where problems exist. Brain surgery on conscious individuals has been extremely useful in identifying brain regions where altered activity causes convulsions or other behavioral anomalies such as severe depression. Once identified, these regions often can be treated directly to ameliorate the problem.

In addition, we can use many of the powerful genetic and molecular technologies discussed in Life Sciences Primer II in order to identify genes and proteins that are different in healthy versus impaired individuals. Such techniques were employed in stories 4, 6, and 8 above.

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નવે ન્વયે અર્જે વ જંચ લેવા નેનુ



FUNCTIONAL MAGNETIC RESONANCE IMAGING (fMRI)

MRI uses a combination of harmless magnetic fields to image soft tissues in the body. Anatomical MRI has excellent detail but taking the image is relatively slow. Functional MRI is faster and captures rapid shifts in blood flow, which is correlated with brain activity; however, fMRI has low spatial resolution so the picture is more blurry. The brain images one often sees are a combination of statistical maps of brain activity (pseudo-colored to show level of activity), derived from fMRI, superimposed on the anatomical images from slow MRI. Thus, this technology shows us what is happening in the brain, and where.

Finally, in the same way that computers have been very useful for modeling and dissecting the process of evolution, of organs like the eye, they have also been extremely useful in modeling neural networks, that is, in addressing the question of how our thousands of neurons interact and what new properties emerge from their interactions.

FUNCTIONAL NEUROANATOMY II: PUTTING TOGETHER WHAT WE'VE LEARNED

So, what have we learned from these stories and observations and experiments about the functional neuroanatomy of the vision system? Let's answer this question in two parts (1) with a general overview of the visual system's parts within the context of the entire nervous system and (2) with a more refined description of how vision works using those parts and their components.

In learning and thinking about new ideas, humans use vision as an important tool. Think about the example of three-dimensional vision we discussed above. Think about how you usually learn something such as how to perform a new activity. Reading about how to do it and listening to someone describe how to do it are useful, but *seeing* pictures of how it's done and then *watching* someone do it are especially useful—as is of course, eventually trying it yourself. Vision is very powerful for learning, memory, and understanding, for 'seeing' in the conceptual sense.

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૬નગર સંવે 'ક્વેબ'અદ્યુન'ગ્રી 'ફ્વચ'ય' વગ્રેવ'ગ્રેન' અર્ટેં વ'ગ્રેનું 'યન' પ્યત્ત 'ગ્રેવ' સંવ પ્રત્યુન' વ્યુને '



र्भवेः कासुयायाम् : नु ग्याम् विया प्रमुद्द मवित्र माम कें मर क्रें म क्रुं न मुना

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In that spirit, let's look with our eyes at a picture of a general overview of vision in Figure 17.

Let's walk slowly through this overview figure. As we do this, and throughout our discussion of vision, you may refer to our discussion in Life Sciences Primer II of the integral physiological and conceptual connections between the different levels of biology: populations, organisms, organs, tissues, cells, and molecules.

At first, we see the whole body of a human being with the entire nervous system sketched out. As we've noted, the **central nervous system** (CNS) includes the brain and spinal cord. The **peripheral nervous system** consists of nerves that convey information from the rest of the body to the CNS and vice versa (Figure 17A).



Figure 17: A. The central nervous system and the peripheral nervous system. B. superior view of the brain, eyes, and optic nerve. C. Internal and external view of the human eye.

Within this complex human organism, we are focusing on the eye and its connections to the brain. In the figure, you can see the eyes in the picture of the whole human shown in two additional perspectives: (1) the eyes in relation to the brain (Figure 17B) and (2) an eye by itself, magnified for closer inspection (Figure 17C). Note how close our eyes are to our brains; what are the functional implications of this?

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THE EYE

In the magnified eye, (Figure 17C) we see some of the parts that were identified in our stories as important for vision. From the story of my dad, there is the lens, which covers the eye and which we learned must be clear for optimal vision, and there is the fluid filling the eye behind the lens. We also see, lining the back of the eye, the **retina**, a part of the eye mentioned as important in a couple of our stories; the retina contains photoreceptors to detect the light moving through the **lens** and **fluid**. Before reaching the lens, light first moves through the cornea and then the iris (which gives the eye its color) and the round opening at the center of the iris called the pupil.

Other parts of the eye labeled in the figure that we have yet to discuss include a part of the retina called the **fovea**, which helps in sharp, focused vision such as that necessary for reading this sentence, and eye muscles (outside and inside the eye), the important role of which we will address shortly.

The **optic nerve** is seen coming out of the back of the eye in Figure 17B and 17C. It is clear that this nerve connects the eye to the brain, and that if any problems were to occur in this connection, such as in those born with optic nerve hypoplasia in story 5, the impact on vision would be severe.

Figure 17B is a view looking down from above (known as an axial view). Shown in this figure are the optic nerves from both eyes and the paths of those nerves into the brain. You can see that eye connections are made in both sides (known as **hemispheres**) of the brain, and two of the many important parts of the brain involved in vision are labeled: the lateral geniculate nuclei of the thalamus and the visual cortex. A full third of the brain is devoted to vision-related function.

THE BRAIN

Before we take a quick tour of the human brain, Figure 19 (next page) gives you the vocabulary that neuroscientists use to orient around the brain. These terms are important to know so that you can find the parts of the brain as they are being discussed. In addition, a lateral view of the brain is shown to illustrate the sections or lobes of the entire cerebral cortex (Figure 18). **Sulci** (or sulcus, in the singular) is the term for the grooves found in the cerebral cortex; the sulci surround the **gyri** (gyrus, singular), the bumps of the cortex. If you recall from earlier in this primer, in evolutionary time, the cerebral cortex is the



Figure 18: A lateral view of the human cerebral cortex, with lobes illustrated in different colors.

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สรารา

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<u></u>નયે⁻તૈષ⁻નેતે⁻વત્સ્ક્રીત્ર ત્વર્યું અપ્યતે ઐળ'ગે⁻૨૨૨૧૧ જેવાયે ત્વર્યું સ્ટેસ્ટ્ર <u> त</u>्षायः नेः क्रेन् रायतः रायतने पाषाः छेन्। नेः प्रवितः नुः (क्षेणां पी छेः वरुः पाहेषाः शुः प्रवितः प्रवेः) क्षेणां पी शाणवनः नेः पदः यिनः

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Figure 19: Anatomical directions and reference planes of the brain. In terms of anatomy, the front of the brain, nearest the face, is referred to as the anterior end, and polar opposite to the anterior end is the posterior end, referring to the back of the head. Superior (sometimes called dorsal) refers to the direction toward the top of the head, and inferior (sometimes called ventral) refers to the direction toward the neck/body. In terms of reference planes, the sagittal plane divides the brain into left and right portions, the coronal plane divides the brain into anterior and posterior portions, and the axial (sometimes called horizontal) plane divides the brain into superior and inferior portions. More information on anatomical directions can be found at: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Anatomical_terms_of_location

newest part of the brain with the most refined and complex functional capacities. As we review the rest of the brain and its functions, note the many parts related directly or indirectly to vision.

We have also already mentioned the frontal lobe, in connection with language. The **frontal lobe** is also important in controlling movement, planning behavior, and executive or overseeing functions. The **parietal lobe** is posterior to the frontal lobe and is involved in sensory function and associations. Posterior to this is the **occipital lobe**, especially important in vision, so more on this one later. The **temporal lobe** is below (inferior to) the frontal and parietal lobes and is involved in the control of hearing. Also, note in figure 19 the parietotemporal-occipital region where these three lobes meet and the region in which those with prosopagnosia (stories 2, 3, and 4) have lesions or cancer.

Figure 20 allows a brief tour of the parts of your brain we just discussed plus those below the cortex. The figure shows the brain from a mid-sagittal view (meaning cut down the middle). Note, however, that many of the parts of the brain we will now discuss, although only shown once here, actually occur in pairs, one on each side of the brain. In the figure, we see that the cerebral cortex and its lobes extend over the entire brain and its hemispheres.



Figure 20: A. A mid-sagittal overview of forebrain, midbrain, and hindbrain, including names of structures in the hindbrain. In the lower panels, the respective sections of brain are colored in orange brown. B. A mid-sagittal view of the human brain showing key structures of the forebrain, as well as the cerebellum.

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૬ચે'રેજ' ૧૦ લર્નેજાર્વેદ ઇંચર, ઘ્રેદ પ્રદે ગ્રાન પલે જીવજા નામ કે બાળવા પ્રદેશના પ્રાથમિક સાથ પ્રાથમિક સાથ છે. સ ਘੇਂદશપ્દર્ભરેત્ર ગ્लूय છે દ્ર દ્વાગા ગણન પર નથૂન પલ દાદ જે શાય છે દાવુન

ᠵ᠊᠋᠋᠋ळॕॺॱॻॕॸॎॱॖॖॱॠॸॱॻड़ॱॸॸख़ऀॵज़ॺॵॖॸॱॻऄऀॱॺज़ॖॺॱय़ॸॸऄऀक़ॱग़ॖ॓ॸॱॿॆॺऻॖ **ॺज़ॖॺॱज़ॸॸ**ॱय़ॸऀॱॺऀॱय़ग़ॖॖॴॱॸक़ॖॖॕॸॱॴॱ ୄୢୠ୵୶୲୶ୖୖଽ୕୶ୢୖୠୄୣ୵୕୳୕୵୵ୄ୕୲୕୲ୖୄ୶୶ୄୖୢଈୄ୕୵୲୵ଌ୕୶୵୶ଡ଼ୗ୕୵ୖୢୠୄ୵୕୳୲ୖୠୄ୵୲୶୶୲୶ଡ଼୲୕୶ୣୠ୕୵ୖୠୄ୵୕୳ଡ଼୶୲ୖୡଡ଼୲ୖୠ୵୕୳୲୕୶୕ୡ୶ ्यत्रदःणय्यत्यप्रस्थः क्वेःचः विषाध्येषु **गङ्ग्यत्नः** विःस्तृत्वः त्रद्नाः ग्रीः क्रुयः द्वेः द्वेः द्वेः द्वीः द्वैः द्वैः द्वीः द्वीः द्वीः द्वीः द्वीः द्वैः द्वैः द्वैः द्वैः द्वैः द्वीः द्वाः द्वैः द्वाः द รุขาน (พระพิ) อี่ระเว เปลิมาม ปลี่ เป) ล เยิน รุง เรียง เรียง เรียง เรียง เรียง เรียง เรียง เป็น เรียง เรีย

ષ્ટ્રેન ગ્રીષ છેત્ર દ્વ તુષ માનલેવા તથેવા તશુ ત્ર છે તુષ છે જીવા ઘવા દિન ગ્રાન જેવા છે બુવા વે જ અને લેવા જવાષા વ્યું ત્ર ગ ૡૡ૽ૼૼૼૼૻઽૻૻઽૻૻૡૼૡૢ૽ૺૡૼૢ૽૽૽૱ૢૻૺૼૢૡૢૼૼૼૹૡૣ૱ૻૡૺૺૹૻૹૣૻઌૻૡ૽ૺ૱ૹૡૹૻૡ૾૽ૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૺૡ૽ૻૡ૽૽ૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૺ૱ૻૡૡ૽ૺ૱૱ૡૡ૽ૺ૱૱ૡૡ૽ૺ૱૱ૡૡ૽ૺ૱૱

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Recall from our discussion of brain evolution above that our brains can be divided into the forebrain, midbrain, and hindbrain (Figure 20A). The front of the brain, or **forebrain** contains the **cerebral hemispheres** and the **diencephalon**. In addition to the cerebral cortex which is involved in perception as we discussed above, as well as thought, reason, and movement, the cerebral hemispheres also contain deep in the brain the **hippocampi** involved in memory, the **amygdalae** involved in emotion, and the **basal ganglia** involved in movement. The other part of the forebrain, the diencephalon, includes the **thalami** which process information entering the brain from the rest of the CNS (most importantly for our discussion of vision, the thalami contain the lateral geniculate nuclei, LGN) and the peripheral nervous system, and the **hypothalami**, which regulate many bodily functions in the nervous and endocrine systems such as those that have to do with appetite, sexual behavior, body temperature, and hormone function.

The **hippocampus** and **amygdala** are both parts of the **limbic system**, which is important for the formation of memories and in controlling emotion, decisions, motivation, and learning.

The area of the brain that connects the fore- and **hindbrain** is called the **mid-brain**. It controls many sensory and movement processes, as well as the interaction of visual and hearing reflexes (unconscious, automatic reactions to stimuli).

Finally, the hindbrain is composed of the **cerebellum**, **pons**, and **medulla oblongata**. Together with the midbrain, these three parts make up the **brain stem**, the communicator between the spinal cord and the brain. More specifically, the cerebellum regulates movement, balance, and motor coordination and is involved in learning movement, while the pons communicates information about that movement from the cerebral hemispheres to the cerebellum as well as playing a role in the control of sleep and arousal. The medulla oblongata is responsible for important **autonomic** (non-conscious) **nervous system** functions like digestion and breathing.

In this primer we're not spending a lot of time with many of these parts, but you should know where they are located and in what functions they are involved, as they are all important in different ways for your development and behavior as a person. Also, keep in mind these points: (1) their location and function was discovered through the functional neuroanatomical approaches we discussed above; (2) although not necessarily connected *directly* to vision, most of these regions of the brain connect to vision in some way; for example they may play a role in eye movements or the connections between what we see and what we learn or feel; (3) because these and many brain functions are
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connected, then, there must also be structural (molecular/cellular) connections among these regions to allow them to communicate with each other. These connections are made via neurons and other cells of the nervous system; we discuss these in Life Sciences Primer II and will discuss them in more detail in Neuroscience Primer II as well.

INTEGRATING PARTS AND FUNCTIONS: PART I

We have seen how and why the CNS evolved and what its parts are, especially those relevant to vision. How do these parts work together so we can see?

Let's begin to see how these parts interact to construct perception by re-examining and further expanding our list of things that happen when we look at the pictures of His Holiness:

- 1. **sense**: use our eyes to detect the light reflected from the images
- 2. take in and interpret what is sensed: transfer the information experienced in the eye as light into another kind of signal that can go to the brain, selecting out and 'seeing' only the image and only the important parts of the image from all the other background, synthesizing all the light and pieces of the image we see into one image that 'makes sense', while attaching to this image emotions and past experiences stored in the brain and thus, perceiving the images as that of His Holiness
- 3. **respond**: signal from the brain based on interpretation leads to relevant response, *that is deciding on a course of action, formulating a plan, and then carrying out that plan*: for example, to the hand muscle to pick up the pictures, to the eye to keep looking at the images, to other parts of the brain and body to feel moved or happy.

Where in the brain do all the required high-level syntheses in this process occur? Using the techniques we discuss above, neuroscientists have further separated the cerebral cortex into particular functional areas (Figure 21) for steps (2) and (3) above, that is for processing either sensory information (eg., step 2 above) or motor information (eg., step 3). We refer to these sensory and motor areas as primary, secondary or tertiary depending on when they are involved in the processing of information. For example, the **primary visual cortex** (also known as V1 for Vision cortex area 1), located at the very posterior end of the occipital lobe, receives the first nervous input from the peripheral nervous system, in this case via the optic nerve from the eye (refer to Figure 17).



Figure 21: Map of the human cortex, showing primary areas and association areas.





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Surrounding the primary visual cortex, or any primary area, are secondary and tertiary areas that process the more complex aspects of a particular sensory or motor function and integrate information from other primary sensory and motor areas. Then this information from the different senses and lobes is combined in large areas of the cortex (Figure 21) called **association areas**.

We discussed one such association area, the parietotemporal-occipital area, above in our stories about the recognition of faces. This area is so named because it occurs at the intersection of the parietal, temporal, and occipital lobes. This makes sense since it is integrating information gathered in those three areas. Think about the many processes required for recognizing and responding to a face: seeing the face, remembering if you have seen it before and when and in what circumstance, and then developing a response based on that information. Each of these processes happens separately, in discrete parts of the brain, and then all of them must be integrated ('thought through') or else, as we saw in our stories, one is unable to recognize other people.

What does it mean to say association areas 'integrate complex signals from different areas of the brain'? One way to break down the integrating functions of the parietotemporal-occipital and other association areas is to think of these areas as controlling three high-level functions: perception, movement, and motivation. Most behaviors require all three. If we are going to look at the pictures of His Holiness and then perhaps stop and pick one up to more closely consider it, clearly, as we've said, we have to see the pictures first. That information of 'seeing' moves through the primary, then secondary, then tertiary visual association areas and eventually to where the movement to stop and pick up the pictures is planned in the frontal lobe. Information is also sent to the movement (motor) system, which tells the muscles in your arm and hand to move, regulates your posture as you do this and continuously informs the required muscles to move, tense, or relax. All this happens in less than a second.

Overlaid and integrated with these sensory and motor functions is the **motivational system**, which regulates *how fast and effectively* your muscles move to pick up the pictures; this will depend on how excited or interested you are in the pictures. This motivational system is at the same time regulating your autonomic nervous system—how fast does your heart beat? Are you sweating? The hypothalamus is the major controller of these autonomic responses.

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ᡭᡆ᠋᠋᠋ᡃ᠋᠋᠋᠊ᢋᢆᡍ**᠃ᡪᡏᢩ᠆᠄᠉᠂ᠬ᠋᠋᠋**᠋᠊ᡃᢇᡭᡆ᠄ᡭᡄ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡰ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠉᠃ᡎ᠋᠋᠋ᡎᡅᠺᡬ᠉ᡜᠴ᠋ᢩᢍ᠂ᠺᢓ᠋᠃᠋ᢟᡁ᠋᠋᠋ᡃᠴᡘ᠊ᡬ᠁ᢋ᠋ᠴ᠋ᠴ᠋ *ૹૻૼૼૼ<u></u>ૻૡૼૺ<i>ૻૼઌૼૹૢૻૢઽૻૻૼૼૡૢૻઌૻૡૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૹૻૹૼઽૻઌ*ૼઽઌૹૢૢૢૢૢૼઌઽઌ૽ૼૼૼૹૹ૾૱ૹ૽૿ૢૺૻૹૢૢઽૹૻૡ૽૽ૼૼૼૼૡ૽ૼ૱૽ૢ૽ૢૻૢઽૻઌૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૼૼ૱૱૱ૡ૽ૼ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ ଵୄୄୄୗୄ୲ୄୠୖୄୄ୵ୄୖୄୄୄ୴ୄୖୢୄଖୄୖୡ୕ୄ୵୲ଵ୶୶୶ଈୄୖୢଡ଼୕୲ଵ୶୕ଌୄ୵ୖୖୄଽ୕୰୶ୠୄ୷ୠୄୖ୵ୄୠୠୄ୵ୄଽ୶୲ଵ୶ୖ୶୲୴୵୶ୡୄୄ୲୷୵୕୵୶ୖୡ୲୶ୄୄଡ଼୷୲ଵ୶୶

รขั้งหนดิหมู่ที่รายที่รายหรือมู่สารายเสียงสารายเสียงสารายเสียงสารายเสียงสารายเสียงสารายเสียงสารายเสียงสารายเสีย

ୄଈଵୄ୲ୠୄୖୢୠୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୖ୴୰ଽ୵ଽ୶ୄ୵ଽ୳ୡୖ୲ଡ଼ୖ୲ଽୖୄ୶ଡ଼୲୵ଢ଼୲୶୲ୡୄଢ଼୲ୄୄୄୄୡ୵୲୶୷୶୶୷୷୷୲ୄୡ୲୶୲୵୲ୡ୲୶୲ୠ୷୲୵୷୲୲ୡ୲୷୷୷ ૡઽ૾ૺૻઽૣਗ਼ૻઌ૽૿ૹૻૡઽૢૻ૾ઌૺૹૻૻઽઽૻૢૻ૾ૡઌૢ૿ઌૻઌૹ૾ૢ૽ૼઽૢૢૻૹ૾ૢૹૻૣૹૻૹ૽૾ૼૡૻૹ૽૾ૡ૽ૼૡ૽૾ૺઙ૽૽ૢ૾ઽૻઌૹૻઽ૽ૺઌૹૢ૱ૡૻૻૼૼ૱ૹૢઽૹૻૡ૽૿ૼૼૼૡૼઙ૽૽ૢઽૻૻઌ૱ ૱ૡ૱ૡૡ૾ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼઌ૽૽૽ૢૢૢૼૢૻ૽ૢૼ૽ૢૼ૽ૼઽૺૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૺૼઽૺઌૢ૽ૢૼૻૺૼૼૼૼૼૼૼ૱ૹૺ૱ૡૣ૾ૢૻ૱ૻૡઌ૾૾૱ૻ૽૱ૻ૽૱૾૽ૡૡ૱૱ૻ૽ૡ૽ૼ૱૱ૡ૽ૼ૱ૻ૱૽ૼૼ สามส์ตาข้า ฺฺฺ๚๚๛ฺสมสามธุณ๚า๛ฺดูตฺณฺสลๅ มย๛ฺริารตาณสาฺ๚๚๛๚฿๓าฏ๛๛๎๖๛ฦ๚๛๛๛๛๛๛ କ୍ଷି୩'୍ୱଶ୍ରିମ'ୟ'ମ୍ମ୍ୟା ଶ୍ର'ଷଣ୍ଡମ'ମ୍ର'ଦ୍ୟରିଦାଐମ୍'ମ'୩'୩୪ମୁଞ୍ଜରାଦାଙ୍କ୍ଷାପଷ୍ଟାମଷ୍ଟରାଦ୍ୟାପାସ'ମମ୍ଭା ଶ୍ରିଷାଦ୍ୟଦକ୍ଷା ଅମାକ'ଞ୍ଜିମ

<u>ૹ૽ૢ</u>૾ૺ૽ઌૣઽૣૻઽૻૣઽૹૢૻૹૼૢૻઌઽૻઌઽૻૡૹ૽ૢ૱ૹ૽ૢ૾૱ૡ૱ૹ૽ૢૺ૱

*૾૾*ઌૢૢૢૼ૾૾ઌૻૹૻ૱ૹૹૻૻ૱ૻૡૢઌૻૻૡૻૹ૽૾ૡૻઌૻૡૻ૽ૡૻૡ૾૾ૡૻૹ૾ૻ૱ૻઌૻ૾ૼૹૻ ^{ૡા}યવ શુૈરેયાય તઢ્યા ર્યેલિવા વીં જ્ઞીવા શુેન નવીં શાળ પાય તે સાથ તે સ સાથ તે સ ळंदः'चक्तुर'न्वींबर्'याथेंन्'ने। ने'श्लेर'अ'ग्रुबरें वींदर्'नु'ग्रुद्र'चर्रे'ज्ञुर'वर'वृष्ण्य'यापविवरेन्'ळेंबर'ण्दः'चण्णववर

२ेषा १७)ने नगरु ज्ञ भ्रिय गर्ने म्य रेना

^ଵୗ୲ଵ୕୕ଽୖଽୡ୲୵ୄ୕ଽୖୄୡଽୖଽୡ୲ଽ୶୲ୠ୶୲ୣଵ୲ଌ୕ୣଡ଼**୲୶ୖ୶ଽୖୄଌଽୄ୲**ୖ୶୲ୠୢଊ୲୶ୖଽୄ୵ୣଡ଼ୄ୲ୄୠ୵ଵଽୖୖୖୖୖୖୖ୕୕ୖ୕୕୕ଽ୕୵ୡ୲୕ଡ଼ୖୣ୲ୖୖଊ୲ୡୄଡ଼୲୶ୖୄୢଈୖୢ୲ୠୄୖୣୠୄ୷୲୶୶ All of our brain's major functional systems—sensory, motor, and motivational—have anatomically separate parts and pathways. And these parts are connected to each other by special neurons, which in addition to simply connecting the systems' signals, also modify those signals. Each blind man's experience of the elephant is integrated into a whole picture.

NEURO-MAPS

Perhaps the most stunning characteristic of our 'elephant-perceiving' (visual and other sensory) systems is found in the organization of these anatomically separate pathways; the spatial relationship of the sensory receptors in the peripheral nervous system is maintained at every level throughout the entire nervous system signaling pathway. For example, as we will explore in more detail shortly, if two photoreceptors are neighbors in the eye, then they are connected to neighboring cells in the thalamus, and then these are connected to neighboring cells in the visual cortex.

This phenomenon is called **topographic mapping** in the brain. A topographic map is the ordered projection of neural pathways either from a sensory surface, like the retina or the skin, to one or more structures of the central nervous system, or from the brain to an effector system, like the musculature. Topographic maps appear to be important for processing information and organizing responses, for they are found in all sensory systems and in many motor systems.

Using the many approaches for exploring brain structure and function we have discussed, neuroscientists have identified and described such spatial 'neuro-maps' in our cerebral cortex for both motor and sensory function. See Figure 22 for maps of the primary motor cortex and the primary somatosensory (meaning senses from the body) cortex.



Figure 22: Neuro-maps of the primary motor cortex (left) and the primary somatosensory cortex (right).

<u>न्ननः इत्रिः वर्षेन् न्ननः महरूः खुमारू</u>।

નવે¹ત્રેઓ 33 નાર્બો વનીવા. છે. ર્સ્ટા જ્ઞારે બેવ. (નાબ્રુચ.) ટેટો લે જ કેટ છે. ક્રુટ ત્વકુ ત્વકુ રાજ્ય કે સ્વાપ્ત બેવ. (નાનજ) નાકે જ છે.



नङ्चेषाप्यते छेन्देयावृत्त्यावृत्त्याषायो यावृत्यायाव्या व्यादार्थेन् केन्यहेवा

 \tilde{f} శాల]qశా (α , \tilde{q} , \tilde{u} , \tilde{q} , \tilde{u}), \tilde{q} , \tilde{u}

२८२२^{क़}ॱॻऻॺॺॱख़ॖॱड़ॻऻॿॺॱॸॻॱॸ॒ॱॾॖऄॸॱॺॖॿॖॖऀऀॸॱॿॖॖॻॱॺॖ^{क़}ॱऒऀ॔ॸॱॸॆॺऻ

<u>קשריאיקריקסריאליאפריאַדיק</u>חיחימריאַמאַקרי

Neuro-maps contain neural representations of the body. Notice in the figures that more of the primary cortex is devoted to those regions of the body that have more neurons. This proportionality of neurons is represented in the figures with the drawings of the 'homunculus' or imaginary man—the more neural connections, the larger the relevant part of the man. Why do you think that for both the motor and sensory systems there are so many connections and thus so much space devoted to the face and hands?

Intriguingly, the relative proportionality of neuro-maps and the specific numbers and location of neural connections vary based on experience, especially experiences during key times in a person's development. And since no two people have the exact same experiences, no two brains are the same. We will explore this finding in detail in future Life Sciences and Neuroscience primers. Here is one story to make the point of just how flexible and variable the brain can be:

Mrs. Y was born blind. Mrs. Y worked at a company that translates texts into Braille, the read-by-touch language for blind people, invented by Louis Braille, himself a blind man. Mrs. Y's job was to listen to recordings of texts and type what she heard into a special typewriter to produce Braille versions of the texts to which she was listening.

One day at work, Mrs. Y suddenly collapsed. She was rushed to the hospital where she was diagnosed as having had a stroke—much like the one Broca's patient Tan suffered. However, when the physicians did a brain-scan (Refer to fMRI box, page 68) of Mrs. Y's brain, they saw that the part of her brain that was damaged was the occipital lobe. 'Don't worry,' the physicians said to Mrs. Y, 'the stroke affected the vision part of your brain, but since you have been blind your whole life, you don't need to worry.'

Mrs. Y went back to work soon after. But when she put her fingers on the keys to her Braille typewriter, she suddenly sat up as if she'd been shocked: Mrs. Y could no longer feel the raised Braille letters on her typewriter keys.

Since Mrs. Y was born blind, the part of her brain that normally would have been used for vision was recruited for use by other senses, apparently primarily touch, instead. When the stroke had damaged the vision-turned-into-touch part of her brain, she lost the fine touching ability she once had. This story demonstrates the flexibility of the nervous system, neural connections, and the impact on the brain of genes interwoven with experience.

 $\mathsf{F}^{\mathrm{u}}[\check{\mathsf{u}} \leftarrow \check{\mathfrak{g}}] \overset{\mathrm{u}}{\mathfrak{g}} \mathsf{T}^{\mathrm{u}} \mathsf{T}^{$ ᠵ᠋ᢆᡆᠡ᠌ᢁᢅᠯ᠊᠋᠆ᡪᠴᡄ᠈ᡸ᠋᠋ᢦ᠆᠈ᠴ᠋᠋ᢧᢌ᠈᠋ᡚᢌ᠈ᠱ᠋ᡪ᠆ᡅ᠄ᢣ᠋᠋ᡪ᠋᠋᠆᠋ᠯᠵ᠂ᠴ᠋ᡲ᠋ᢋ᠋ᢃᠼ᠈ᡭᡆ᠋᠋᠋ᢩᢂᡊ᠋ᢩ᠋ᢁᡸᢋ᠓ᡷᢋ᠓᠋ᢋ᠁ᢓ ૽૾૱ૡૡૺૻૻ૱ૹૻ૽ૼૼૼઽૻૻૡૼૻૹ૽૾ૢૼૡૻઌૡ૽ૺૻૺૹૣૡૻૻૡ૽૾ૺૻૹૻૡૹૡૻ૽ૡૻૻૻૹૻૡૻૡ૽ૡૡૡૡૻૡૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡૻૡૻૡૻૡૻૡૻૡૻૡૻૡૻૡૻૡૻૡ <u> ୖ</u>ୠୄ୵ୠୄୖୄ୶ୠୄ୵ୠୄୖୄ୶ નજેત્રરાયલે 'રેળષા'દ્ધારાવા'ળીષા'ગ્રાન'યલે 'ક્ષેન્ટ'શળાયા તેનું વ' છે 'જંચા'નર્સે ચેવ' છું 'લગ્રે બા અર્દ્ધે વ'બાત્ર છેન' પર તેનુ

<u>ઽધર</u>ાક્ષેન્ટ્રસદુવાર્ચેષાનક્ષુત્વાર્જવારોગ્યાંજેઽાર્ડાવેંદ્રાંજેઽાર્ટ્રસ્પેંત્ર શુપ્રાયાનવિત્ર ડ્રાપ્ત્ર ગોર્ક્ષેટ્ટ્રાયરાર્જે વાર્સ્ટ્ર ગુસ્પા ᠵᡭ᠊᠊᠋᠊᠋᠊ᢧ᠉᠋ᢍ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠊᠋᠋᠋ᡒ᠆᠗᠆᠂ᡈᡅᢆᡃᡅ᠉ᡊᢋᢩᠬᠬ᠋ᡪᡆᠵ᠊ᠻᢧᡄᡃᡆᢆ᠂ᠺᢋᢣᡃᡅᢆᠳᡃᡆ᠋᠂ᠴᠯᠮ᠋᠋᠆ᡅᡃ᠋᠋ᢋᢩᢂ᠋᠊᠋ᢦ᠋᠋᠋᠆ᡜᠮᢓᠴ᠓᠗᠆᠋ᡃᡅᡃᡬ᠋᠋

୲ଌୄୖୢ୵ୖୠ୵ୄୖୢଈ୕୵୶ଌ୕୕୕୳ୖୢୠ୵ୖୖୣଽ୶ୖ୶ୖ୶ଢ଼୶୰୲ୖୄୖଢ଼୵

वन⁻र्थेण'यर'र'र्थेन'चुटा। ने'वै'र्गेट'तु:ड्यव'य'र्ये'र्रे'गाभीषा'वन'यहगाचेन'षदे'वन'य'त्रव'र्यायदे'वन'पादे'वन'पादे'ते' ગ્રાન મારે અર્ધેન જીંત છે જ બાલુ વાય જે જ બાલુ વાય જે જ બાલુ વાય જ

ૡૡ૽૿૽૱ૻઽઌ૽ૼઽ૽ૢઽૢઽ૱ૢૡૻૼઽૹ૾ૢૢ૱ૢૻ૱ૡૻઌૼૻઽ૱ૡ૾૱ૡ૽૾૱ૻઌ૱ૡ૽ૻ૱૾ૡ૽ઌૻ वृद्ध्तरायमाञ्चरान्नेनायदेायमात्ररात्वमा नेप्थपायत्रप्थेमावीय्येष्यपति केन्तुपर्वेषयीषा नेप्यावमायमान्में ५५२३५⁻भथे।वॅट्यी श्वसगीदेर्टेवे देपदेने देपत्री विदेश क्राय का स्वित्य का स्वयाय के का का स्वयाय के स्वय

र्ने ञ्चूट त्याया मारे राज्य विया या ୩ଵୖଵୄ୶୶ୖୄୄୠୖଌ୲ୠୢୖ୲ଈ୕ୖଈ୕୕୕ଽୄ୕ୣୣୣ୳ଵ୵ୄଽୡୖଌ୲୴୶୲ୄୖ୶୵୰ୠୄ୵ଽୄୠ୳୵ଽୡ୲ୡୄୠ୵ୄୖଌୢୗ୕ୖଽୄୖୢୖୄ୰୲୴ଽ୶୲ୠ୰୲୴ଌ୶୲୰ୖୄୡ୶୲୴ଌ୶୲ୢୖୄୄ୰୶୲ ଞୢୖଡ଼୲ଵ୲ଌ୶୶୲୰ୠୣ୲୶ଡ଼ୄୄଌୄଡ଼୲୵ୠଽୖ୴ୠ୵୳ୖୖ୵ୢ୷୵୵୳ୖଡ଼ୖୄଵ୶ୄୄ୷୵୲ୡୄୠ୵ୖୡ୲ୢୖୠୣ୵୲ୖଌୖ୲ୖୢଈ୕ଡ଼୲୷୶ୖଽଡ଼୲୵୵୵୵୳୵୲ୖଽ୲୷୶ୖ୵ଡ଼୲

<u>न्न्र</u>ः स्ते 'योर्यन् 'न्न्या वाह्र सः 'युवास' यदी' न्वा 'वीस' युवास' र्ये ते 'न्न्र्यः स्ते 'वाह्र सः स्राह्रे द 'या ૬ર્વેાષાય લેવાવ્યા સ્ટેન્સિગ્રાન્સુત્ર શું જીં સું ઉંત્ર ખબાર્સે સે તે ૧૦૦૦ સંખાનુવાય વર્ષેત્ર સે બેંદ અવે ભુગ શુખાનવા *ঀ*ॺ^ۥणृ८ॱॸॖॖॱॸॖॸઽॱख़ऀढ़ॺय़ॖॖॸॱक़ॖॖॗॕॸॱऀऺख़॔ॺॵॸॱॸॱॸॖऺऀढ़ऀॱक़ॕॸॱॻॖॖॖऀॺॱक़ॱय़ॺॱॸऺढ़ऀॱज़ऀख़ॱॸय़ऀॱॷऀॸ। ষ্ট্রন' ૹ૾૾ૢૹૻૻઌૡૢૹૻૻૡૼૻઽઌઽૻૹૻૼૻઽૻૻઽઽૻઌૻૡૻૺૡૼઌૢૻૼૼૼૼઌૻૻ૱ઌઌૻઌઌ૽ૻઌૡૢ૾ૺૹૻૻ૱ૼૡૢૻૡૻૡ૽ૼૡ૾ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૾ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૾ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૾ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૾ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૾ૻૡૻ૽ૡૻ૽ૡૻ૽ૡૻ૽ૡ૾ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૾૽ૡૻ૽ૡૻ૽ૡ૽ૻૡૻ૽ૡ૾૾ૡૻ

दर्ने र धेर दर्हेग

INTEGRATING PARTS AND FUNCTION: PART II

We began this primer with the phenomenon of vision, of seeing pictures that might move us to actions. Quickly, we saw how complicated this seemingly simple process might be. We broke down the phenomenon into several steps and then began to analyze and expand those steps. As we did so, we identified the anatomical parts of our visual and nervous systems that are involved in these steps, and we learned how these parts and their structures and independent functions were discovered. We saw how separate functions were integrated in the brain so higher level functions could occur.

Now we are ready to take these many pieces, structures, functions, and systems and walk through the processes of vision in detail.

START WITH THE LIGHT

The original signal of seeing is light. Light is necessary for us to see the images at the beginning of the primer and anything else. The nature and origins of light and how it forms an image in the brain are very much physical phenomena. In Physics Primer I, we talk about light and images:

Even though we don't draw rays going in all directions from every point of the object, we must remember that, in fact, every point of the object is reflecting rays in all directions; that's why people can see the object from any direction.

Next, we must define what we mean by image. An image of an object is formed wherever light rays converge or appear to originate. As an important example, consider the image formed by the lens of the eye. The light rays leaving the snow lion's head are spreading out in all directions (Figure 23). Some of these rays enter the eye of someone observing the snow lion. If the observer has good eyesight, all the light rays leaving one point of the snow lion's head are focused onto a single point at the back of the eye [the fovea]. Since light rays converge to this point at the back of the eye, we say that an image of the snow lion is formed at the back of the eye. This kind of image, where light rays converge, is called a real image.

How that image is constructed in the eye and interpreted in the brain is a major part of our discussion. The initial part of this construction is simply receiv-



Figure 23: Snow lion



ๆสูๆพาลลูสาร์รัพาสิราราริรา" อิพาพ์ท

୶ର୍ସିମଞ୍ଚମଂଶ୍ରିଂଭିଁମ୍ବା" ତିଷ୍ୟମମ୍ବ णञ्जुणरू इरुषः ग्रीषाय्यानायिः याञ्जुणरू त्रुवादेः स्टेंबाय्य व्याप्ये स्वयायि स्वयायीयाः स्वयायाः स्वयायाः स्व वृषायमें तर्भवि र्यत् चेत्रः इस्र श्रेषुणुषा स्रम्रण ठत्तुः यर्थे सेनः (तर्भे त्रेषा ११)। येत् चेत्रः ते रत्मा भणवाया त्रज्ञरानने त्र्येन येणवार्यो पेन कें। णन्वा केन ने दे अर्णे वे यात्रवा दे या के पात्रवा के प्रति के राग्रे त्र या के प्रति के प के प्रति के प् के प्रति के प के प्रति के प के प्रति के प् के प्रति के प् ति के प्रति क ᠗᠂᠋᠋ᡪᡭ᠊᠄᠗᠋᠋ᡎᡃᡆ᠋᠋ᡃ᠋᠊᠋᠍᠊ᡖᠲᢄ᠋᠊ᢆᡵ᠉᠊ᡃᢧᢆ᠂ᡎ᠋᠋ᢋ᠋ᢦ᠋ᡃ᠍ᢓ᠄᠋᠋᠋ᠴᢩ᠋ᠳ᠋ᢩ᠋᠄ᡬᡏᢅᡄ᠄᠋᠊᠋᠋ᡖᠧᠴ᠋ᡸ᠉᠂ᡅᢆ᠍ णवरून्धेः ज्ञणनेर्रतेन् चेरने स्वयायर्, यर्थेन् मुखायरायहेवावण्यी कुपार्टेवने राणन्या केरणी ॻऻॖॖॖॖॖॖॻऻॺॱॻक़ॖक़ॱढ़ऺऀॻॱय़ॻॖॖॖॖॻॱऄॺॱॸॱळॕॺॱॺऀ॔ॸॱॻॖॖॖॖ॓क़ॱऒ॔ॸॱऻॖ ऄ॔ॸॱॾ॓ॸॱॻऻॸॱॸॖॱय़ॸॖॱॺय़ऀॱॻऻॖॖॖॖॻऻॺॱॻक़क़ॱॻॖॖऀॱॸऀॻऻॺॱ॒ॻॱ

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 दणादमा देप्तविद्युप्तगविव रेण्पेव पम्पे गुवरेद केंबा बर्वेद प्रायः केंद्र वे बेद के पुरेत्र के केंद्र के केंद्र

র্নিশ্বিশ্বন্ধার্মনী স্ক্রিমান্ত্রশা

ราสิาวิราสุมพารูมาฮ์จาสูราราราราชาวิราทารา สินทารอิกพารามาริกาทอิราจพรรามารารา มาราย

ᠵ᠄᠊᠋᠋᠋ᢅ᠋᠊᠋᠋᠋ᢍ᠋ᢆᠯ᠋ᢙ᠉ᡬᢧᢆᡆ᠋ᡩ᠋ᠴᢄᠴ᠋ᠴᢄ᠆ᠴ᠕ᡱᡄ᠄ᢍᠯ᠆᠄ᡚᡃᢆ᠋ᠳᢋ᠋ᢦᡊᡩᡜᢋ᠋ᢦᡊᡆᡏ᠋ᢅᠴ᠋᠋ᡷᢍ᠉ᡘᡏ᠆ᠴ᠋ᡷᡧ᠉᠕ᡱᡄ᠂ᡆᡃᡲ᠉ᡍ᠂ᠴᢅᡃᡲ र्देष'यद्दैव'चुरू'या ने'म्बेव'र्'म्'केंब'ळ'वब'ने'न्या'नमा' ने'न्या'यी'क्याब'न्चीमबा ने'न्यायी'र्स्ट'यय्या'येचेन'यब' ୳୕ଌ୶୲୳୕୵୵ୖଌ୕ଡ଼୲ୖୄୄୄୄୄୖଽୄ୲ୡ୵ୖୄ୶୶ୄୖୄୢ୕ୄୢଵ୕ୣ୷ୄୠୄ୵ୄୄୄୄୄୡ୕୶୲ୖୄ୶ୄୢଢ଼୶ୖ୶୶ୄୠ୶୲ୢୄୠୖ୵୲୰୶୲ଌ୲୵୵୳୲ୖୢୡ୶୶ୢ୷୵୳ୡୖ୲୶୵ୄୖୢଌଡ଼୲ୖୢୠୣୄୣୣ

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ing the light. This is the job of photoreceptors in the retina at the *back* of the eye. That's right: light passes all the way through the iris, pupil, lens, and fluid of the eye before it reaches the retina and its photoreceptors (Figure 24). Photoreceptors turn light into electrical and chemical signals that are transferred from neuron to neuron in the optic nerve and into the rest of the brain.

This translation of initial signal by receptors into electrochemical information (the currency of neurons) is very much like what we see in Life Sciences Primer II in our hot cup of chai story. In that story, receptors translated a change in temperature into a change in receptor shape, which led to a change in electrochemistry. We also mentioned touch receptors in that primer; touch receptors translate a change in pressure into a change in receptor shape and thus to a change in electrochemistry.

Our eyes have two types of photoreceptors: rods and cones (Figure 25). Cones detect color along the visible light spectrum and provide great visual detail, but they require significant light to work effectively. Humans have three types of cones, each specialized to respond maximally to different parts of the visual light spectrum—red, blue and green. Around the fovea, the depression in the retina that helps us see fine detail, there are only cones, while rods are around the retinal edges. We use rods for night vision, but they don't detect color; instead, they are specialized to detect contrast and movement.

If you think about it, you already know about color and night vision: when you are outside at night or if you turn down the lights now where you are reading this, you can still see, but without color (Figure 26). You also know from story



Figure 26: The effects of light on the perception of color. In full daylight(A), color is perceptible, due to the stimulation of cone photoreceptors. As the sun sets the intensity of light decreases (B), the ability to perceive color decreases because the rod photoreceptors are stimulated.

8 above about colorblindness that it can be caused by a mutation in a retinal protein. Not surprisingly, the mutant protein in story 8 is part of the cone photoreceptor involved in translating the light signal into a chemical signal. Mutations in any of the cone proteins can result in colorblindness, which is often specific to particular colors; the most common is red-green color blindness.



Figure 24: A. Light passing through the eye to the photoreceptors of the retina. B. Photoreceptors in the retina turn light into electrical and chemical signals that's transferred to the brain.



Figure 25: Two types of photoreceptors - Rods and Cones.

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ગાય તે છેંત ગીયા જેવા અર્દેવા અર્દેવા અર્દેવ જેવા સાથે તે સ ᡊ᠋ᡭ᠊᠓ᢆᢆ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡏ᠋ᡎ᠋ᠯ᠋᠋ᡇ᠊᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡪ᠊᠋ᠴ᠖᠋ᢩᠯᠴᠴ᠋ᠴᡚᢂ᠋ᢋ᠋ᢙ᠋᠖᠋᠋ᢓ᠆ᡃ᠋ᡚᢆᢂᢣ᠍᠍ᢓ᠋ᢋ᠋᠋ᢓ᠆ᠸ᠋ᠴᡎ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡎᢓᠴᢩ᠍᠍ᢓᢆᡅᡆᡃ᠋᠋ᢁᡄ᠆ᡬᠴ᠋ᢁᢅᢙ᠉ᢋ᠆ᠵ᠉ᡃ᠙ᡔ᠄᠍᠍᠍ᢧᢩ᠉

<u>ન</u>દ્ર ત્વાયાન સ્ર્ક્રેન સ્ટેન્સ્ટ વ્યય સ્વર્ગ્ય સ્વર્ગ્ય સ્વ

ઽૻૹૻૺૡ૾ૺ૾ૹ૾૾ઌૢૻૡઙૹૻૡઌૻૻઌ૾ૻૡૻૡૻૡૢૡૻઌ૽૿૾ૺઌ૾ઌૹૻઌૼૡ૾ૺૹૻઌ૾ૼૼૻૡૻૡ૾૾ૺૡૼૢૻ૱૾૾ૡ૽૾ૡૻૡૻૡૡૻૡૻૡૡૻૡૻૡૡૻૡૻૡૡૻૡૻૡૡ ଚିଦୀ ମି'ମ୩'ନି'ନି'ଗ୍ୱଷ୍ୟଙ୍କୁଦ'ନ୍ତଦର୍ଜିମ'ନ୍ୟାଂଶ୍ରି'ଌମ୍ବଷ'ଶି'ଦଙ୍କମସ୍ଥି। ମୁଣ୍ଟୀଁଧା ହିଁଶ'ନ୍ଧି। ଖୁଦ'ୟ୍ରେମସ୍ଥର୍କ' କ୍ଷିଦ'ନ୍ୟୁଦ'ନ୍ୟୁଷ୍ଟ' ๚ุลสารุฏ๚ารุฏิกพาซาซาซาราริฏิกิเมยณามธ์มพารุทากูพัราราริๆ รุฏ๚ารุฏิกพาซาซุเซราสุมพาราธิ์พา

ૡર્વે અદે પ્વસ્યત્વે તે સ્વયત્વે છે. તે આ પુરાય છે. તે પ્ र्थेत्रपान्दरपद्मेणपदिणानुबाज्जुनन्दराळेषापदाबहुद्दरानेना नेप्पत्स्वराण्चेणानुबाज्जुननेवीर्द्वन्वन्पपनेहेवर्णदी ᠴᡲ᠋᠋ᢋᡃᠴᡭ᠊ᢙᢩ᠋ᡎᠵᠴᢙᢆ᠋᠋᠋ᡎ᠋ᡃᡆ᠋ᢆᢄᡸᠯ᠋᠋ᠵᡃ᠍ᢐ᠆ᢣ᠋ᢆᢐᡄ᠋᠋᠋᠆ᡬ᠊᠋᠉᠄ᡬᡆ᠋ᢩ᠋᠋᠋ᢆᢓ᠋ᡎᢄᡃ᠋ᢩᢁ᠋᠉ᡚ᠋ᢆᡆ᠋᠋ᢓᢋ᠋᠋

ᢆ᠔ᡃ᠋᠋᠋ᢋᡃ᠍᠍ᡸᡁᡄᡃᠵ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡎ᠋᠋᠋ᢆᡎ᠋᠉ᡬᡘ᠆ᡬᡃ᠋ᢙᢆ᠋᠋᠆ᡜᠯᢆ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡢ᠆᠋ᡘ᠆ᢟᢩᢦ᠉ᡃᢧᢆᡃᠴ᠋ᢩ᠆ᡊᡭᡱᡇ᠂ᡪ᠊᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋ᢆᡊ᠋᠋ᡎ᠋᠋





「むえき」 きゃ カノ おかしてきかって ひしょう ううちょう しょう ٵٛۥٛٛڎٓڔۥڟؘ؋ٵٵۥڗ؞؆ڂ؞ڎ٦٦؈ۣ؆ۿ؋؆ٵٳ٩٦ ؾ؉ڰۣڟٛ؆٢ ᠙᠊᠍ᡱ᠋᠋ᢋ᠈᠊ᡚᢄ᠋᠊ᢆᠱᠴᠴ᠋ᠴᢓᢧ᠆ᢣᢋ᠉᠂᠊ᢧᠴ᠋᠆ᠴᠴ᠋᠇



As we discuss the mechanism of photoreception, consider similarities and differences with the mechanism of heat-sensing and our theme of the relationship between structure and function. The inner segments of photoreceptors contain the cell nuclei and the outer segments contain the stacks of membraneous discs (formed from the cell membrane) in which reside the light reception machinery (Figure 25).

When light enters the eye, photons (which you learned about in Physics) first hit molecules called **photopigments**, specifically known as **retinal**, in the membranous discs of the retina photoreceptors. Like many of the life molecules we learn about in Life Sciences Primer II, photopigments are made of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen (Figure 27). One form of retinal absorbs the



Figure 27: Photopigments in the human eye. The top figure shows 11-cis retinal, which absorbs light, changes structure into all-trans retinal (lower figure), and begins a cascade of events resulting in ion channels closing in the cell membrane.

light, and this absorption of energy changes the retinal's structure, activating it. This retinal now starts a cascade of events resulting in an ion channel closing in the cell membrane. Remember that ions are charged molecules, so that when the channel closes, the charge of the inside of the cell in relation to the outside of the cell changes, setting off an electrochemical signal that is passed on to retinal cells called **ganglion neurons**, which sit closer to the back of the eye, and then on into the brain via other vision system neurons within the optic nerve. We will explore the details of neurotransmission (electrochemical signaling) in detail in Neuroscience Primer II.

११- মিমি এ'র্ক্টর'<u>হ</u>ম্য





PERCEIVING WHAT YOUR EYES SEE

Once our eyes have seen—detected, encoded—light, information is passed onto the brain through the optic nerve for more refined perception. Perception is a dynamic process that involves many levels of analysis and interpretation. Perceptions are not pictures but are usable representations of the world. Visual input becomes 'what we see' through a process that is hierarchical, topographical, and distributive. The process uses two major parallel pathways: the 'what' pathway and the 'where' pathway to build an image based on the line, edges, and fill of an object, its motion and color, how large and close to you it is, and in what context you are seeing the object. Your brain then 'binds' all this information into the object image and recognizes that object.

The concept of **parallel processing** is central to how our many and diverse sensory inputs turn into unified **perceptions** in the brain. Each sense, not just vision, has its own biological machinery. Within the vision system, separate functional elements also have their own structural machinery. Each machinery measures or translates pieces of the visual experience (like the information gathered by each 'man of Indostan'); the different pieces are sent on in parallel to each successive area of visual processing, where they are further analyzed, sometimes mixed, and then sent on in parallel to a higher area for more complex processing.

When you look back to Figure 17 of the eyes and brain with the optic nerves and think about how much information has to get into the eyes and then into the brain through such small pathways as the optic nerves and in how short a time, the need for parallel processing—the capacity for distinct areas to detect and translate specific aspects of an image at the same time—becomes more apparent.

OPTIC NERVES TO LATERAL GENICULATE NUCLEI (LGN)

After light information is absorbed in the retina, it is translated into an electrochemical signal, as we said, in the ganglion neurons, about 1.5 million of which go on to form each optic nerve—the nerve that carries information to the brain. Within the retinas, photoreceptors are able to compute the intensity of the light in relation to its position, wavelength and time. All of this information is condensed into just a few specific types of information transferred across distinct types of neuronal cells in the optic nerves.

ᠵ᠋᠋᠋᠇ᡄ᠋᠊᠋᠊ᢟ᠄ᢩᡌᡃᡊ᠆᠋᠋᠋ᢆ᠋ᡃᢤ᠋ᡎᢌᡃ᠍ᢓ᠄᠋ᠴᢩ᠋᠋ᠳ᠆ᡪ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋ᠲ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᢆᡩ᠄᠋ᠬ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡪᡄ᠋ᢩᢐ᠄ᠺᡭᠴ᠋ᠴᡬᡬ᠋ᠴᢄᢋᢄ᠋ᢋ᠁ᢋ

<u></u>ᡬᠯ᠋᠉ᠴ᠈ᠺᢓᢅᡄ᠋᠋ᢌᢄ᠊ᢌ᠈ᡬᢋ

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<u>ૹ</u>ઽૡૡ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ ๚฿๚๛ลูละฃิ:พู๛ฺรฺฃฺฺูรฺ๛ฺสิ:ฃ**ฺฐ๛ฺ๛ฺรฺ๛ฺลฺ๛ฺลฺ๛ฺล**๛ฺ๚฿๚ฃิสุล๛๚ฅ๚๛ริ๛๚ฃ฿๎๛๛๛๚๛๛๛๛ ૹ૽ધૼઽૻૹ૾ૼૻૻૼૹૼ૱ૢૻૼૹૻ૽૽૽૱ૡૻઌૻઌૻૡૻઌૻૡૡૻઌૻૡૡૻઌૡૡૻૻૡ૽ૻઌૡૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽૽ૡ૽૽ૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૼૡૻૹ૽૾ૡૡૢ૽ૡૡૡ૾ૡૻ૱૾ૺૡૻ૽૱ૡૡ૽ૻ૱૾ૻૡ૽ૻ૱ૡૡ

*ऩ*གས་ཆོད་ཐུབ་པ་བྱུང་བ་རིད།

୵ୖୖୖୖୖୖୖୖଌୖୖ୕୳ୖଌ୲ଡ଼୲୕ୖଡ଼୲ଵ୲ୖ୶୲ୖୖ୕୕୕୕୕ୣ୕ୄଽ୕୵୶ୡୖ୶୷ଽଽୄୖୢଈଡ଼୲ୄୠ୶୲ୖୄ୶୕୲ୄୖୠ୶୲ୠଡ଼୲ଽଽୖ "ๆาริ" พธิัสานสิ นฐา นมาระ" ๆ นรา" พธิัสานสิ นฐา นมาตุจิจานที่ นายังาว นายุจาน นายุจาน เพิ่มส์รา <u>୴ୄୖ୶</u>ଽଢ଼୳ୖୠ୲ଌୣୣ୕ୄୣୢୢୢଡ଼ୄ୷ୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄ୶ୄ୷ୄୢୄୄୄୄୄୄୄୄ୷ୄୖ୷୷୶୶ୄୖୄ୷୲ୡ୲୷୷ୄୖ୷୷୷ୄ୷୷୷ୄୖୄ୷୷୷୲ୄୖୄ



Figure 28: Hierarchy of the processing of visual information and corresponding relative neuroanatomy.

In the brain, the visual information is processed by multiple areas in a hierarchical fashion (Figure 28). Information first moves from the optic nerves to a part of the thalamus called the lateral geniculate nuclei (LGN), which process form, motion, and color. Each LGN receives visual neural information from both retinas. In much the same way that our sensory and motor functions map information from our bodies to the cortex, each type of information coming from a specific type of ganglion cell in the retina maps onto our LGN in a spatially consistent way. Similarly, because our foveas have the most photoreceptors and thus contribute the most visual information, they have proportionally the most neural connections into the LGN.

It is important to understand how visual information is transferred from the retina into the brain, because several important things happen to this information along the way. First, let's use an example to help explain the concept of visual fields. Imagine that your visual field consists of an orange color in your left and blue color in your right visual field. Figure 29 tracks the path of the information into the eyes and through the brain. Light information from the left visual field (in orange) comes into the right side of the retina in both eyes. The information from the right visual field (in blue) comes into the left side of the retina in both eyes. The information then travels from the retina down the optic nerve to the optic chiasm. At the optic chiasm, the optic nerve crosses, and the information from the right visual field (from both eyes) combines to



Figure 29: The pathway of information from the right and left visual fields, traveling from eye to visual cortex.



 πr_{1} પંતે વ r_{1}^{2} માલુ પા જ્વું સ્હેં વાષા પંત્ વર્ષા ધીષા અર્થે ત્ સ્હેં તે સ્વાર્ગ પંત્ર પ્રથ્ય તે સુધ્ય સુધ્ય સુધ્ય સુધ્ય તે સુધ્ય સુધ્ય સુધ્ય સુધ્ય સુધ્ય તે સુધ્ય સુધ્ય તે સુધ્ય સુધ્ય તે સુધ્ય તે સુધ્ય તે સુધ્ય તે સુધ્ય તે સુધ્ય તે સુધ્ય સુધ્ય સુધ્ય સુધ્ય સુધ્ય સુધ્ય સુધ્ય તે સુધ્ય તે સુધ્ય તે સુધ્ય તે સુધ્ય તે સુધ્ય સુધ તે સુધ્ય તે સુધ્ય તે સુધ્ય તે સુધ્ય તે સુધ્ય તે સુધ તે સુધ તે સુધ્ય સુધ સુધ્ય તે સુધ્ય સુધ્ય સુધ્ય સુધ્ય

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VISUAL INFORMATION SWITCHES SIDES FROM EYE TO BRAIN

Tsondue awoke one morning and was very worried. When he opened his eyes he could not see anything on the left side. When he looked straight ahead, he saw nothing to the left. He went to talk to his brother to get advice on what to do. Tsondue's brother, Rinchen, was also very concerned about Tsondue's health.

Rinchen asked, "Can you see straight ahead?"

Tsondue said, "Yes, but only to the right of where I am looking."

"Close your left eye and tell me what you can see," instructed Rinchen.

Tsondue did as his brother asked and replied, "The same, no better and no worse. The same is true when I have my left eye open and my right eye closed. I can only see to the right."

Rinchen said, "Alright Tsondue, I will take you to the doctor right away."

The doctor told Tsondue that he had a lesion (damage) somewhere along his right visual pathway. Based on your knowledge of his symptoms and the visual pathway, where do you think the damage is?

Answer: Tsondue has a lesion in his right optic tract. See scenario 1 at right. This pathway carries information about the entire left half of the visual field, because it is after the optic nerves have crossed at the optic chiasm.

Now, if another patient, Paldon, had a lesion in her right optic nerve, what would she see? Think about it, draw out the answer and discuss with your classmates. See scenario 2 at right.

Answer: The patient would see the whole visual field, but would not be able to see anything with her right eye. She would have no depth perception and would lack monocular vision of their right side.



go along the optic tract to the left lateral geniculate nucleus (LGN) of the thalamus. The information from the left visual field (in orange) combines to go along the optic track to the right LGN. The information then flows from the LGN to the visual cortex, staying in its separate hemispheres. We will describe how information is processed in the visual cortex in more detail below. The end result of this crossing at the optic chiasm is that the left half of the brain looks at the right visual world, and the right half of the brain looks at the left visual world. This can be very important when certain parts of the visual pathway are damaged. The combination of the two visual fields, as well as the distance between the eyes, also allows for depth perception.

The result is a complete representation of the visual field, including, in addition to spatial information, temporal and color contrasts in the image. So, for any particular point in the visual field, several different ganglion cell types in the retina are simultaneously sending, in parallel, different types of information about that one point to the brain (Figure 30).

As we've noted, and consistent with the major structure/function theme of biology, each distinct function or parallel channel of information-type—color, light intensity, motion, image position, etc.—corresponds to a set of cells that share similar structure and can be identified by scientists based on those cells' particular architecture and molecular nature. For example, one set of similar cells sends red-green color information from the retina to the LGN; another

देशिस्य देव'ळेव'ग्रीश ५१छॅन'ग्री सेनायार्थेद मन्यायवस्य क्रेंभाषा छॅन'ग्रीस'ठे'वियासर्घतम्बा माय्यर्थेन्द्रम्या वेस्यायस्या स्टर्भा श्रुव स्वळेन'ग्रीस'देश्वर'श्वस्य श्रुमायाप्यवेद ग्रुसा हे स्वय्ज्ञस्य ग्रीसप्रदेश्वम् याठेगासर्छ्रस्य स्टेन ने'यायवस्य क्रि ग्रिट्य प्यत्या ग्रीसप्रदेश्वम् ने'यवेवस्ट्रम्य सेनायाप्रस्य प्याप्य स्वय्यप्रम्य पार्वे यद्वया ने'यवेवस्ट्रम्य सेनायाप्रस्य ग्रीयाप्यस्य व्यय्यत्य याद्वे स्ववस्यावे वायर्क्रस्य स्वयं व्याप्र ग्रीयाप्यस्य व्यय्यत्य वययः विवास्य हेन्याया व्यवस्य विवे स्वर्यस्य विवे प्यत्यात्य वययः विवास्य हेन्याया व्ययस्य विवे स्वर्यस्य विवे प्यत्यात्य वययः विवास हेन्द्रायाया व्ययस्य विवे स्वर्यन्य विवे स्वर्यन्य विवयः विवे प्यत्यात्य व्ययन्त्य विवयः विवास क्रिय्यायाः वययः विवास हेन्द्रायाया विवास हेन्द्रायाः विवित् पुरुप्ता देशाय्य व्ययन्त्य न्या

नईंद्राय्युषाग्रीषा अर्थत्वीपतुवा देंद्राग्रत्यात्तपुत्रभवेवाष्णश्रदेश व्यवत्वेगायर्थत्वाय्याग्वत्वयात्त्वात्त्वर्यात्त्वात्वर्यात्रायत्वात्वत्वा

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Figure 30: Mapping of an image in the brain. In the image above, each of the circles represents the receptive field of a cell, which signals the brain complementary visual information. The picture we see is constructed from the combined and overlapping signals of these cells.

YOUR TURN: DEPTH PERCEPTION

Do you think depth perception is something you're born with or not? Or is it something you can learn through practice? How would you go about investigating this question?

EYE MOVEMENTS

Consider the challenges of seeing objects accurately whether or not you are moving or they are moving or both. Look at the picture of the girl to the right. Do you think your eyes are moving as you look at her?

Actually, they are. The image below shows you what a scene would look like if your eyes didn't move. The center of our visual field is in sharp focus due to the high density of cone receptors at the fovea, while the edges of our visual field are blurry due to the rod receptors in the periphery of our retina. When we look at something, however, our eyes are constantly in motion, taking short pictures





of different parts of a scene. Our brains use these snapshots to build a unified image.

The picture to the right of the girl shows the typical movement of your eyes as they look at the girl. Using many muscles (see below), the



eyes make very small imperceptible movements called saccades, allowing you to scan the image and move it around your retinas to the fovea. Your eyes use saccades to look in all directions, for reading and other forms of scanning, and to look over at something you initially catch a glimpse of on the periphery of your vision. Saccades are controlled by a network of structures in the brainstem and cerebral hemispheres. The image below shows some of the eye muscles that control eye movement.

In addition to saccades, your eye performs smooth movement to track a moving object, vergence movement to align both your eyes on an object, and reflex movement to automatically compensate for other body movements. Even when you think your eyes are still, they're not; they are undergoing fixational movement. So, your eyes are never perfectly still, and never see a static image. Your brain just makes it seem that way.



र्नेवर्नेस्मरंबी नार्थे प्यायाने रागे थें राया नाय हे आवस्य देराहेर ૹ૽૾ૢૺ૾ૹ૾૾ૹૢૡ૱ૹૡૻઌૺૼૡૹૢૡૡ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ धुष्पम्रीः इस्राम्पत्ते वियागी महुद्र देशान्दायदायरा स्रोत्ति केंग देष्पता ર્નેઽઃજીઽઃબઃબૅઽિઽધંવેઃસુઽઃઽૢ૽૽૾ૢઽૹઃક્ષેઃબે૱ધઃક્ષઅઃસુવાઃૹૻઽઅકેંગવેઃ ૹ૾ૢૢૺ૱ૹ૽૾ૢૹૻૻઽૻ૽ૼૹ૾ૼૡ૽૾ૺઐ૽૿૽ૻ૿ૡૹૻૻ૽૽ૼૺૢ૽ૼ૱ૹ૽૾ૺ૱ૻૺઌ૽૾ૡૻ૽૱ૻ૽ઌ૾૽ૡૻ૽૱ૻ૽ઌ૾૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૾૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૾૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૾૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૾૾ૡ૾૽ૡ૾૾ૡ૾૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૾૾ૡ૽ ૡૺૡ૾ૼૼૢૢૼઽૡૺૡૺૢૢૻ૱ૢૢૻ૱ૻ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ ๚มาฏิเมลามอลมพาสุมมาการิการูเมริ์สาฏิานิกุ วิเนาสุมา ⁽ भरन्द्र के भन्द्र भन्दे भन्द्र भन्द् भन्द्र भन्द्र

हिन्छेन्न्सा सुवानीन्देश्यर्भवमा सम्बन्धवासुवाखनाक्रियाग व्युव्यन्र्भुन् कुग्न्मेवर, वर्षेन् अवदे स्रूर् दरण्डा गवरु भ्रान्श <u>ने'न्या' फुर्हिन ग्रीश खुवाने दे खुन्य नवेत्व स्वर्वेन पर हिन वान्यावा</u> ૡઌૢૻૡ૽ૻૡૢઽૡઙઽૻૹ૾૽ઽૢઌૡ૽ૺૹૻૣૼૼૼઽૡ૽ૢ૾ઽૻૹ૽૾ૢ૾ૹૻઌૹૹૻઌૣ૽ૡ૽૾ઌૻઙ૾૽ઌૻ૽૱ૼ न्ता नेत्रः यात्रना माय्यया ग्रीज क्रुत्ते दे पदा प्रत्याया प्या के मार्थ्य या के मार्थ्य का के मार्थ्य के मार्थ યા હિન્ગીશ્વાનક્ષ્રાત્વરા સન્દેન્ટ ને માર્ક્ષ મીત્ર નું હિન્ગી સેવા વ્યા શ્વા થયું. व्यायामेर्हरणेव वर्त्यायासा से वर्त्या ने पा सक्स वहेंगा ही आ



arærनेवियाध्यश्य:योर्वेन्ग्यंवेन्नेश्रेश्वरेशनेश्रव्यः क्रून्नेन्ग्यः ॻॖऀॱॸॱऄऀ॔ऀऄॵॵॵॡग़ॖॵख़ऄॕॵॸॖ॓ॱऒऄॕक़ॱॻॖॖऀॱऄ॔ॸऻऀऀऀऀऀॱऄॵक़ॵ નર્ગોલા ર્શેન (ગાનચાન લેંક્સ) તેનુ માલે સેંગ સગામ જેવે ચાર્ગ શાળા છે.

ભ્શુભગ્વાર્કેન્ગો એન્ મન્સ્સારી ને સુર છેન્ છે તરુ ખુભગ્વી સ્થાયતે. ૹૡૹૹ૽ૺૡઽૡૡૹૹ૽૽૽ૺૡઽૡૡઽૢૢૹૡૢઽૡૺૡઽૡઽૡ૽ૡ <u></u>ને 'વશ્ય માર્જે તે 'ગ્રાન પશ્ચ બદ ' પ મ છે' નુ શ નુ ને ' તે સાથ પ ગે મે બા સું ને ' છે શ



<u>क्षरने हिन्छे सनम्बर्भन्के</u>न्ने।

माज्जूदर मार्ग रे मार्ग राज्य के साम के मार्ग के मा พन्द्रमेन्ग्नन्न खुक्षांग्रेजीयोधावमीलम्त्रायान्त्रत्वीयांग्रीकामीय. महिरार्भे प्रमुवाये न नहतर्भे र मतरु राष्ट्र या सुवाय के मार्गे सुवाय न मार्गे सुवाय के मार्गे सुवाय के साम के मार्गे सुवाय के साम क कुक्टर्नेवायाने क्षेत्राणवर्षा खेनाने अन्याने नगाकुक्टने नगाकेना ગભ્રંવે બ્સુબ ગર્સેનું છે રાખત લુગાય મંવે છેત્રા ને યાત્ર છેનું છે એવા તે. <u>नुःशः</u>त्रसःष्यम्यः याद्येनाः कुःव्युःष्यसेन् महत्र सेन् मत्रसः स्वत्याः નુશ્વ સાંખાર છુવા છું જુ સાં માવવા વા સે મું જે વા સો કે ર ગવર વા ગઠ તે સાં येन ने'सूर वत्र प्यायायेन नहन में राष्ठ्र रा स्रुवा रा दे प्याय

พราสุขาณร์รา

अर्देत-कुट-प्रांते-पार्थि-प्रमुव्य-क्रेट्-' क्याव्य-क्रुट-प्रमुव्य-हे-- क्याव्य-क्रुट-प्रमुव्य-૬ વર્ષેની ને વાગ મુંત્ર સાં છે નું ગુરુ ત્યાં સુધાર બારા દ્વેર શે સેવા વી શાકરા વગુ લા શે વ્યો લા જેવા છે. તે र्धेगश्वगुनः हुन्नञ्जन्दा स्वय्येन ग्रेजन्मानन हेन यद्दा क्रेंग ารารา พรีรานูจาฏิรรัพาร์เลิเพลจาพสพพ.พูรระรัญาพูรา ઙૻ૱ૡૢઽૢૻઽૻ૱ૡૹૻૹ૽૾ૡ૱ૻૻઽ૽ૡ૽ૺૡૢૡ<u>ૻ</u>૱૱૱ૡ૱ૢૻૼૼ૱ૻૻ૱૱૱૽ૢૺૼઽ मन्त्री क्राक्त्रियां में या क्रांग्री के क्रांग्र क्रांग्री के क्रांग्र क्रांग्री के क्रांग क्रांग्री के क्रांग्र क्रांग्री के क्रांग्र क्रांग्री के क्रांग्र क्रांग्री के क्रांग्र <u>५८:भू५:मू८:२३४:शुःळ्याश:२ंदे:५४व:२ग्वी:५:केंगुश:२ेवा:वीश:</u> ^भोप्त्गुयामर्क्केन्ट्राईन् दिन्द्रीन् रावेन्द्रभागांभिभाषावन् प्रयाविद्वयायाः

אַםיקימַקאיםאָד

૬વે'રેશ ૨૦ ગ્રાનપર વારૂષાય વક્રુવ લેવાવી વર્ષેય યશુવ ઢેંત્ર જ્ઞેનપર્થી વાર્જીવા વેનિવી પર રેશ વરવી જેન્સવારી વાય રે રે ᠊᠋ᢋ᠋ᢂ᠈ᡎ᠋᠋ᡪ᠋᠋ᠴ᠆᠋ᠴ᠋ᡔ᠉ᡱᢅᡄ᠄ᢅ᠋᠋᠊᠋ᡷ᠊ᡸ᠃ᢩᡚ᠍᠈ᢩᡏ᠆᠄ᢍ᠈ᡅᡱᢋ᠋᠋ᡢᡏ᠆ᡔ᠇ᡭᡄᡃᡜ᠈᠊᠋᠊᠋ᢋ᠆ᠵ᠅ᡬ᠅ᡜ᠄ᢋ᠋᠆ᠵᠴᡭ᠄ᡜ᠈᠊᠋ᢋᡄᡭ᠄ᡜ᠈᠊᠋ᢋᡄᡭ᠄ᡜ᠈᠊᠋ᢋᡄᡭ᠄ᡜ᠈᠊᠋ᢋᡄᡭ᠄ᡜ᠈᠊᠍ᢖ᠆ᡞ᠆ᡬ᠅᠋ᡘ᠉



নিশাশ্বর্শি মেমা

તુઆ દેંતુ છે. શું આ શું સુદ્ર અર્ શ્રેન અર્ શી અર્ શેન ગ मावेगाधेवा देप्तप्दीमानहगामाहेन्यमा

الآج عَالَة مَعَالَة المُ हर्म् कर् ही पर्य के sends blue/yellow information (Figure 30) and expresses a set of enzymes distinct to that set. Lesions in these areas can result in the kinds of color-blindness seen above in the story of the artist Jonathan I (Story 7). Studies of people with such lesions also show that there is overlapping function among the different channels of information moving through the processing system, that is, each class of cells and their functions are not entirely independent.

Unraveling the connections among parallel processes is one of the major remaining challenges, because, although scientists know significant detail about the types of cells and connections in the LGN, they still don't know exactly the role of the LGN in vision or any other sensory functions. Actually only 10-20% of all the LGN neural information comes from the retina, so perhaps the LGN sorts or controls visual information in relation to other parts of the brain. Scientists continue to use lesion studies to better understand neural structure and function. However, new and more refined techniques involving activation or analysis of specific molecules in the brains of primates (without harming them) performing particular tasks are promising even more accurate and detailed understanding.

LGN TO PRIMARY VISUAL CORTEX (V1)

The visual signal is next passed, again in an organized parallel fashion, to the primary visual cortex, called V1, where more complex information is taken from the signal, information like orientation and direction of the image. Like the LGN, V1 also has a modular, topographic organization following from the LGN (Figure 31). Again, within each module or column of V1, specific types of neurons predominate, corresponding to particular functions for further processing before the information is sent on to the association areas (V2-V5) for even more complex analysis. Information moving through these areas does not just move in one direction, but instead many feedback connections exist, presumably for repeated processing or analysis.

Cortex V1

Figure 31: The mapping of V1 following the LGN.

V1 TO ASSOCIATION AREAS

Recent research suggests that the parallel information coming from LGN into V1 is mixed to some extent and not kept entirely separated. The mixing is carried out by a group of spatial- and cell-type specific neurons. These neurons reorganize the information and pass it on to V2. These informational outputs from V1 represent the beginnings of two other distinct sets of information— again identified as separable by the structure and function, location and capa-

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ચર્ષેંદ જેંદ છે સ્વેચ ગ્રહ્ન સ્વ (क्षे) ?)

નચે 'રૈશા' ૨૧ વ્લેન'શે 'લ્રુ'ન્વે 'સન'ર્લે' (બેવા' દે 'બેત્રા)ત્રચ 'ર્થત યલે 'ઢ વ્લેત્ર'નવા'નન' વર્ષેને 'સન'ર્લે ગયા વર્ષે ચ' અલુત્ર 'વલે 'ઢ વ્લેલ્ન' ને 'વન ચર્ચેન' ર્કેન્ 'શે 'શું 'રેલ' સન' બુન' (લે વિગ)નું વર્ષેને 'ચલે 'ત્રચ ગ

- 1 अर्बेन केंन ग्रेष्ट्र रेम मान जुन रेम मान न रो
- 2/3 અર્કેન્સ્ટેન્સ્યોક્ષ્ય ત્રેમ્યુનું ભુદ્વ તેમન્ય વાદ્યમાં માં મુખ્યત્વે સામાં વાદ્યમાં મુખ્યત્વે સામાં મુખયત્વે સામાં મુખ્યત્વે સામાં મુખ્યત્વે સામાં મુખ્યત્વે સામાં મુખયત્વે સામાં મુખ્યત્વે સામાં મુખયત્વે સામાં
- 4B अर्थेन्द्र्केन्द्र्यीः श्रुन्द्रेश्वः यान् भुवन्द्रेश्वः यान्वविश्ववे वन्यानेश्वः देशयायया
- 4C अर्बेन्द्रकें र ग्रेन्थ्र देअग्रान् भुद देअग्यानविष्यवेदनायायेया देअग्यायाया
- 5 અર્થેલ્ટેંસ્ટ્રેન્ટ્રોક્ટ્ર્સ્ટ્રેસ્ટ્રાન્ટ્રાન્ડ્રબુસ્ટ્રેસ્ટ્રાન્ટ્ર્યુટ્ટ્
- 6 अर्बेन्: केंन्र: मे) रू रेश यान भुव रेश मा दुगा ना

bilities of the cells that carry the information— known as the dorsal stream and the ventral stream (Figure 32).

The dorsal stream is also known as the 'where' stream because it processes information about navigation, the location of objects in your visual field, as well as information about those objects' motion, your smooth pursuit eye movements, and figuring out your arm and eye movements in relation to what you're seeing. The ventral stream is also known as the 'what' stream because it has to do with the object's representation, recognizing it, orienting it, processing complex combinations of color and pattern, conscious experience and long-term memory storage.

The two streams continue to move through the other association areas (Figure 33) where more complex information is gathered. The same themes of functional and structural cell modularity are followed throughout. While they are separate, these two streams of information do interact. After all, the two streams, dorsal and ventral, process the same information, but in relation to different behavioral goals.

Specific neurons selectively respond to a specific class of object and are important for identifying that type of object; the object is recognized (and those cells become active) regardless of the location, size, color or other characteristics of the object. When looking at faces, we see more activity in the 'what' ventral stream, and when analyzing location, we see more in the 'where' stream. When parts of the 'where' stream are damaged, people cannot point or grasp accurately and, as we've seen, when parts of the what stream are damaged, facial recognition can be impaired (see Story 4 above).

INTERPRETATION AND CONTEXT

We've been building a story here—moving beyond just parts and individual functions toward a more comprehensive picture of how we see and understand a picture. But we still are a long way from describing the experience of seeing a picture, how we take all these parallel bits of information and in less than a second see it as one complete image. And it's more than that, we don't just see the image, but we see that image and its characteristics as constant regardless of its distance from us, how the light changes, or how its surroundings change. Vision is a dynamic and creative process. For example, our vision is constantly adjusting and adapting to the situation. **Accomodation** is one of many dy-



Figure 32: Parallel visual information entering V1 is mixed and passed on to V2. The information passed to V2 is split into two sets - the dorsal and ventral streams. The dorsal stream processes "where" information, while the ventral stream processes "what" information.



Figure 33: Information is processed by different association areas. While the dorsal and ventral streams of information are separate, they interact and process the same information in different ways.

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ਸ਼<u></u>ੑੑਸ਼ੑਗ਼ੑਸ਼ਖ਼ਗ਼ੑੑਸ਼ੑਗ਼ੑੑੑੑ

ᡲᡜᢅᡪ᠊ᡃᡅᢦ᠋᠋᠆᠊᠊ᢐᡃ᠋᠆᠋᠋᠋ᠵᡏᢆ᠋᠉ᡃᡭ᠊᠋ᡎᢂ᠋᠊ᡭᢂ᠋ᠽ᠋᠍ᢋᡄᡃᠲ᠂ᡪ᠋᠋᠋ᡨᢄᠴ᠋ᡎᢄᠴ᠋᠋ᡎ᠆ᡆ᠋᠂ᡆ᠋ᢋ᠆᠋ᢙ न्यधेवा अः वन् रुन् नेर्रे अः रुव ने न्यायीः दर्षिन्यावकान्मा नेम् अर्जना वर्नेया छन् कें याववायाम्यधेवायाः या *ୖୄୄଢ଼*୶୰୵ଽ୵୳୵୕ୄୡ୕ୣ୰ଡ଼ୄୄୢ୕ୢଵୄୢୢଡ଼୲୶୵ଡ଼୲ୖଡ଼୲୶ୖୖଽ୶୰ୡୖୄଽୖୣ୶ୖୄୠୄୣୄ୵୰୵୕ୖୖ୶୕୲୕ୠୄୖ୵୕ୖ୷୶୶୰୷ଽ୵ଽ୵ୖଡ଼୲ୖୄୠୄ୵୕ୖୢ୫ଡ଼୲ୖୢୄୠୄୠ୶୰୲୶୵ୖୄ୵ વાવચ્યાકુવા ને ભાવાલવા શું મેં વાર્ને માર્ચે સંગતે છે. "વારે "થે સુવ શું ભુભાનું છું ભુભાનું છું ભુભાવા વાર્યે સાં ભાવાય ભારતી વાર્યે છે. ભાવાય ભારતી વાર્યે છે. ભાવાય ભારતી ભા ૡૢૡૹ૽૾ૢ૽ૹૻઌઌૹ૾ૣ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૻ૱ૢ૽ૺૡ૾૽ઌઙ૽૽૾ૺૼૻૻઌ૽ૻૡૡૻૹ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡૡ૾૾ૡ૽૾ૡૡ૾૾ૡ૽૾ૡૡ૾૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૾ૡૡ૾૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૾ૡ "ঀ৾৾৾৾৾৻"৾৾৾৶৾য়ৣৢৢ৾৾য়৾ঀৢ৾৾য়৾৾৽ঀয়৾৽য়৾৾৻ঀ৾য়৾য়৾৾য়৾৾ঀ৾৾য়৾ঀ৾৾য়৾৾য়য়৾য়৾ঀঀয়৾য়৾ঀ৾ঀ৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾ ๗รีุนาตร์ๆพายิรานดฆาฐาาตรูายิรายูนาฏิเพิ่รา (พาราราสานตารัสายูกาติาณีาสูสานดิานารัสุล)

શું ફ્રું ઢ વર્ષ્ઠવા રત્ય વૈજ્ઞેત્વ સ્ટેન્ટ સાથે છે. આ સાથે આ સાથે સાથે સાથે આ સાથે સાથે આ સાથે સાથે સાથે સાથે સ

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नहेव वर्षा र्शे र्श्वेन ह्या यत्र छे मा विषा थीवा



न्ये रेश २२ गन्रेंदर्यते कार्य्येत समयाव्येला ૹૹૢઽ[੶]ૹ_{૾ૻૡ૿}ૹૻૹઽૻૡ૽૿ૢ૾ૹૻૻઽ૱૽ઌ૾૾૱૱૱૱ ^द्वेत्र में) श्रेन मुत्र नन्देया मुत्र श्वे ळंत याहेश्व में तन्द गश्रेश्राचन्द्राण्वेत्राणदादेन्द्रणेग्वीश्राकादविदाग्रीक्तुःकः



નર્શ માર્ચ જ રહેન ને દ્વા

- २२े'रेश २२ सर्वेरळॅर मुंग्रू रेश यान प्व (के १) वा ૬ 'ગુનુશ્ર 'બેન્ડ'] ક્ષિવ્ય ને 'નુશ્ર રુ'લ્સેન 'ને 'નુગ' ગ્રુન 'બુન' ફિંનુ' શું અર્વેનર્જેન્ડ અભુવ્ય ગઢિશ્વ ન્યન્ડ (લે 3) ગઠિન્ડ ન્યન્ડેન્ડ ૹૢઽ੶ૡૢ૱ૹ૾ૢૼૼૼૼૼ૱૽૽ૢ૾ૢૺૻૻૹ૽૽ૹૼૼૼૼઽ૽ૼૹૻ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૻૹૻૻૡૢૢૢૢૢૼઌૻૻઌૻૻૡ૽૿ૡ૽૿૾ૺ૱૾ૻ૱ૻ૽ૼૡ૽૿૾૾ૺ૱૾૾૱ ઞঢ়ઽ੶ઞવે੶ૹ੶વ્ક્ષે૱'ને સ્ટ્રેઽ'क़ॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖ ਜ਼੶ઽઽ૽ૡૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૻ૽ૢ૾૱ૡ૾ૺ૱ "୩'ㅋጙ'"དང'འཐ଼ୖལ'བའི'ཆ'འཕྱིན'དཕྱི'གམེམ'ཕྱིད'ལ། ᡬᢆ᠊᠋᠋᠋ᡎ᠊ᢩ᠊᠊ᡍᢩᢋ᠈ᢓᡃ᠄᠊᠋᠋ᠣᠯᢋ᠄ᡚᢩᢂ᠃᠉᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠇᠆᠋ᠷᢆ᠃ᡔ᠋ᠺᡱᡆ᠃ᠴᡭ᠂ᢍ᠈ᠺᡱ᠋ᢋ



namic vision processes; it is the process by which the eye can accurately focus on an object even as its distance from you varies. This is accomplished thanks to your many eye muscles collaborating with your brain. Muscles allow both eyes to track the image so that it remains centered on your fovea: your pupils adjust their size and the light rays entering are bent by changes in the shape of the lens, and thus focused on the fovea.

We started this primer by talking about the importance of context in our understanding of any phenomenon. We discussed neuroscience in the context of human history—science, religion, and culture—and evolutionary history. Context is also vital to how we see and interpret information. Look carefully at step two in our steps of perception we have been developing:

- 1. sense: use our eyes to detect the light reflected from the images ;
- 2. take in and interpret what is sensed: transfer the information experienced in the eye as light into another kind of signal that can go to the brain, selecting out and 'seeing' only the image and only the important parts of the image from all the other background, synthesizing all the light and pieces of the image we see into one image that 'makes sense', and attaching to this image emotions and past experiences stored in the brain and thus, perceiving the images as that of His Holiness;
- 3. **respond**: signals from the brain based on interpretation lead to relevant response, that is, deciding on a course of action, for-mulating a plan, and then carrying out that plan: for example, to the hand muscle to pick up the pictures, to the eye to keep looking at the images, to other parts of the brain and body to feel moved or happy.

It is evident our brains are not only *reading* the sensory information they receive, as difficult as that is, but they are also *interpreting* it, based on past experience (memories) as well as pre-established wiring. For example, in looking at the pictures of His Holiness, the brain is asking 'what do other human faces I have seen look like?', but also 'do I recognize this face?' and 'what are my experiences and emotions related to this face/person?' In the visual cortex, such memories must also be integrated with the streams of information we interpret as we see. Humans process face identity in one specific area (Figure 34) and facial expressions in another, and "meaning" of faces in an extended network that includes the amygdala (remember this is part of the limbic, emotion system of our brains). These networks are linked to social responses like fear or avoidance and empa-



Figure 34: The fusiform face area, located on the ventral surface of the temporal lobe, is specifically activated when viewing faces. like the stimulus shown at the lower right.

ઽવેઃરેશા ૱ ઽવેઃરેશ વ્ટેવિવેંચ્વારેશ છેઃથાબશ્ર સ્થ શુઃવાશ્વવાયત્વે વક્રુવ પર છુ તું છું તેં લેવાથી રેં વર્દે ત્વરેં શુઃવર્ષ સુવશા છું શાયત છે છું છું તેં દેવે ક્લુથા વદ્દવ શ્લે શ્રેવ્ય દેશ શુઃવર્ષેદ પ્યવે વ્યવર થી શુખ્ય હવાછે વર્દે તે રેંક્ર હાણવારે બ્રુવાયર દુખર શ્વર છે. છે. આ



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thy or affiliation. Recognition of emotion in others and emotional-evaluative responses in ourselves is critical to social competence. Damage to brain regions involved in these functions is associated with impaired social interactions.

YOUR OWN PERSONAL CONTEXT

So, we break the image into parts (edges and shapes, colors and motion), fill in the missing pieces, bind the objects together, and judge object size and distance from us, while at the same time mixing in emotion and memories as we go. Thus, your brain, in figuring out what you're seeing, considers historical context also! In this case, both your own personal history, memories of experiences and emotions associated with what's being seen, and evolutionary history, the capacities allowed and constraints imposed by the genes, cells, and tissues that have evolved in the central nervous system of the human species are involved.

These two histories—the evolutionary and the personal—are tightly linked, reinforcing, and complementary, and their interactions will be discussed in detail in Life Sciences Primer III and other primers. One major implication of the impact of these two histories on how we see (or sense or think or understand) is that no two people see, sense, or think about things the same way. So, although there are clearly similarities in everyone's basic underlying biology, no two people have the same experiences; therefore, no two brains see, think, or experience the same things in the same way. Clearly, this significant biological fact also has significant health, philosophical, psychological, social, and cultural implications.

CONTEXT INFLUENCES PERCEPTION

To determine the size and distance of objects in our visual field, our brains automatically compare the spatial relationships of those objects to each other and their contextual relationship to other objects near to the ones on which we are focused (Figure 35).

Context is extremely important for how we see in three dimensions, which we are able to do by analyzing and comparing slight disparities between information from our two eyes. This so-called **binocular disparity** is analyzed in different ways with different sensitivities in both the dorsal and ventral streams that together add up to us seeing and understanding what we see in three dimensions.



Figure 35: Size and distance of objects in our visual fields. Which soldier do you think is larger? In fact, the three individuals pictured are the same size and are the same distance from us on the page. Our brain contextualizes the information based on the relationship between the objects and their background.



Figure 36: A context-dependent illusion. Your brain interprets the figure depending on context. If you read across the page, you see "A B C"; if you read down the page, you see 12, 13, 14.

14"অইনির্দ্রা

न्ये रेश २७ भ्रुन्शः ग्रे प्रे न्यु पाय नहेत्र परि प्यु पा भून ારેન્ છે ગ્રાન્ પશ્ચ ગ્રાન્સ છે બ્લેબ સુમ્ વશ્વ ને મે સે ને ને જોવ વ`ર્ફિન્'ગ્રીશપ્ધેગ'લ્વુ'"A B C"શ્વર્ધેન'ભા બન્દર્ફિન્'ગ્રીશપ્લેંગ র্নমণ্ট শান্তুন'র সমাদা ব'রী ট্রিন'শ্রীম'জন শ্রানম'"12, 13,

2 ABC

२५ ८ र हे दे से गा गसा दु भ्वर न दे र दर्र स নন্দ:ইক্ষ্য क्रम्भाग्री में र मार्के दिन में मार्ग हिन में मार्ग के र में में मार्ग के र में में मार्ग के र में में मार्ग में में में मार्ग के र में में मार्ग में में में मार्ग में में मार्ग में में में मार्ग में में मार्ग में में मार्ग में मार्ग में में मार्ग में मार्ग में में मार्ग में में मार्ग में मार्ग में में मार्ग में में मार्ग में मार्ग में में मार्ग मार्ग मार्ग मार्ग मा નસગાસે વર્ન નગા અશ્વ હોવા ગી લુશ્વ મેંદ્ર શા છે બેંશ શુ વર્તુ ગાયા ર્ને વર્ત્સ શું તે ને સે અવર ગાય ગયે. [૾]૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ 551 यरप्येंन थेंन ने सुर वयर र के के मुन य का की नुने नगायवरद्वर ग्री प्रदेश मान्द्रा दे नगायी कुन क्रिंट शा ग्री ૠૻ[ૢ]ૠૻઌૻૡ૽ૺૡૻૻઌ૱ૢૻઽૻૹૢ૽ૡ૱૽ૡૻઌૼૼૼૼૻ૽ઌ૽૾ૺૻૼ૱ૡ૽ૼ૱ૻ૽ૼૻૹૢઌૹૻ



ઽ੶ૐૹ੶ਲ਼੶ૢઽૼૹ੶ਗ਼ੑੑઽ੶୴ઽ੶ૹ૾ૢૼਗ਼ੑੑૹ੶ਗ਼ૡૢ૱੶ਲ਼ਫ਼ੑ੶੶ੑ੶ਸ਼ਖ਼ૼૼઽ੶ਸ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ਸ਼ਗ਼੶ਸ਼ਖ਼ੵੑਫ਼੶ਗ਼ੵ੶ਫ਼ਖ਼੶੶ਗ਼ੵ੶ਫ਼੶ਜ਼ੵਫ਼੶ਖ਼ੵ੶ਲ਼੶ਲ਼ਫ਼੶੶ਗ਼ੑੑ੶੶ਫ਼ੑ ૿ ૫ૡૺૹૻૻઙ૽ૺઽૻઌ૫ૢૻઙૣૻૻ૱ૼૹૻૹૻૻૡૡ૱ૡૢૼૡૼૻૹૡૢૼઽૹૻૹૣઽૻ૽૽ૢ૽ૺૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૻૻૡૡ૽ૺૻૹ૽ૢૼૻૡૹૻૻઽૻૻૼ૾૾ૼૹૻૻૹ૽ૻૻૡ૽૾ૡ૿૽ઌૻૻ૿ૹ૾૽ૼૡૻૹૻ૽૱ૡૻૢ૱ૻૻૹૡૻૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૻ

ᠵ᠋᠊᠋᠊ᢅ᠋ᢙᡭ᠗ᡃ᠋ᠳᠬᡐ᠋ᢍᡃ᠋᠊ᠧ᠄ᠳᠵ᠊ᡆᡭ᠂᠋ᢐ᠂ᡪ᠋ᡏᡬ᠋᠉ᡪ᠆ᡎᡃᡆᢆᡰ᠂ᡏᡝᡄ᠋ᠬ᠋᠄ᡠ᠆ᡪᡄᢧ᠋ᢆ᠍᠍ᢖ᠆ᡘᡆ᠋᠋ᡨᢄᡧ᠋᠋ᡎ᠋᠋ᢋ᠆ᢓ᠆ᢙ᠆᠋᠆᠋ᡄᢜᡭ᠂ᡎ᠆᠋ᢈᢂ᠂ᢐ᠂ᡪᠮᡬ᠉ ୖଽ[ୣ]ଽୣଡ଼୲ୄୣଽ୳୷ୄୖୢୄଌ୲୰୷ୄୢୄୢୠୄ୷୰୷ୄଽୡ୶୶୲୰୶ୄୄୄଌ୕୶ୄଌୄଢ଼୵୶ୄୄଌ୷ୖୄୢୠୄ୷୰୷୕୶୲<u></u>ୠୄ୷ୖ୷ୖୢ୶୲୶୲୷୰୲୶୷୰୲୲ୄୠୄ୵

<u></u>દ્દેશ્વાય સંચય છે છે છે. આ પ્રયુધ પ્રચાય છે છે છે છે છે છે. આ પ્રચાય છે છે. આ પ્

ૡૡૺઌ੶ૡૹૄૢૣૻૣૻઽૹ૾ૢૢૢૺૻૢઽૢૻઽ૽૱ૡૢૻૹ૽ૢૺ૱ૹ૽ૢૢ૽ૺ૱ૢૢૻૢઽૻૻઽઌૹૻૻઌૼૡ૾ૢૺૹૻૻૡૻૻૡ૱ૡૢૼૼૼૼૼ૱ૢૻ૱૾ૻૼ૾ૼ૱ૹ૾૽ૼૡૼ૾ૻૡ૾ૻ ভূদ-সনমান্দ্র- আর্রিমার্মান্ট্রা ୩ଷ୍ଟ୍ଞୟଂଦ୍ୟଙ୍କଙ୍କୁବି ନହିଁ କିନ୍ଦ୍ୟୁନ୍ କିନ୍ଦ୍ୟୁକ୍ କିନ୍ଦ୍ର କ ळॅंबरणटःविषाळ्याः हैः क्षरः दुः अर्वेदः युषाबः (ळॅंत्रः युषाबा) हेवा युषाबा) वेषः युषाबा) क्षेद्रः र्वोदः याबया ज्यूदः रत्तवः यविषा ૨ૻૼૡ૾૾ૡ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ ૬૮૧ ૹૻૺૼૠૹૢૼૼૼૼૼૡૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૢૻૡૹ૱ૡૡ૽ૺૼૠૹૢૼઌૻઌૹૡૻૹ૾ૺ૱ૹૢૼઽૹૻૡૻૡૺૡ૽ૺૡ૽૽ૡ૽૽ૡ૽ૺૡ૽ૡ૽ૺૡ૽ૡ૽ૺૡ૽ૡ૽ૺૡ૽ૡ૽ૡ૽ૺૡૡ૽ૺૡ૽ૡ૽ૡ૽ૡ૽ ଶ୍ରି'ମ୍ମିଁଷ'ସାଁସାରି୩'ଏସମ'ଅର୍ଶିମ'ଞ୍ଜୋ'ମ୍ମମା ନିଁ୩'ଞ୍ଜିଏ। ୠଷଷ୍ୟାଶ୍ରିଞିମଞ୍ଜେଏ'ଛି'ଅଞ୍ଜମଷାଁ ।୩୩୩୮'ଛି'ସଦି'କ୍ଥି'ମ୍ମିଁଷା ๚ุสพาญทุพาศรีพากสากสารสารมีราวทิสารา หูเพูก จิมพาทุณพา ธิทุพาลิโ ริยาทุตุราวชพารราศมิคาสลา

ุศพาสุมพาๆธิฤๅภูาซุ้มานๆ ๆ รัพาน์ผิวนี้รพาธ์ราวุรณานๆ รราณาผู้พาสุพาๆสูๆพานสุสารินิาฐรายๆาวสัญานา พन्द्रम्बरुगविषाणी खुभार् दिष्ठिरार्भे दिग्भन्दितिग्री ग्वेष्वरुष्ट्रम्बर् द्रेराम्बुन्द्रा दे क्षेत्र ग्रुत्र युग्दर्भ ग्री द्वेभाग्री वित्

ואפאיעטיאיאפאאי

ୡ୶୶୲୶ଡ଼୶୶ୄୢଈ୕ୖୣ୶ୖ୳ଽ୕ଡ଼୲୳୶୲୵୶୲୵୶୲ୖୄ୲ଌ୕ୄ୵ୄୠ୵୳ୢୖୠ୵ୖୢୠୄ୵୕୳ୖୖୖୖ୳ଽୠ୶୲ୖୡ୶୲ୠ୶୶୲୵୶୶୲ୄୠ୲ଡ଼ୖ୲୵୕୳ୖ୵ୣ

CONTEXT, RECOGNITION, AND BINDING

Our brains also use context to help identify and recognize, and thus to see and learn more about the particular objects or images. Look at Figure 36. In the context of the horizontal objects, the center object is seen as the letter B, but in the vertical context, we see the center object as the number 13.

Ann Treisman and Bella Julesz have done some interesting experiments addressing what is called the binding problem—how we move from seeing boundaries, edges, and context to a percept. They and others find that a key in seeing and interpreting an image is where we focus our **attention**, or put another way, association requires attention. Why, after all, is our attention drawn to human faces first, and not clothes or arms? In a complicated scene like that in Figure 37, what draws your attention? Do you think others focus on something else?

Treisman and Julesz started at a very basic level with images like that in Figure 38 (from Bergen and Julesz, 1983). The scientists found that when they asked people about what they saw in such images, they focused on boundaries and edges.....



Figure 37: What do you focus on in this photo? Why do you think our attention is drawn to faces first?

A

ヘインションションシンションレントレンシントレイシンシン 「くててく シアマンハートアイアマアアショーション インハン パンハンションイ アーンレイク コンゴイ ションディーティ べく レアマンション・コン・コノ ハマアンショマレア レインマン くてって ううにうして ヘクレジョンレーシア ヘレションテレビハン レーションドく シアマイトレイマントアクハレレイマションアド シェミンイトレイ シャーショイトシャンシュティンション バンイン・・・・ ・・ 、 シーレンインシンシンシンシン イン* +* +*+ ** コペトナンバナトスレヘアハシュレント シレナイナナイ オイオイトシアレイシアレイシアイシアノン ショアメ・メ・・ * * * >アマラアラレハイシスティンズマラマンイ シレント ショイシー マイアマイ イレーシア レンアーノーイ トイアンシアイアアシア つかとついくとかとく イアア・ハンスライ 「」ンドイトーレンハンバ ハノンシーバ イントーレントイインー うっしかういしんでんでうこくひょうく ひとうしん くろう コンテベングドトレディアレトレデアペントペアレイペンシイレ いたいへい いくたいりょくく いんしい シーレン・レイ くくてイハントハシャンインシャンシンインノンシントイン

В

ヘインションションシャンショント・マンショント・マンシン 「くすすく シアマレクカレテクテマテナ うとうし しょうく ハハハリ パンペンションマ いっ ション かっと パイ ションデーション バイ レアマンシンレー コーンパイント シューマレティア シインマン イナット フレントレイ レンションレーション へいう フレアト シント レーションドイ シアマイトレイマントアクハレレイマション アドア シテテアイトアレンシャレンシイトイックションションアンシン ハンイ・チャッキャッキ シャレンビンション シアン シンイハレシン べくシャ・キャ・キャ・キャ しへんて シンイ てんくレヘッハ ししんシレ シレ・・・・・・・・ハイレングレイイアイションシン アントレント ショイショーマハンドマイハンドアレントマノール・ハハ トイアンシアイアアシア つかてついくてかりん イテア つんシストワハ 「」、「くしっい」へい、ハハンコー、シー・コート」へいい うっしつうしい しんじんじうしくししいく へいいいく スリンジン ーンア ハンハアトレアイアレトレアアハンシーハアレイハンシアレ シャンシャン・リ マインフィイインシンシン・ショートレイン くくて デハントハシャンドインウハトシンマンハレシンハトイズン

Figure 38: Treisman and Julesz performed basic experiments about the binding problem -- how we move from seeing boundaries, edges, and context to precepts. They found that when people were asked to look at images like A and B, they instantly saw the + signs. However, when asked to find the section of Ts, it often took longer [surrounded by a dotted square in B]. Tresiman and Julesz concluded that attention is drawn by and to boundaries and their color, orientation, and brightness.

ઽ[૱]ૻરેશ ૨૮ વર્ઢર ક્વેં રાશે રાગવાયા દુઃવર્ચે રાગવાયા ગે સ્ટાયલેવ તે ગાયે રાગ્વેવ છે રાજે રાજે એ સેવ સ્ટાલુવાર્ટ ગાયે શાળી સાથી સ્ટાર્શ સંવાય છે સ્ટાર્ગ સુવરાય છે સ્ટાર્ગ સુવરાય છે સ્ટાર્ગ સુવરાય છે સ્ટાર્ગ સુવરાય ગાય રાગવાયને સ્ટાર્ગ સ્ટાર્ગ સ્ટાર્ગ સુવરાય છે સ્ટાર્ગ સ્ટાર્ગ સુવરાય છે સ્ટાર્ગ સુવરાય છે સ્ટાર્ગ સુવરાય છે સ્ટાર્ગ સ્ટાર્ગ સ્ટાર્ગ સ્ટાર્ગ સ્ટાર્ગ સ્ટાર્ગ સ્ટાર્ગ સ્ટાર્ગ સુવરાય છે સ્ટાર્ગ સુવરાય છે સ્ટાર્ગ સ્ટાર્ગ સુવરાય છે સ્ટાર્ગ સ મારેની મહેનાતાનું મહેની મુધ્ય છે. આ ગામ મુધ્ય છે. મુધ્ય *ୖ*୶ୡ୶୶୴ୖ୳ୢୖୡ୳ୄୄଈ୕୵ୄୄ୴୶ୖୡଽ୕୳ୖଐ୕ଽୄୖ୴ୖୖୖ୴୵୳ୖ୳ୖଽଽ୲ୖୄୡୠୖୖୡ୕୳୶ୖ୵୴୶ୄ୵୴ୖୖୖୖ୴ୖୖ୴ୖ୶ୡୠ୕ଽ୷ୄୖୠ୴ୖୖଅ୶୲୰ୄୖ୶୶ୖଌ୷୲ଌୄୖ୶୲୰ଌୖ୶୷ୖୖୡ୶ୖଌ୳୲ଌୖ୲୕୲୲୶ୡ୲୳୶ୖୡ୶ୖୠ୲୲୳୲୲୲୲୶୶୶୶୶୶୶୶୕ୣ୶୲୵୵୲ୖ୵ଽୣ୳୲୳୲

ヘンマインショインショント・イレッショント・インショイ・メコト 「くててく シアマンクラレアクティアアションレンション ハンス インド ヘンパイト レイン ドレトレアドヘン シレベトレ くべ ようく レ マグド シベナ ベレイン シイン フリイく ヘンドレ シレッ コレレト しん くくち マグ ファベ ションズ く マベルト シロ ママン シン グドく グム

В くてって うしんして へん レンションレーション うしうう シレ・・・・・・・・・、くトリハンアレイショイ、コントン レベレ くとう シンドくとう シア・ハイとういくとう シートシスライ 1_ インシーム レーマン シーン シーン シーン シーン・シーン インドウングでんしてくアレムレアアウマンレイでしょうようでしょう シントレント しょうてい しょう ひょくく ひょうに シレン ししん しょう

ने पाट तर धीर्ष से में राष्ट्र राष्ट्र राष्ट्र राष्ट्र राष्ट्र राष्ट्र में राष्ट्र से राष्ट्र र *ᡊᠪ*ᠭ᠉᠋᠊ᢔᢆᢂ᠋ᠴ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡔ᠋᠋ᡷᡆᡊᠴᢙ᠋ᠽ᠋ᡱᢄᡷᢅᢍᢙ᠋᠋᠋ᡢᡆᠭ᠋ᡜᡄ᠋ᡢ᠋᠋ᢂᠺ᠃᠋ᡆᠺ᠃ᠴᡭ᠃ᠴ᠋ᢩᡷᢋ᠋᠋ᠴᠵ᠈᠊᠋ᢔᡃ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᢋᡭ᠆ᠴ᠋ᢩ᠋ᡷ᠋᠋᠋᠆᠋ᠴ᠋ᡲᡆ᠋᠋᠋ᡪ᠘ᡃ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠆ᡩ᠋ᢂ᠋ᠼᢂ᠉᠋ᢆᠣᢂ ⁸र्भेन्'यदे'यन'यदेनम्ब'दे'रेन् णयफे'छिन'य'दये'रेब'देदे'न्द्र-'णै'+ण्झुणब'रेब'झ्यब'पर्लय:क्रुर'अटणब'ळे'छिन'

ସିଷଂସାଣି'ମି' ଏଷଂସାବିଶ ଏ'ମୁ ଅସିସାଷ' ସ୍ୱର୍ଟ୍ର ସାଷ' ପ୍ରିମ' ମୁୟା

ข้ามยณมธัมสะระๆ ริณิฑู สูราระๆ ฐานสาซิ เฉลิณมศ์ราวาสุลาณที่เวสมสะกิ ริการมีทุลานในวุเศสา ᠴᢩ᠊ᢢ᠋᠋᠆᠋ᢣᡭ᠊ᠴ᠋ᠵ᠄ᡃᢆᢧᡃ᠋ᡷ᠌᠉᠄ᠴ᠋ᡃᢋ᠋᠆ᠴ᠅ᡬᠴ᠋᠋᠆ᠱᡄ᠋᠋ᡢᡭᢁᡃᡪᡄ᠋ᡃᡲ᠄ᠴᡭᡆᢋ᠊ᠧ᠄ᢢ᠋᠋᠉ᡸ᠋ᢆ᠋ᡎᢙ᠋ᡜᢁᡃᠴ᠋᠋ᠷ᠋᠋ᠳ᠋ᠧᢓ᠋᠆ᡩ᠂ᡨᢩ᠋᠋ᢧ᠆ᡎᡄᡃᡭᡆ᠋ *क़ॖॆ*ॸॱक़ॕऀग़ॺॱॻॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖ॑ॸॱॻॹॖॖॖऺॖਗ਼ॺॱॻक़ॢॺॱऀॺऺऀग़ॱॺॺऀ॒ॸॱॸऀय़ॱग़ॕॖग़ॱय़ॺॖ॓ऀॷॱॻॖॖॖॖऺॸॱय़ढ़ऀॱॸ॓ॸॱळॕऀढ़ऀॱॻॖॖॖ॓ॸॱॸऀॺॱॸॆढ़ऀॱय़ॴॻॱख़ॱ લેવા વૈ 'દેન'ર્જે જ વાદ 'અ'નુ ઐવજા બદું વાજા છુે નુ 'જબે' વાલે 'ને 'એવ' અ'ને 'રેનુ બદ્દ ' છેન' 'વર્દ્દન' ર્જુ અ' વાલવ 'ગું ' છુજા' વા વાલે ' णटण्यनहेत्र मधे पद्येष्य पर्देषायः ग्री मुंदु न 'रेश्व प्रयुपम्य प्यापी ने रेन्द्र में प्रयुप्त प्य के प्रयुप्त णवृषः ञ्लय्त्राप्तः हे पद्दः विषाध्येवः उ,८८२८२४ व्रेंशः र्वेषाः अरः ञ्ले र्येये र्देः यार्देरः यार्द्रयाषाः यह् याषाः चुनः ग्री वाववः यीवः र्यताः रह्या รยูรารรณ์ทุพาลาสิาฏิรายาริเซิพาผิสาสุลๆ รนาริพา 🕬 รูเทพลารรรณสูรพายนิารู้ทานริราติเสลายาริเ ૡઽૠૡૢૹૻૻૹૼ૽ૼૡૼૡ૽૾ૺૡ૾ૺૹૻૡૹ૽ૻઌૻૻૡૡ૽૾ૺૼઌૻૻઌ૽૿ૡ૽ૻ૱ૻૺઌ૽૿૾૽ૼૼૻૹૣૻૡઌઌૢઌૻઌૻૻ૱૽ૢ૾ૺૡૻૻઌૡૢૹૻૡૼૹ૽૾ૢ૽ઌ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૡૡૼૡ૱ૡૻ

देनळेंदिःग्वन्यमःखुयःश्चेःन्द्रेसःर्यवस्रावत्तुवषायकृषःठुः त्रवायायेवयार्दस्यवत्तुद्रः यन्दः दिः हवास्यवर्ठन्यः भ्रे देन्तवाः ૡૢૻૺૹૻઽૢઽ૾ૢૻ૾ૡઙ૽ૺઽૢૻૢઽૢૻૡૺઌૼૼઽૻૻૡ૾ૺઽૢઽૼૺૹૻૻઌ૽ૼૡ૽ૺૡઙ૽ૣૺૡ૾ૻૡૹ૽ૹૻૻઌૡૢૹૻ૱ૡૢૹૻૹૺ૱ૡૹૻ૽ૹ૽૿૱૱ૻૻૡ૾૽ઌ૿ઌૡ૱ૢૻ૽૾૾૾૾૾૾૿૾ૡ૾ૢૼૡૡૢૻ૱ૡ૾૽ૼૼૼૻૡ





न्मे रेश २ दरमर के राम के के के के য়৲৻ঀয়৽য়৻য়৾৾ৢয়য়৾য়য়য়য়য়য়৾য়য়৾ঢ়৾৾ঀ৾য়ৢ৾য়৾য়য়য় <u>ᠹ</u>ᡶ᠋᠋᠆᠙ᢣ᠋᠆ᢋᢄᡔ᠋ᢄᢟᡆ᠄ᡬ᠊᠉ᢩᡜᠵ᠂ᡪ᠆᠄ᢤ᠂ᡬ᠗᠅ᡬ᠄᠋ᡨᡬ᠆᠃᠉ वननःग्रीतन्तव्दी रेकेशभीत तथा

Α

If you're asked to find the +'s in the figure, you find them right away (they are a different color and look significantly different than the background L's), but if you're asked to find the section of T's, you have to look quite closely for awhile. The T's look very similar to the L's in the background and are the same color. Treisman and Julesz conclude our attention is drawn by boundaries and their color, orientation, and brightness.

Based on these and other experiments, including some which demonstrate our visual systems focus attention on *one and only* one object in an image, these scientists proposed that two vision perception processes exist: **a pre-attentive process** that quickly scans and searches out only the outline of objects in an image and **an attentive process** that looks at more specifics and combines more detailed features of the objects. So, in the end the attentive process is responsible for 'choosing' the 'most interesting' object, the focus of attention. The proposal is that individual characteristics of objects, encoded in separate parallel paths, generate a 'feature map'. Then particular features are selected and integrated into a 'master map,' which contains the features from the feature maps that make the object distinct from its environment. Then other parts of the brain bring focused attention on to the details of the master map and its features.

Further experiments based on this and related proposals have lent support to these ideas on binding and have led to the identification of so-called **cortical contextual networks.** Figure 39 uses a beach umbrella as an example to provide an overall view of how the visual system uses such a network to facilitate



Figure 39: The visual system uses a network to recognize objects, like the umbrella in the example above. Low resolution information is sent from V2 and V4 to parts of the cortex, where possible matches are recruited. Further processing helps determine exactly what the object visualized is.

YOUR TURN: DEPTH PERCEPTION

Why do we have two eyes instead of one? Try this experiment: take two pencils, hold each at the bottom and extend your arms in front of you, close one eye and try to touch the tips of the two pencils together. Is this easier to do with one eye open or two eyes open?

Depth perception is made possible by having binocular vision, two eyes with overlapping visual fields (see figure below). Only organisms like us that have both eyes in the front of the face have this capacity, which also relies on the brain to be able to combine images seen by each eye separately into one image (this phenomenon is called stereopsis).







तुरुग्वेरायारेन्।)

हिंद्र'ग्रे'रेश'र्सेश हस्रशक्तंद्र'प्ट्र्य'नवे'प्ट्रु'मेश

> चहना न्धुन ग्रु से अया दन्ते प्वापनम् वावित्य प्रमान्धे स्वाप्त के के स्वाप्त के स्वा

 \hat{y} ષા તે 'ત્વા'બચ' એ દ 'ક્રે ' ક્રુ વા (તે તે ' ગ્રુ' ચાર્ळ વ' તે ' તે ' ત્વા' ગ્રુ ત્વ' પ્રે ' ત્વા' ગ્રુ ત્વ' પ્રે ' ત્વા' ગ્રુ ત્વ' પ્રે ' પ્ર ' પ્ર object recognition. Low resolution visual information is sent from visual association areas V2 and V4 to two parts of the cortex: (1) the parahippocampal cortex (PHC), where candidates for 'most likely context' are selected from stored sets of related items in another part of the brain called the inferior temporal cortex (ITC, see Figure 40) and (2) the prefrontal cortex (PFC), where possible matches with the target object are recruited (Figure 39). The two types of information—a set of possible contexts and possible objects—are bound together to yield swift recognition of the object as a generic beach umbrella.



Figure 40: High level associations in the brain. The hair dryer above may be associated with concrete contexts (a bathroom or an appliance store) as well as with abstract concepts (like wind, style, heat, and energy).

A precise representation of the specific umbrella is then determined using the later arrival of information that provides greater image resolution.

You can imagine that similar binding processes engaging emotion-related areas of the brain might occur. We will be discussing such areas and processes in future primers.

EVERYONE'S BRAIN IS DIFFERENT

What do you focus on when you see the pictures below? What memories and thoughts do the pictures trigger? Ask fellow students about their immediate reactions to the photos. Are they the same as yours or different?

Does this then mean that the things experienced by two people may then actually not be 'the same' after all?



PERCEPTION AND INTERPRETA-TION

Perception represents not only the "actual" visual information, but also the interpretation of what is seen. Interpretation, in turn, is based on memories that modify what we see. For instance, if we expect to see the letter "e" in "interpretetion" we may overlook that the word is misspelled.





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३८९ छेश्यम् अश्वाम् अयः छैः महुव स्वरूतम् अस्यः अन्ययः छेत्र छेश्व दक्षे या स्वयः स्वाप्ते प्राप्ते क्षेत्र दिन् मा स्वयः स्वयः दे प्रमायी श्वद्व स्वयः दे द्वाप्ते मा दिन् क्षेत्र द्वाप्ते स्वयः द्वाप्ते द्व र्वे पाश्वद्व स्वयः छेशः क्षु स्वरः दे 'त्वा सहयः आव्य स्वयः दुः द्वे त्व श्वरः छे द्वे या यहु दक्षे द्व क्षेत्र प्ते दिन् क्षेत्र स्वयः प्राप्ते स्वयः दुः स्वयः छेत्र छे द्वे या यहु दक्षे द्व क्षेत्र प्ते दिन् क्षेत्र स्वयः स्वयः प्राप्ते क्षेत्र स्वयः स्वयः दिन् या छेत्र छे स्वयः यहे प्तयान्त्र स्वारे वा स्वद्र स्वयः खुय्यत्व वा स्वयः स्वयः यदे स्वयः छेत् दिन् स्वान् स्वयः दिन् स्वाहे द्व स्वर्टस्य खेश्वयात् स्वयः स्वयः स्वयः स्वयः स्वयः स्वयः स्वयः स्वयः स्वयः यहे प्तयान्त्र स्वान् स्वयः द्व स्वयः स्ययः स्वयः स्ययः स्ययः स्ययः स्ययः स्वयः स्ययः

<u>ग्</u>नाप्रगुनायनाङ्खनात्रीयङ्ग्नापानेन्।



CONTEXT & OPTICAL ILLUSIONS

The interpretive mechanisms of the brain, such as those that select particular characteristics out of a scene, distort other characteristics, or fill in still others, are effectively illustrated through visual illusions. Such images fool our visual system, which follows rules based on experience and preestablished wiring, into seeing things that aren't there.



Look at the Müller-Lyer illusion at left. The vertical lines are the same length, but the line with the arrows pointing out at the end looks longer. This holds true even after we measure and know the two lines are equal in length. We see the lines as having different lengths because our brains' past experiences have set up the rule (not followed in this case) that shape is an indicator of size. So, the brain puts shape in the context of size and vice versa to aid in interpreting what's being seen.

WHERE WE'VE BEEN

We still haven't answered all the questions we started with in relation to the pictures of His Holiness, but, as promised, we have developed and answered some of the questions leading up to the more complicated ones. And you have seen how the visual system works in general. It breaks down image information into pieces (much like scientists do in attempting to understand a complex phenomenon) and then amazingly quickly moves that information in parallel through greater and greater complexity of analysis within the brain. In our visual cortex association areas, the parallel information is mixed, re-sorted and feeds back on itself, and is integrated with memory and emotional information. Finally, all this information is bound together as one unified percept we see and understand.

Vision is stunningly complex. As we begin to understand its neuroscience at a more profound level, we find connections not only with most other branches of science but also with much of what makes us human—art, emotion, memory, learning, belief, doing science. Even meditation. As we've seen, attention is central to what and how we see and, as you know, much of Tibetan Buddhist meditation is about nurturing the capacity to focus attention as a way into expanding consciousness. Perhaps the most exciting thing about one day more fully understanding vision is that it might allow us a neuroscientific window into consciousness. We shall see.

$$\begin{split} \hat{\mathsf{f}}^{\mathtt{av}} \stackrel{}{}_{\mathfrak{a}} \stackrel{}}{}_{\mathfrak{a}} \stackrel{}{}_{\mathfrak{a}} \stackrel{}}{}_{\mathfrak{a}} \stackrel{$$

सुर्ग भूम न रेगाल गुल नेन कर वर्ष कर बासेन परि खुन ने एक्ट क्रेन पर होन हो।

<u>พุ</u>่มีเปลี่หเป็นรุ่ม เหตินไ



Aggregation stage Amoebae Amygdala Anatomical MRI Anteriorassociation area Anterior cortex (AIT) Anterior Anthropology Association Areas Attentive process Auditory association cortex Autonomic nervous sys- ব্দের্ণ্ ব্বদ্ধেরণ্ ব্যামান্ tem Autonomic responses **Basal Ganglia** Behavior and cognition **Binding problem Binocular disparity Binocular vision** Brain **Brainstem** Smooth movement Cardiovascular system Cataracts Cell biology Central nervous system Central sulcus Cerebellum Cerebral cortex Cerebrum Choroid Ciliary body

यनुवादनुबार्रेवाया *জম্ম*:হ্ন:শ্র:শ্রীবা শ্ৰু:স্টিশ্যশ্মন ৰি **ஆबग्गवबग्र्ह्नन**न्मन् અન્ત મેં જે છે તરી તા અદ્ય ને જે છે. inferotemporal রাঞ্জিশা আহী মন্ব বিশেয়ন প্রা

> <u> অনুব স্ট্রি</u>দামা *ଈୖୖୖ*ୡ୲୵ଽ୵ୄୢୄୠୄୄୄ୷୵ୡୖ୶୷୵ୡୄୢୗ୶୵ଽୄ୲୰୲ તર્દ્રીત્ય અદ્યુન જાણવા দমীশামাশার্দির দ্রির দিয়া र्वेषाळॅन:ग्रे)पद्मेषायह्मनग्रन:मुन्

শ্বদাৰ্বাৰ্বা স্থানি প্ৰদান প্ৰবান প্ৰ প্ৰবান প্ৰবা য়ঀ৾৾য়৽য়ৣ৾৾৾ঢ়ৼঢ়ৼৼ৾৾য়ৼ৾৾য়৾ तकेट र्<u>श्वे</u>ट राष्ट्रगत राषण ন্ত্রুম:রুম্যন্ট:নশ্ য়৾ঀ৾৾ঀ৾৾য়ৢ৾৾৾৾য়৾৾য়৾ শ্বন্থা মন্দ্রনা মনাম্বা ন্দ্র ন্য্য্মা শ্বীন:শ্ব.প্রান্যা বন্দ:ন্যানা <u>श्वासुनः क्र</u>ीन्द्रेयान्या ผู้ จลิ รุจระ สี เล่าจุจ <u> দ</u>শ্রীআন্ট্রী শ্বিদার্শ্বী আ ম্মন'ষ্ক্ষিদা শ্বদ'ক্টৰ'শ্ভি'প্ৰবা শ্বদ'ক্টবা ₹%ी *ୖୄ*ୡ୕୵ୄୠୢୖୖୠଵୄୄଈୄୄୄୄୄୠୄ

ळें**व**ॱअन्दर्ष'अर्धेद'ळेंन्। Color vision ळेंब अर्देण क्वेंदश वना Colorblindness র্ক্নিশানেই নেডবায়্টাঝিশ Complex eye র্দ্বীয়ানই দান্তবায়ী দেট্রীযাক্ষা দেয়ীকা Complex geometric pat-রুঝ'শ্য terns শ্বুদ:দৃহ্টিদম্য Cone র্শ্বিশা'কা Contrast Convulsion ন্দ্র-মার্থ্যমা গ্রীব স্রী Cornea ५ग्रुषाणम्वामायहरायदेः अनुवार्देषा Coronal (frontal) section ਗ਼ੈ.ਙੋ.ਙੑ੫ Coronal section **Corpus Callosum** শ্বংগ্ৰবা यान स्वरे छे सुवा यान सुवा Cortex শ্বুদ:শ্ব্বীদ:র্মিদ:শ্বিদা Cosmic rays हेर र्शेव रेथ या Culmination ધેન્ડ:સુગ Depression দ্রমান্ত্রী দের্মান্ত্রা Diencephalon Discs শ্থিম'শান্ত্রশাশা ત્ર્યોચ તર્દે ગા છે તે ચા Distributive processes **Dorsal Stream** শ্বীন:ক্রুবা श्वेर-गी-क्रय-ग Dorsal view Dorsal শ্বীন:দ্রীমাক্ষা এব ক্লিঁ দ ঝ এব Effector system য়ৣ৾ঢ়ঢ়ৼৼয়ৼ৾৾ঀৢ৻য়ঢ়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾৾য় Electrochemical signal র্মুনা:প্রদামাদেনান্টর'য়ী:পশা Electromagnetic spectrum ন্টারান্ধ'র্ম্ট্রিদ'' **Emotions Endocrine systems** বদ:স্কাব অপশ দর্রি:স্তথ্য নিশ্বাম্য Engineering Exaptation শ্বন্ধান যুস প্রস:রৃশা:অপ্রব:রুশাঝান্ট্রী:প্রবা **Extrastriate Cortex** শিশ:রুঝার্ম্মার্ন্যা Feature map <u> ଟ</u>ିନ୍:ସନ୍ପୁଣି:ଜଣ୍ଡାଦ୍ୟ:ସର୍କ୍ଧିମ୍ବା fixational movement

fMRI	\overline{g}	Left hemisphere	ज्ञूस्राम्चेन ज्या
Forebrain	শ্ব শ্বা	Lens	দুদ্রু বাম্বা
Fovea	र्नेन्रलून्य	Lesions	ୠୡ୲ଷ'ୠୖୢୠ୕ୠ
Frequency, khz	ૢ ૽ૣૼૼૼૼૼૹ [ૻ] ૾ૺઙૢ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૼૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢ	Limbic association area	अवतरत्वित् ग्री तहो श अव्युत् का खु श
Frontal lobe	ચનુવ શું ભન્ન આ ચનુવ ભન્ન	Limbic system	য়ঀয়য়৾য়য়য়য়
Functional magnetic reso-	- मुन् प्रमायनायोव स्वत्रयायन्तरा ह्येया	Long wavelengths	য়ৢৢৢৢৢৢৢৢয়য়৾ড়৾৾য়ৢ
nance imaging	न्यर तसुवा स्व	Low frequency image	र्त्तेबार्स्ट्रेन् लव यदे गानुगवायक्रुवा
Functional neuroanatomy	ୠୄୖୣୠୄ୵୲୶୶୲୶୲ୄ୵ଈୖ୶୶୶୵ୡୢୄ୕ଽୣୄୣ୶୶୲ଽ୲ୡୖ	Luminance	নশ্ৰদ্যমন্দশ
	<u>न्नन्</u> द्धतःसुन्ग्वन्द्यःत्रैणग्य	Magnetic fields	المحارية المحالية المحالية المحاربة المحاربة المحاربة المحاربة المحاربة المحاربة المحاربة المحاربة المحاربة الم
Functional system	মন্ধ:রিনাধ:সাদা	Magnetic resonance im-	ાયન ભોષ અલુય ભન્ન નિયમ ભોષા
fusiform face area	ঀয়৾য়৾য়ৢয়৾য়৾ড়য়৾য়ৣ৾য়৾ঀ৾য়৾য়য়৾য়	aging	
	(3a)	Master map	हीुः द्वयः पर्गोनः प
Gamma rays	য়ৢয়৾য়৾৾৾৾ঢ়৾৾৾য়৾য়	Mature fruiting body	ૡઙૣૹૻૡૢૻ૾ઌ૿ૡૢૻૢૢૢૢૻૢૢૢૻૹૻૡ૽૾ૡ૽ૡ૽ૡૡ
Ganglion neuron	इ.उर्य.स.चेडेवाला		ॻऻड़ॖॖॻऻॺऻ
Ganglion	इ.परेश	Medial view	નગીુભાર્ને જાગી સ્વાપ્ય
Genetics	रैणबाह्यारीणाया	Medulla oblongata	 द्देन:ढुवा
Glaucoma	ৰদ:দন্মনা	Microwaves	K AN
Gyrus/gyri	<u>चे</u> :ज्ञुन्	Midbrain	
Hindbrain	শ্রুন:মুন্	Mid-sagittal section	<u>बे</u> ट.बोर्चबांश:विंश:संपुर्त: क्युज: कपुर,
Hippocampus	ચર્છે દુ:આ		ब्रे.क्यो
Histology	सुम:गुम:रेष]य	Mind/body dualism	ૡૢૹ੶ૹૺૹૹ੶ૹ੶੮ૢૼૢઌૼઌૣૹ੶ૹૢ੶ઌ૱ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢ
Horizontal section	<u></u> स्वरूपम्बर्ग सिंह क्यू स्वर्		नदे सुः गुन
Hypothalamus	য়ৢঢ়ৼয়ৣয়৾ঢ়য়৾ঀ	Mitochondria	<i>ૡૢૢૢૢૼૡ</i> ૻૹ૽ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૺૢૻૻૹૻ
Immune system	ननःत्यींगःयःणग	Molecular	तनुषः ह ुवाः देवाः या
Inferior Temporal Cortex	(इ.सेग.जहाल.कु.यूट.रीय)	Mollusks	ૡુજ્ય ક ્ષે]
(ITC)		Motivational system	સુભા સેંદ સાભળ
Inferior view	୶୳୕୶୴୕୰୵୰ୡ୶୰ୖ୶	Motor areas	๗ฬ.เษณิพ.ษ.เยิงา
Infrared rays	નુચર છું લેંનુ લેન	Motor cirtuits	གୖଐ୕୕୲୕ୖୠୄ୕ୄୢୗୖୖ୴୕ୖ୴ଽ୕ୖୄ୷୰୶ୡୄୗ
Input	ঀ৾৾৾৾৾৽৻ৼ৾৾৾৾য়৾৾৾ড়ৣ৾৾৾৾ড়	Motor information	གୖ୴୕୶ୄୢ୕ୢ୴୷୕ଌ୕୵ୡୖୢଌୡୣ
Interpretation	र्य्येमा द्योग	Musculature	न'गवन'ळ'भग
Intra-abdominal	<i>ब्रिं</i> ग्नदे:वृट्टार्ट्रब्ग्	Nanometers	৯:লম:ছম:ক
Iris	पहतः क्री	Nerve cells	<u>न्नन्ः इन्ध्रन्त्</u>
Lateral fissure	৸ঀ৾ঀয়য়য়ৣ৴৾য়ৢ৸য়৾৽য়	Nerve fibers	न्नन्स् रि'लग्भा
Lateral geniculate nucleus	1 / 1 1	Networks	ষ্ট্রিন্থ:অন্তর্না হ'না
Lateral view	गर्विगर्षः र्देषः ग्रीः इस्रः या	Neuroanatomy	ननम्स्रि:सुम्यावद्याः त्रेयाः या
Leber's congenital amau-	- [৾] ঀ৽য়ৢৼ৾য়ৢ৾৽৾৾য়৾৽ঀ৾৾৽ঀ৾৾৾৾ঀ৾৾৽	Neurochemistry	ननमः स्वे स्यार्श्वेनः रेगाया
rosis		Neuroeconomics	<u> नृषदः इते वित्रः श्रेनः देषाय</u> ा

Neuroethics รุจระสู่ใส่งาร์รุรริญาม Plasticity Neurologist Pons <u>দ্বদ: শ্ব:</u>শ্বীব:শা Neuro-maps ननमः स्ति प्रतिन ननमा मुम्र भुम्राम Posterior association area Neuron Posterior inferotemporal <u>র্বন্দ: স্থ: শার</u>িযার্মা Nerve cell cortex (PIT) ५२८:इ.स.स.स Neuronal circuits Posterior Neuroplasticity ननमः स्रि दे युम् ग्रम्भ Pre-attentive process รุธุระสิวิลิมุณานุมพ.ริญาม Neuropsychology Prefrontal cortex (PFC) Neuroscientist ন্বন্দ:স্ত'র্চ্চব্য'শ্বিশ্বাত্যা Pre-motor cortex Neurosurgeons ন্দ্দ-স্থেন্দ্রিমান্দ্রব্যমা Pre-plasmodium Neurotheology ५२८:इते.क्रॅ्शलीयोक:४यो.तो **Primary areas** Occipital lobe କ୍ଷଣ୍ୟୁମ୍ୟର୍ୟୁନ୍ୟୁମ୍ୟୁ କ୍ଷଣ୍ୟୁନ୍ୟୁନ୍ୟୁ Primary auditory cortex Olfactory bulb <u>ઽ૾</u>ૺૼૼૺ૽૾ૼૺૹૻૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૻૼૼૼૻ૾ૼ૱ૻ૽ૼ૱ Primary motor cortex Optic chiasm <u> </u>ୡ୶୲ଞ୍ଚଟ୍<u>ୟୁ</u>ଶ୍ୟୁ ଅକ୍ଷ୍ୟୁ ଅକ୍ଷ୍ୟ Primary somatosensory Optic cup ৯ীয়াশী শীর্দ ব্যো cortex Optic nerve hypoplasia बैगा र त्रेवा केंबा Primary visual cortex রীদা'দী'স্ত'থেমা Optic nerve Prosopagnosia **Optic radiations** बेग'गे'∩र्द्ेा ह Pseudo plasmodium Optic tract ञैगागी'₹'ञ्चग Psychiatry **Optical illusions** ষীনা, ধেষিকা প্রদা, ধেরীয়া, প্রদান প্রদান Pupil Cortex अर्ळे संयदे प्रत्यका यात्रका यात्र सुवा Parahippocampal Radar rays (PHC) Radio Parallel pathways **Reflex movement** ସମ୍ଦ୍ରାମିସଂସ୍କ୍ରୁମ୍ୟୁର୍ Parallel processing **Refractive lens** Parietal lobe শর্রুণাশী বের্বন আ দার্রুণা বের্বনা Resolution Parietotemporal-occipital णर्द्रणसुरूपळंष्रकार्तराक्षणपाद्धेला Retina ସନ୍ଧି ଷ ସ୍ଥା region Retinals ন্দ্র: পিষ্ণা Perception **Right hemisphere** Peripheral nervous system ผสสาสสัสารุธราสามาณฑ Rod Pharynx ম্রী'ন্যা Saccades **Photopigments** ૡ૾ૼૼ<u>ૼ</u>ઽૻ૽ૢૢૢૢૢૢ૽ૺ૱ૼૹ૾ૼૼૼૼ૱ૻ<u>ૄ</u>ૹૺ Salivation र्वेन ये न सु सु म ये क या क र या Photoreceptor layer Scan **Photoreceptors** র্কিন শ্বিশ্বশ্বশ্বদা Sclera **Pigment cells** *ঈর্ব স্টি* শ্বেশ্বদা Secondary areas Pigment cup ळॅंब रे गेंद रा Secondary Visual Cortex Pineal gland ষদ'নন্ন'র্ট্রব'ন্যা Sensory circuits Plasma membrane ক্তু জ ন জ ন জ ন জ Sensory information

শ্বন্দ:ৰঝা ส[.]ผูขาผยิญญิ. जुनर्रे आग्नन स्वा ক্তুন'র্দ্রুদাম্য <u>รลิण्यःगॅ्हरःङ्</u>र्विःदर्ग्वेदेः<u>च</u>्रिर्न्स्या गर्थे त्वाय स्व न स्तुति ग्रान सुत्रा જ્યું ત્રે આ જાણવા ક્ર્વેશ્વર્સ્ટેન્ટ્ર શેર્જ્ય સ્થન્ટ્ર સાથે છે. આ પ્રાયુ સાથે છે. આ પ્રાયુ સાથે આ પ્રાયુ સ આ પ્રાયુ સાથે આ આ પ્રાયુ સાથે આ આ પ્રાયુ સાથે આ પ્રાયુ આ પ્ર આ પ્રાયુ સાથે આ પ્રાયુ આ પ્રાય આ પ્રાયુ આ પ આ પ્રાયુ આ પ્ર આ પ્રાયુ આ પ્ર આ પ્રાય ગર્બે ત્રણ બાર્ છે. ર્સ્ટુ સ્થા સુદ સ્વતા ૡૢૹૡૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઽૻૹૢ૽ૺ૾ૺૹૻ૾ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼઽૡઙ૾ૣૢૺૼૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૢૼૻૹ૾ૣૺ শ্বু:শ্বিঝ'শ্বদ'প্ৰবা aðfr.ðfr.ðj.રૂ.રેa.યૂન.લવા ବିମ୍ଦ୍ୟୁଷ୍ଟ ନ୍ୟୁଷ୍ଠ ন্ধিমন্থান্যমন্দ্র নির্মান্য নির্মান্য নির্মান্য নির্মান্য নির্মান্য নির্মান্য নির্মান্য নির্মান নি बेग'गे'क़ु्भ'र्थे। <u>ᠵ</u>ᡶ᠊ᡓᢈ᠈ᡬᡘᢆ᠋᠋ᡪ᠄ᡜᠵ দ্রুদ:দেখ্রীব:দ্রুনম্য র্শ্রুমা:নেয়ান্যা ५ष्ठिंग'५र्द्धे' क्रेन्- र्' मदे' न् र क' महा महा শাঙ্গন্য:জা হ'স্ট্রী মি'র্ট্টব'<u>শ</u>ব্য ଲ୍ଲ୍ୟୁ-ଅର୍ଥ୍ୟୁ-ସାର୍ଯ୍ୟୁ-ସାର୍ <u> নহ</u>্রদাদহীসম্বা হন্ বের্যান্য শ'স্তু'ন্দ্রন্যন্যা নির্বন্য প্রদা ম'ন্ধি নস:স্বিঝান্ধায়িত্রা अर्वे८ केंत्र ग्रे जर रेथ ग्रा - श्व দ্র্বদ:র্ক্টিশ:বহু:এঝা দন্দ:র্ক্টন:ক্র'নেধ্রীবা

নেগ্ৰুম'শবিশা

	*	
Sensory nerves	ळॅं <u>२</u> :चुेन्:न्न्न्:ड्	
Sensory organ	न्यमः केंग्रान्यमः दी	
Short wavelengths	র্বন্থ:র্ক্র-র্ভ্রন:র্:। ~	
Slug	भुँगनःतनु	
Smooth movement	पहरू.पगुण	
Somatosensory associa-	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	
tion cortex	ૡૼઙ૽૾ૡૻૡૹૢૡૻૻૡૻૡૻૡ	
Spinal cord	য়ৣৢৢ৾৾৾৾৾৾৾৾য়য়৾	
Spore mass	र्श्वकुर्त्योरन्तु	
Spores	র্শব;র্ভুদ:1	
Stalk	र्मेट्र- भग	
Statistical map	নস্থুঝ'হ্মদম'নসাঁদি'ইঝা	
Stereopsis	קוקר-מפרין	
Stroke	यन् द्र त्यायाबा नन्।	
Sulcus/sulci	泗丁·휫~기	
Superior view	ह्रेट वृषा अर प्रसुषा यदे ह्वयाया	
Synapse	୳୳୵:ୖୖୖୡ୕ୖୖ୶ୖ୶୕୶୷୶୶୶	
Synergy	ચલુચ'ક્રેળ	
Tectum	র্ষিন্য'এন্	
Temporal lobe	इ.स्रिया.पट्य.ज्ञा	
Tentacles	र्षोता.जय	
Tertiary areas	हेट रेब राष्ट्रव्य	
Thalamus	য়৾৾৾ঀ৾৾ৠ৾৾ঀ	
Topographic mapping	<	
Topography	<ট্রাঁ ^{জ্} ঝদ্বুর্'নের্দি ন ্দনা	
Ultraviolet rays	ૹૢ ^ઌ ૻઙ૾ૺ [ૻ] ૡૼૼૼૼૼૼ [ૻ] ૽૽૱	
Unified image	ॻऻऄऀॻऻॱक़ॖॖॖॖॖॖऺॖॖॖक़ॖॖॖऺॖॖॻऻड़ॖॖॻऻॺॱॻक़ॖॖॺऻ	
V2	ૹઽ૾ૡૢ૱ૡ૾ૢ૽ૼૼૼૼૼ૱૽૽ૢ૿ૢ૽ૻ૱ૡ૽ૼૼઽૻૻૹૼૼઽૼૻૹૻૻૡૢઌૻ	
	শন্তিষ্ণ শ	
V4	ૹઽ૾ૡૢ૱ૡ૽ૢૼૼૼૼૼ૱૽૽ૢ૾ૻ૱૽૽ૼૼૼૼઽૻૻૼ૱ૡૢઌૻ	
	ମନ୍ତି:ସା	
Vegetative stage	ואדית בל ליק אילאון	
Ventral nerve	र्देगायी'न्नन्द झ	
Ventral Stream	र्देग क्रुवा	
Ventral view	र्वेषां यी क्वारा	
Ventral	देवा र्खेवाष्य	
Vergence movement	र्देवार्ग त्याया	

Visible light Vision cortex area 1 Vision Visual association cortex Visual cortex Visual information Vitreous body Vocalization Wavelength Wiring X-rays