

t h e h y p o t h a i a m u s





Types of behavior

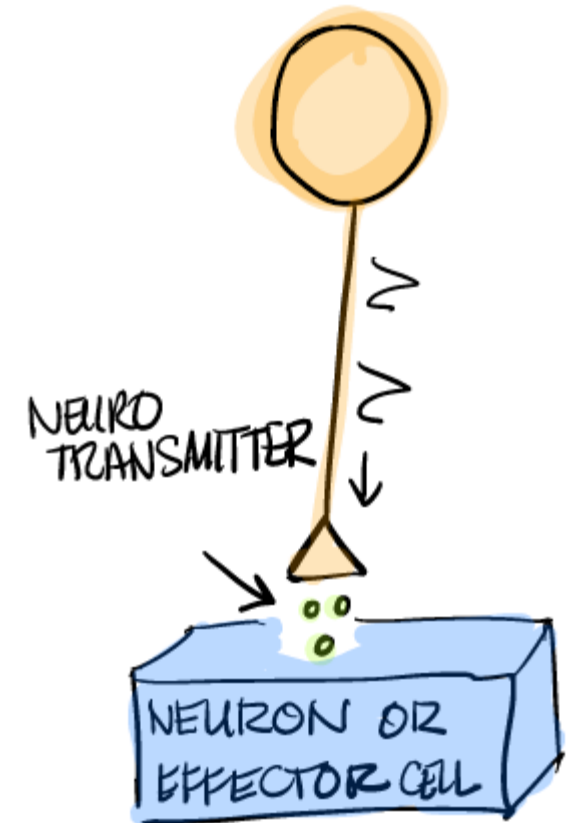
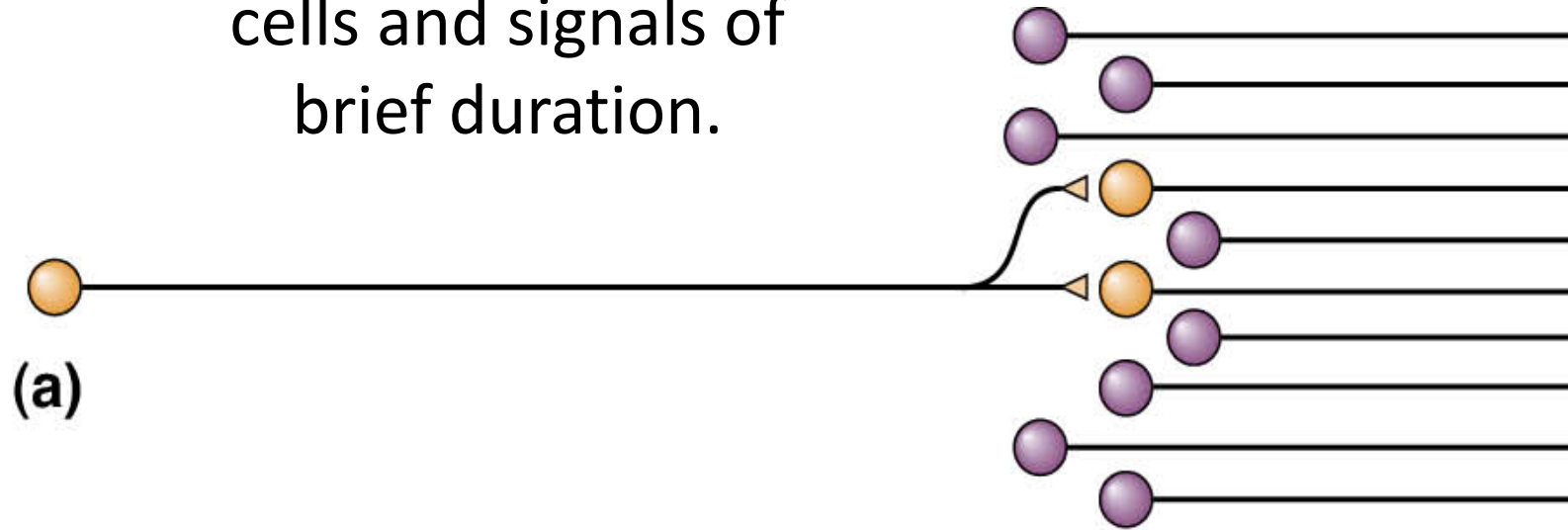
- Unconscious reflexes and voluntary movements

Voluntary movement—motivation

- Driving force on behavior
 - Analogy: like ionic driving force, motivation depends on many factors
- Probability and direction of behavior
 - Vary with the driving force needed to perform the behavior

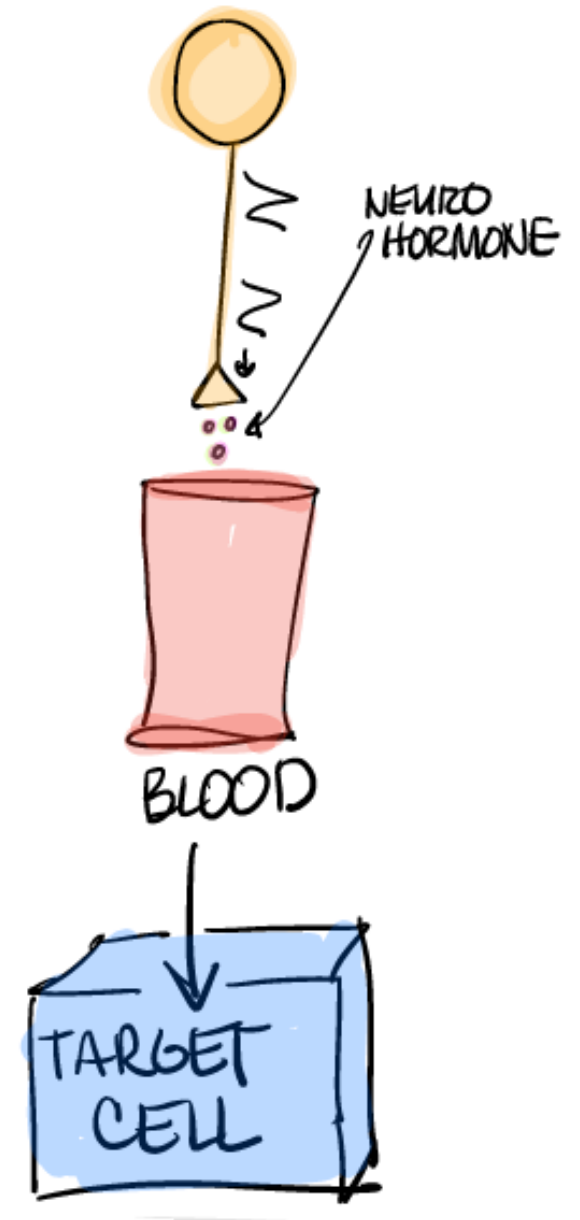
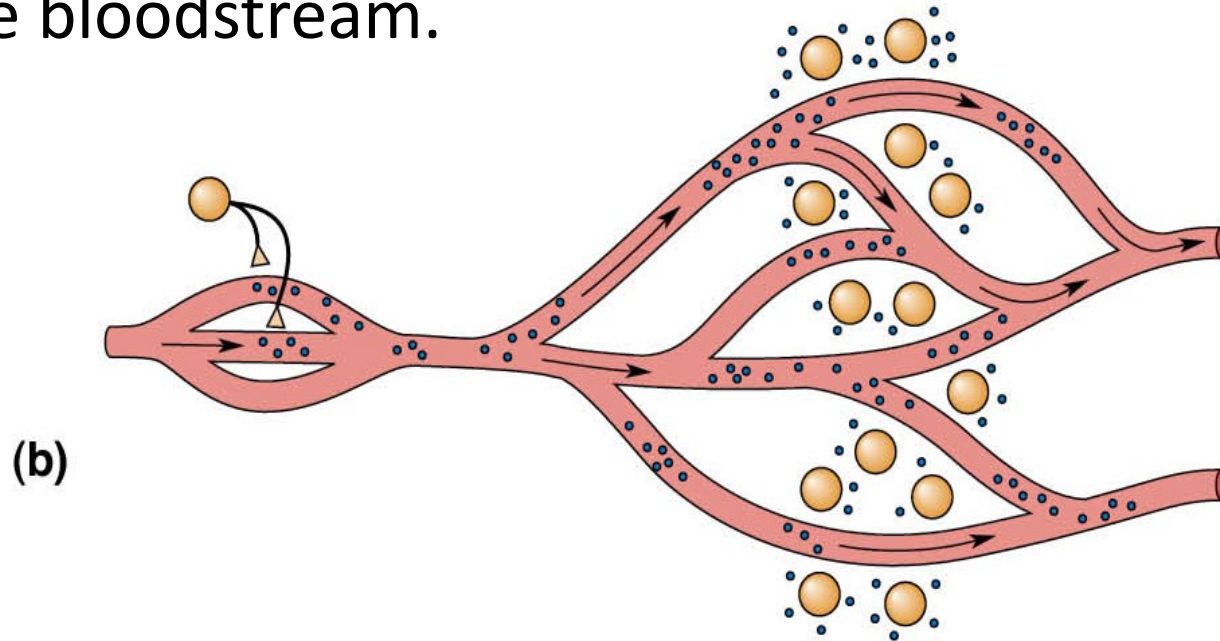
Patterns of communication in the nervous system:

Point to point:
restricted synaptic
activation of target
cells and signals of
brief duration.



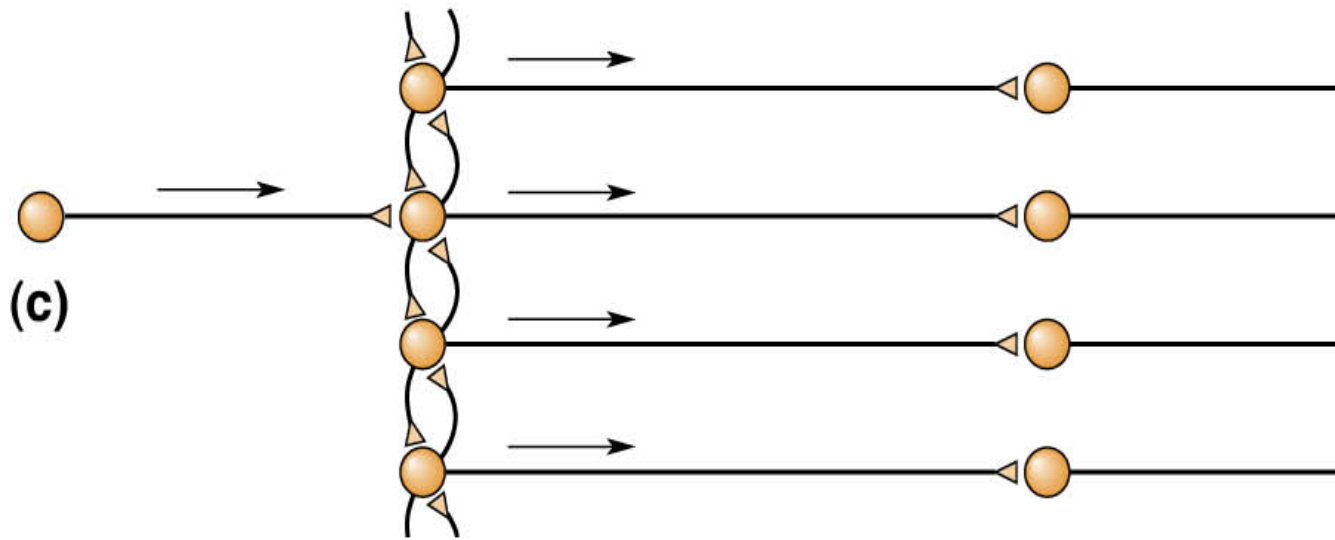
Patterns of communication in the nervous system:

Neurons of the secretory hypothalamus release hormones directly into the bloodstream.

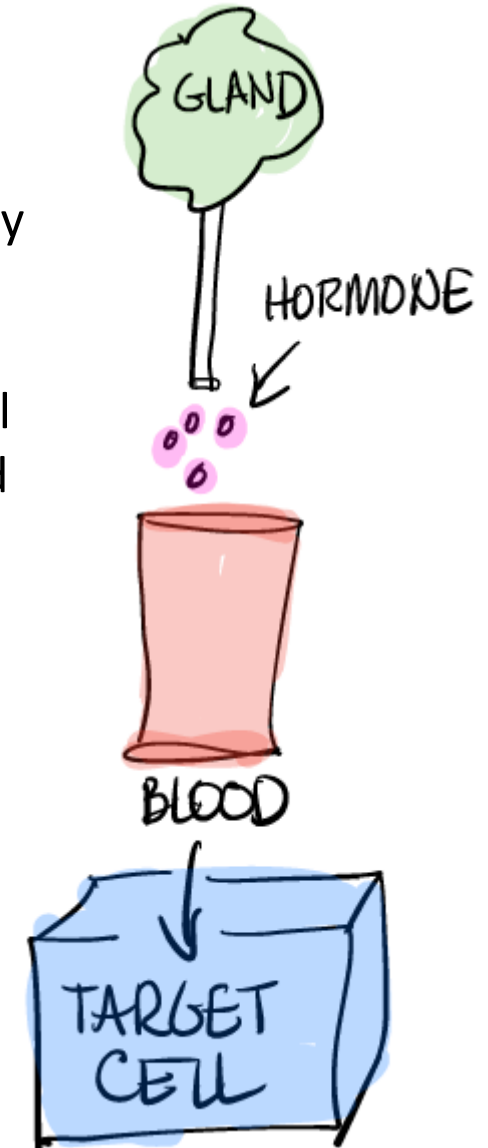


Patterns of communication in the nervous system:

Networks of interconnected neurons of the Autonomic Nervous System work together to activate tissues all over the body.

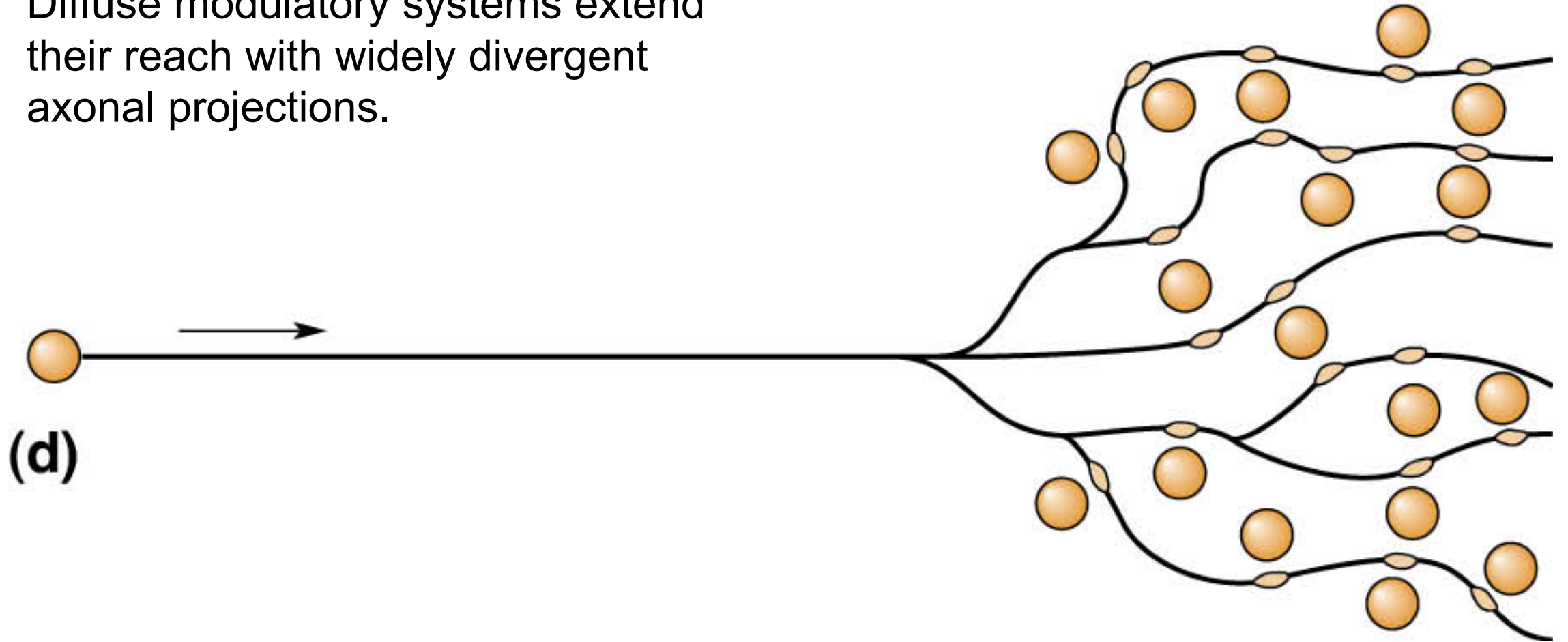


The ANS simultaneously controls the responses of many internal organs, blood vessels and glands.



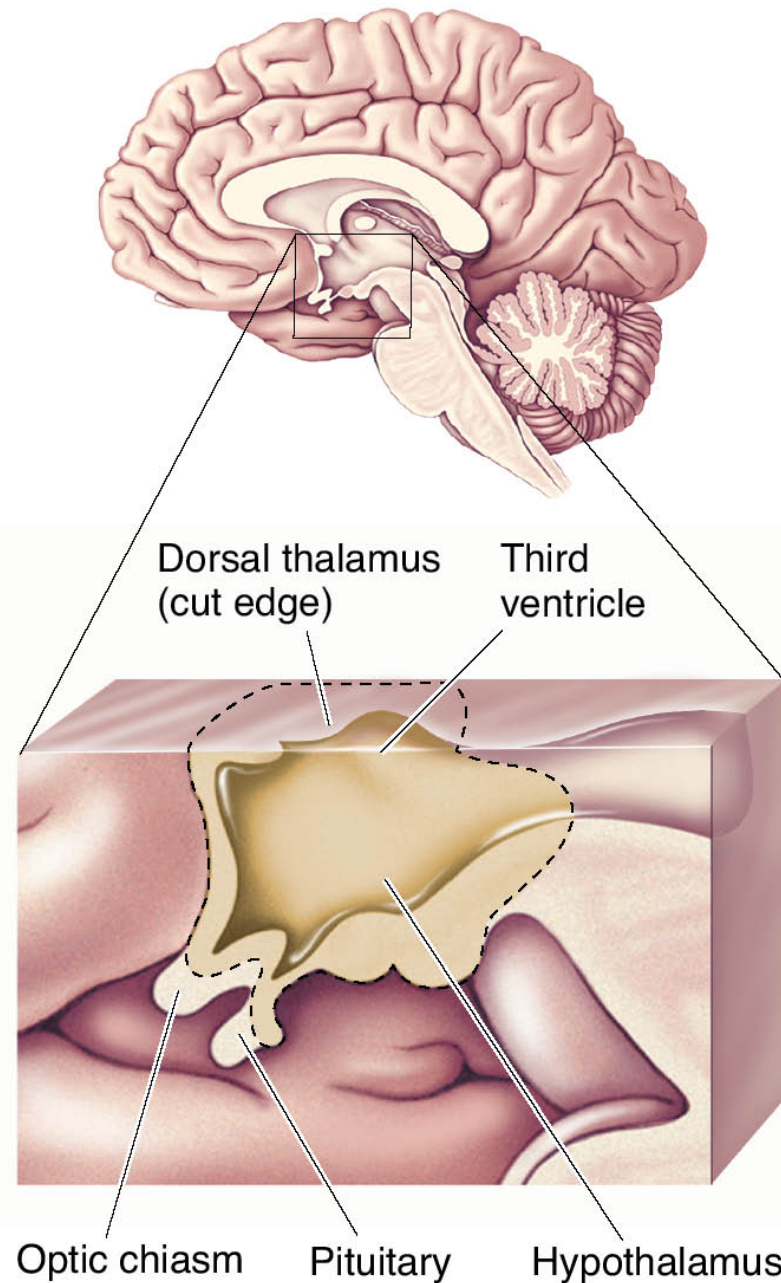
Patterns of communication in the nervous system:

Diffuse modulatory systems extend their reach with widely divergent axonal projections.

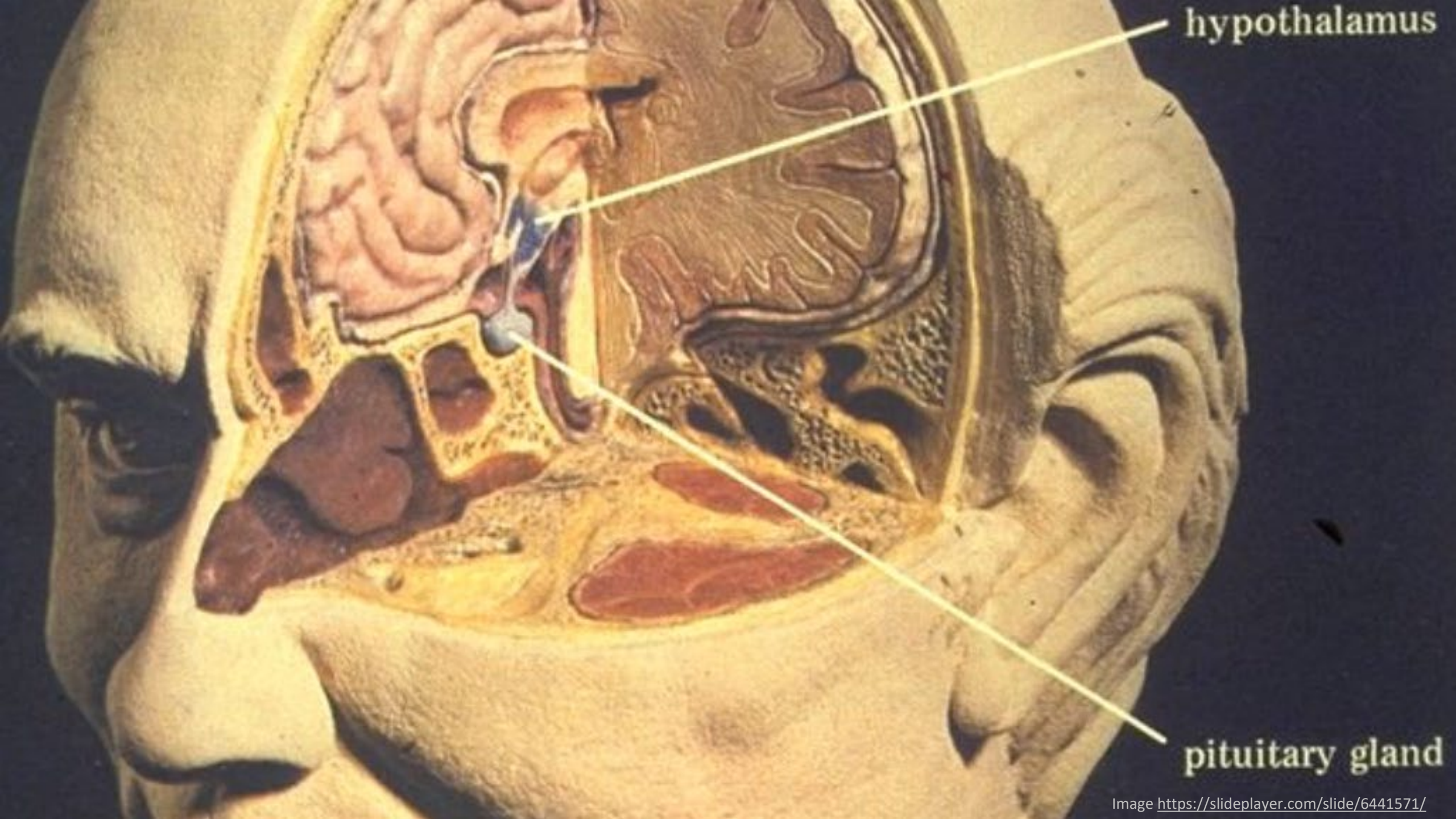


The Secretory Hypothalamus

- Hypothalamus integrates somatic and visceral responses.
- Hypothalamus has enormous influence on the brain and body.
- A lesion in the hypothalamus can produce significant damage.

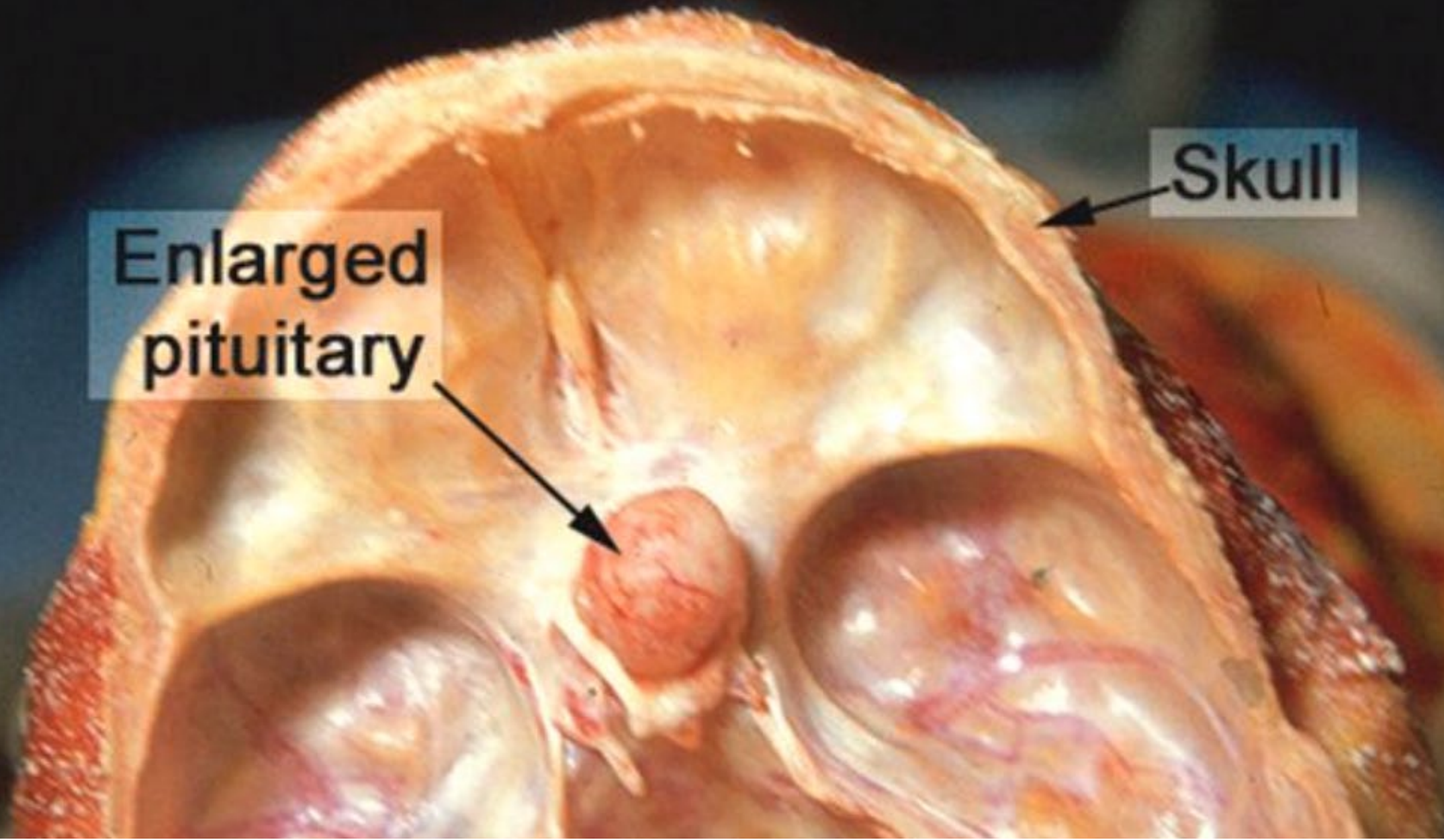


Hypothalamus sits below the thalamus along the walls of the 3rd ventricle.



hypothalamus

pituitary gland



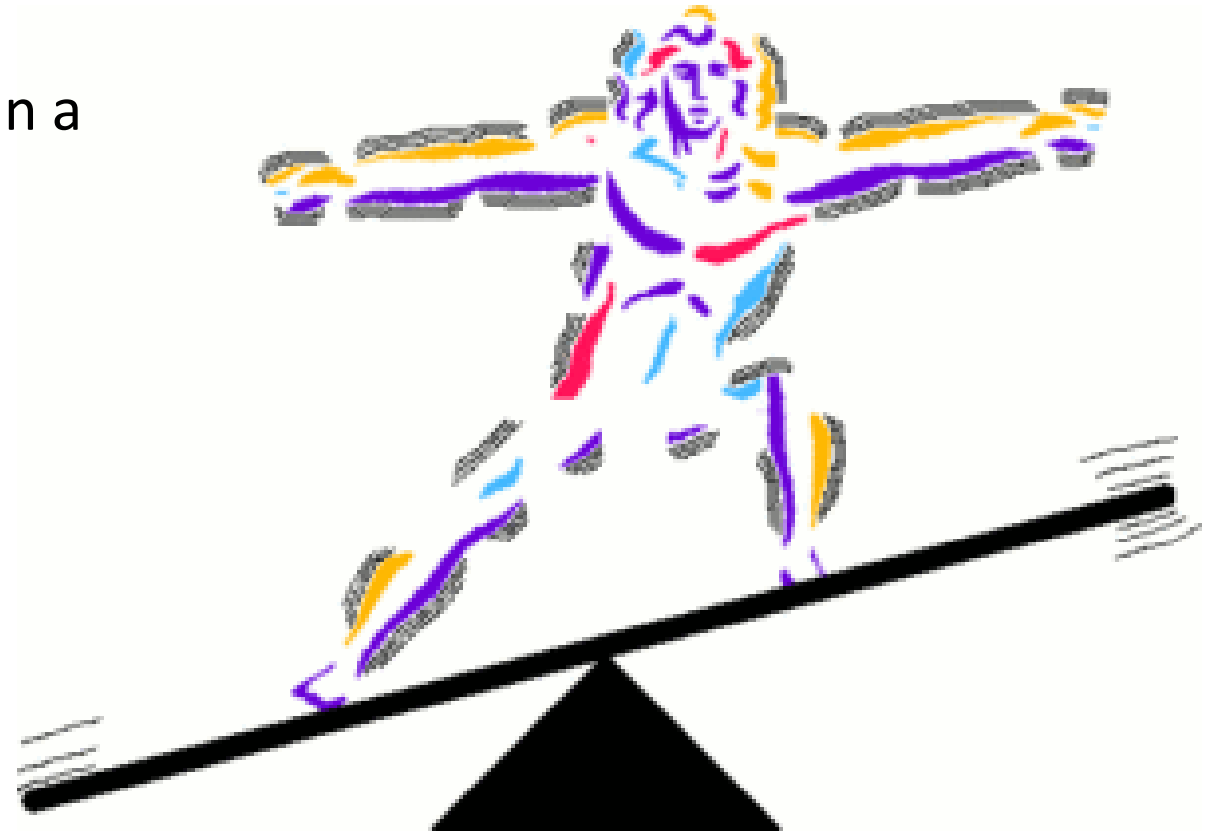
**Enlarged
pituitary**

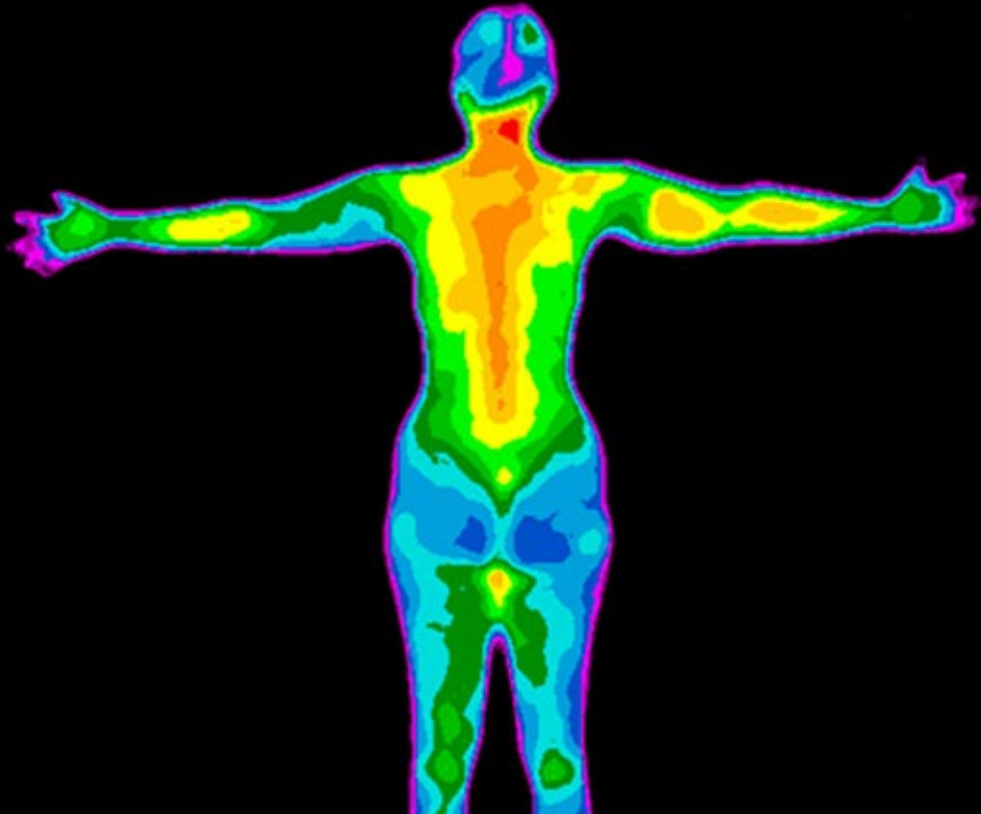
Skull

- Three components of nervous system with great reach of influences:
 - Secretory hypothalamus (all over the body)
 - Autonomic nervous system (all over the body)
 - Diffuse modulatory systems (all over the brain)
- At detailed level
 - Each system performs different functions.
- At general level
 - All work maintain brain homeostasis.

The Hypothalamus, Homeostasis, and Motivated Behavior

- Homeostasis
 - Maintains internal environment within a narrow physiological range
- Role of hypothalamus
 - Regulates homeostasis
- Three components of neuronal response
 - Humoral response
 - Visceromotor response
 - Somatic motor response





The Hypothalamus, Homeostasis, and Motivated Behavior

- Response when body is cold
 - Body shivers, blood shunted away from the body surface, urine production inhibited, body fat reserves—mobilized
- Lateral hypothalamus
 - Initiates motivation to actively seek or generate warmth—maintain homeostasis

Homeostasis: is the regulatory process that maintains the body's physiological needs.

Example: Temperature Regulation

- The hypothalamus has temperature sensitive cells.
 - The hypothalamus orchestrates the body to shiver, turn blue and get goose bumps when cold and turn red and sweat when you are hot.



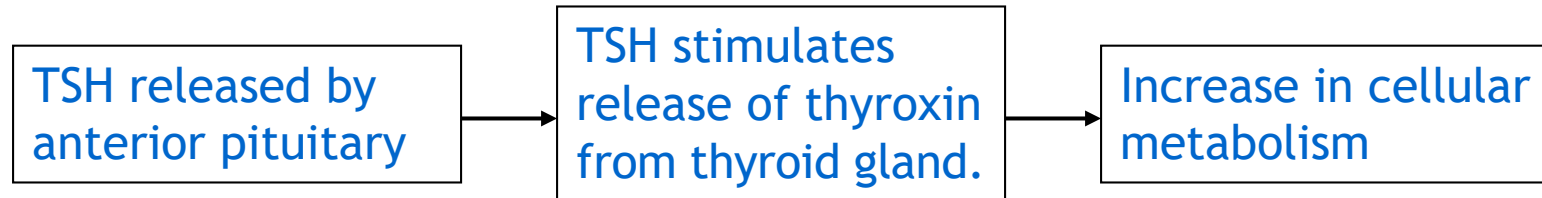


Temperature Regulation

- Cells fine-tuned for constant temperature—37°C (98.6°F)
- Neurons for temperature homeostasis
 - Clustered in anterior hypothalamus
 - Humoral and visceromotor responses
 - Neurons in the medial preoptic area of the hypothalamus
- Somatic motor (behavioral) responses
 - Neurons of lateral hypothalamic area

Temperature Regulation—(cont.)

- Process during a fall in temperature



- Visceromotor response: constricted blood vessels in the skin
- Involuntary somatic motor responses
 - Shivering, seeking warmth
- Rise in temperature: metabolism slowed by reducing TSH release, somatic responses

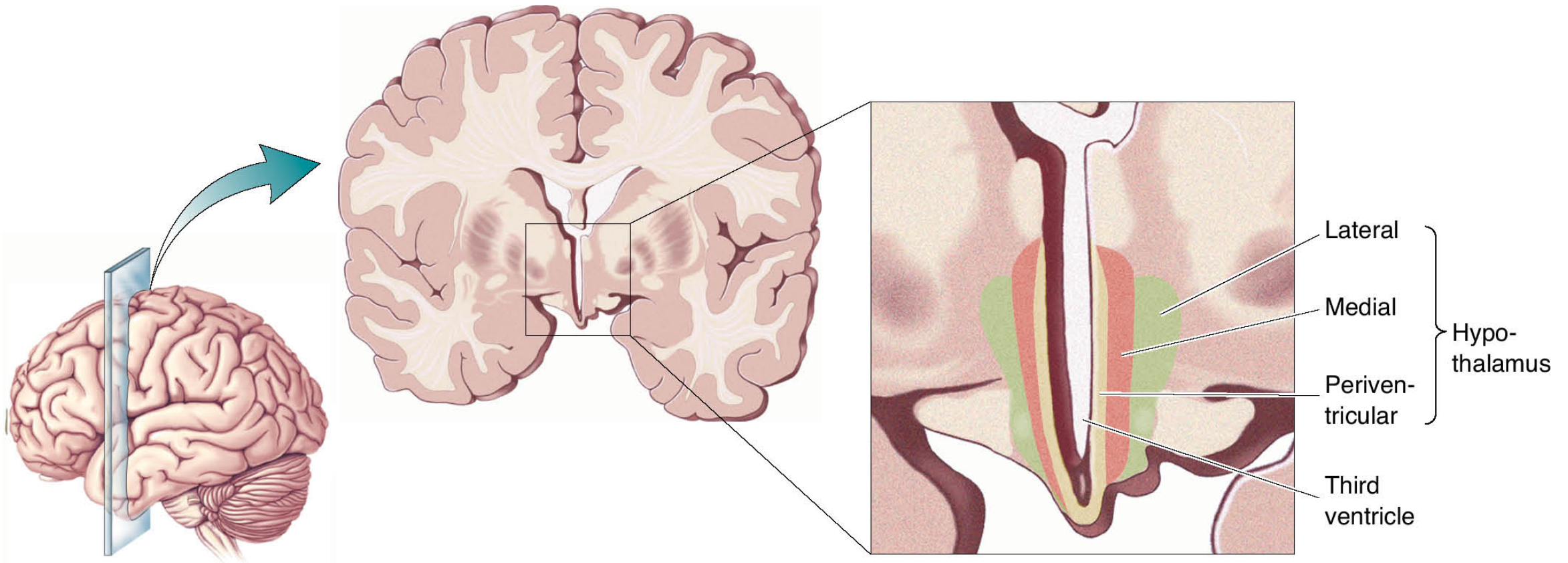
Temperature Regulation

TABLE 16.1 Hypothalamic Responses to Stimuli That Motivate Behavior

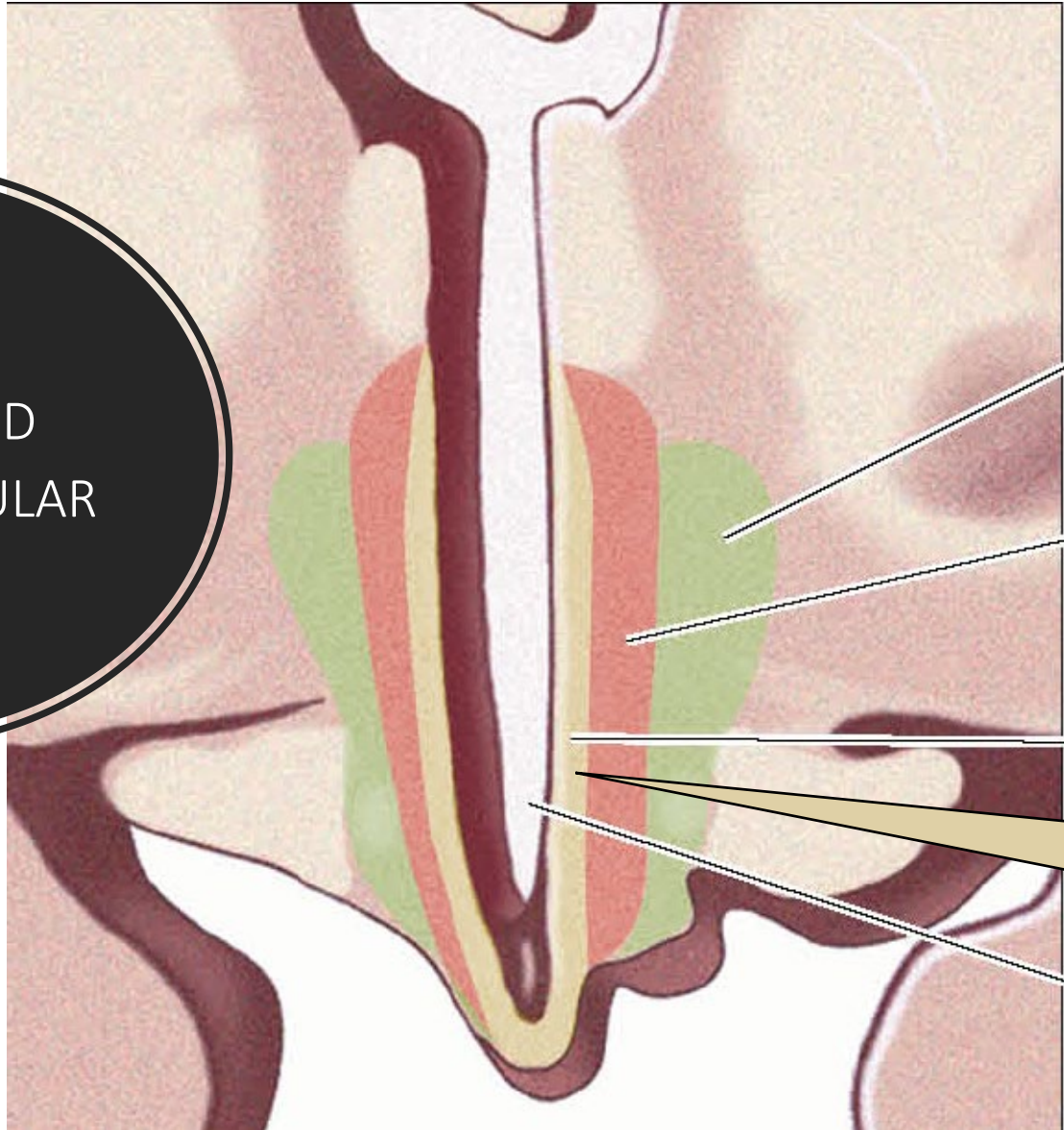
| Bloodborne Stimulus | Site of Transduction | Humoral Response | Visceromotor Response | Somatic Motor Response |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|
| Eating signals | | | | |
| ↓ Leptin | Arcuate nucleus | ↓ ACTH ↓ TSH | ↑ Parasympathetic activity | Feeding |
| ↓ Insulin | Arcuate nucleus | ↓ ACTH ↓ TSH | ↑ Parasympathetic activity | Feeding |
| Drinking signals | | | | |
| ↑ Angiotensin II ↑ Blood tonicity | Subfornical organ OVLT | ↑ Vasopressin ↑ Vasopressin | ↑ Sympathetic activity | Drinking Drinking |
| Thermal signals | | | | |
| ↑ Temperature | Medial preoptic area | ↓ TSH | ↑ Parasympathetic activity | Sweating, seeking cold |
| ↓ Temperature | Medial preoptic area | ↑ TSH | ↑ Sympathetic activity | Shivering, seeking warmth |

The 3 Functional Zones of the Hypothalamus

LATERAL , MEDIAL AND PERIVENTRICULAR



LATERAL ,
MEDIAL AND
PERIVENTRICULAR



Lateral

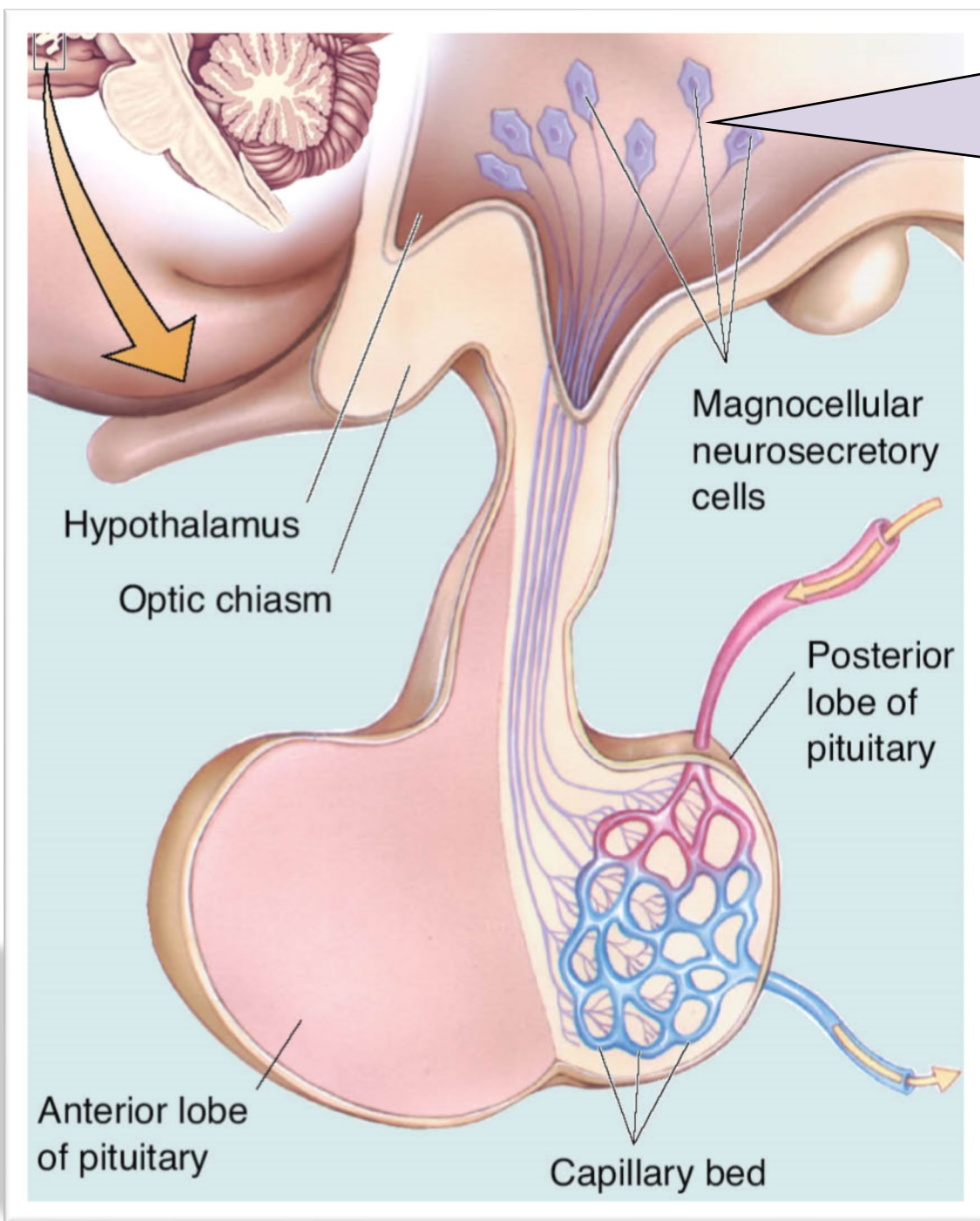
Medial

Periven-
tricular

Third
ventricle

Hypo-
thalamus

The cells in the
periventricular
zone are adjacent
to the 3rd ventricle.



Magnocellular cells secrete oxytocin and vasopressin directly into the capillaries of the posterior lobe.

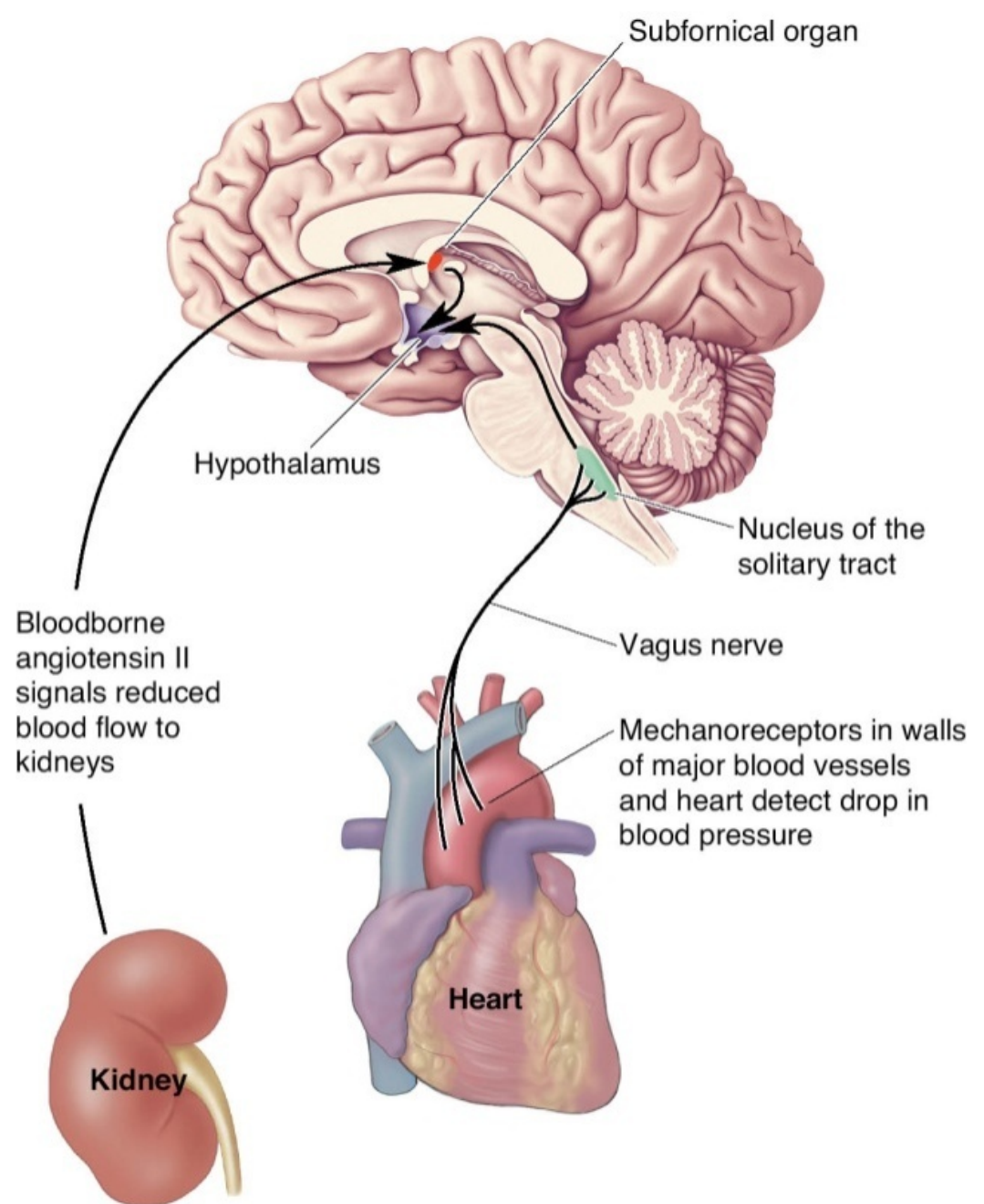
The magnocellular neurosecretory neurons, extend axons down towards the stalk of the posterior lobe of the pituitary.



Vasopressin acts on the kidney as an anti-diuretic.
When the body is deprived of water,
the blood volume decreases and blood salt concentration increases.
There are salt sensitive cells in the hypothalamus.

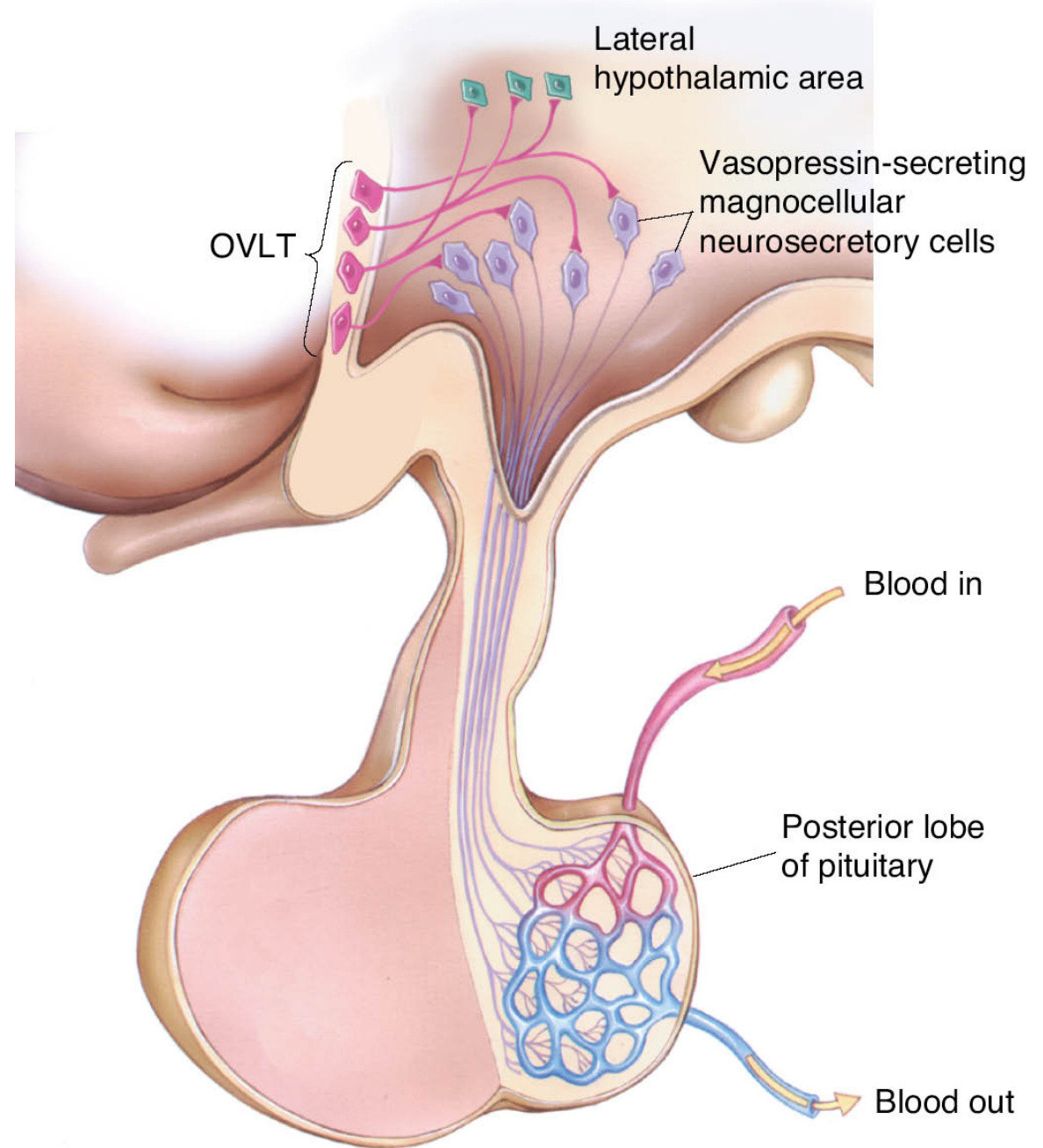
Other Motivated Behaviors: Drinking

- Pathways triggering volumetric thirst
 - Hypovolemia: decrease in blood volume



Drinking: Pathway Triggering Osmotic Thirst

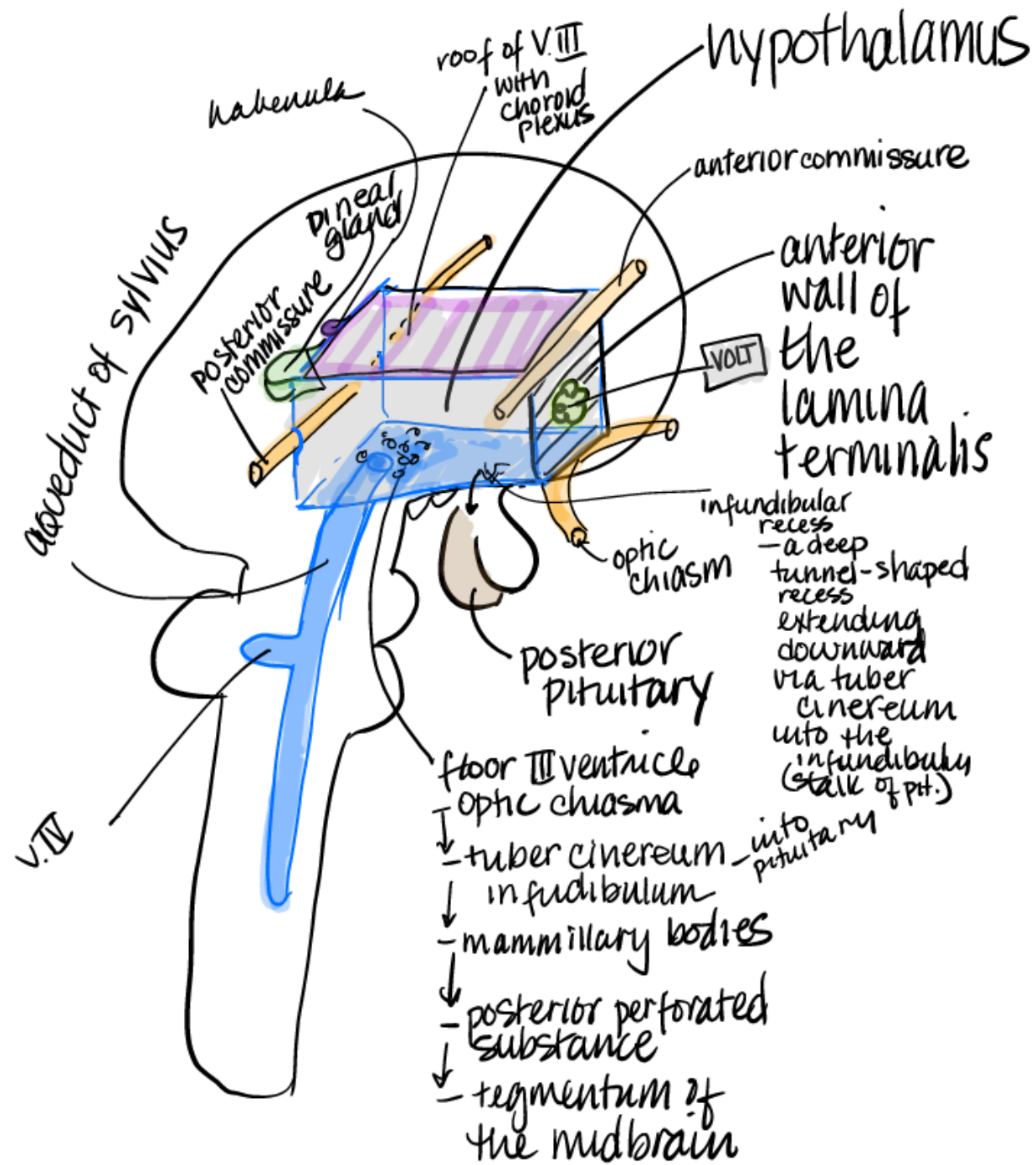
- Hypertonicity: increased concentration of dissolved substances in blood (solutes)



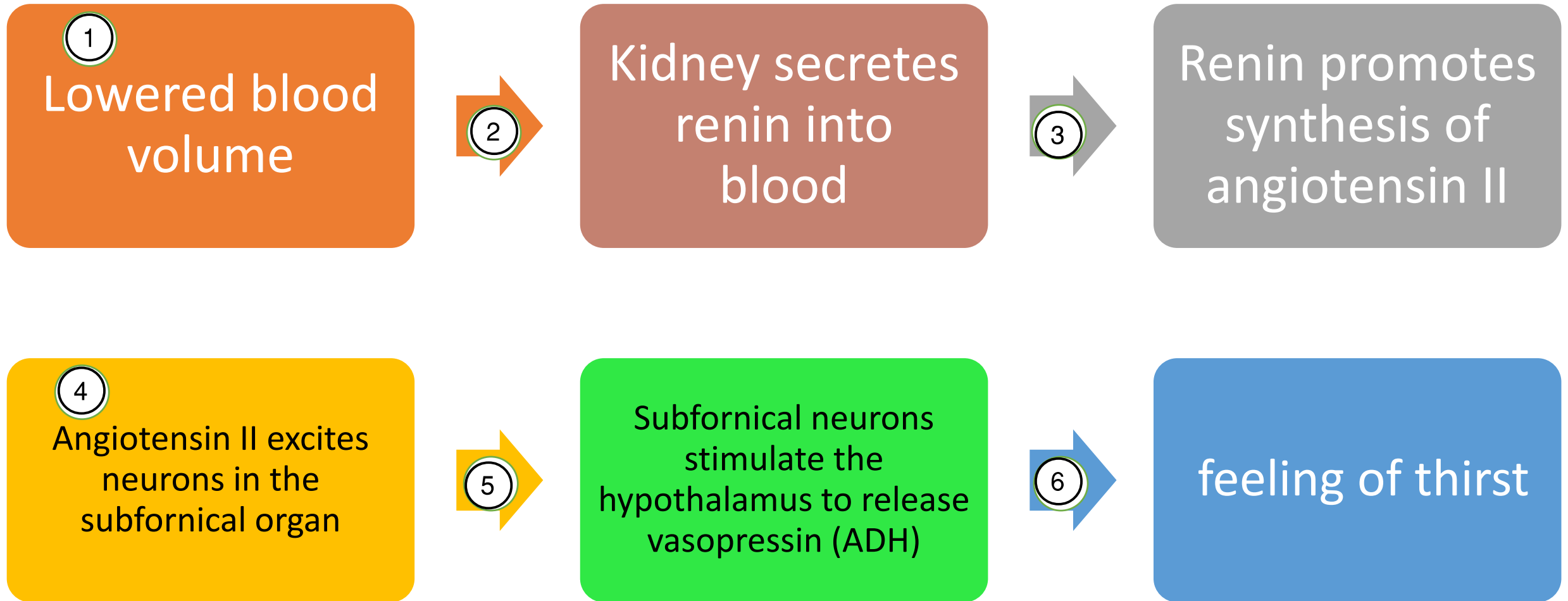
Drinking: Role of Vasopressin

- Vasopressin—antidiuretic hormone, or ADH
 - Acts on kidneys to increase water retention
 - Inhibits urine production
- Loss of vasopressin-secreting neurons of hypothalamus
 - Causes diabetes insipidus
 - Strong motivation to drink water

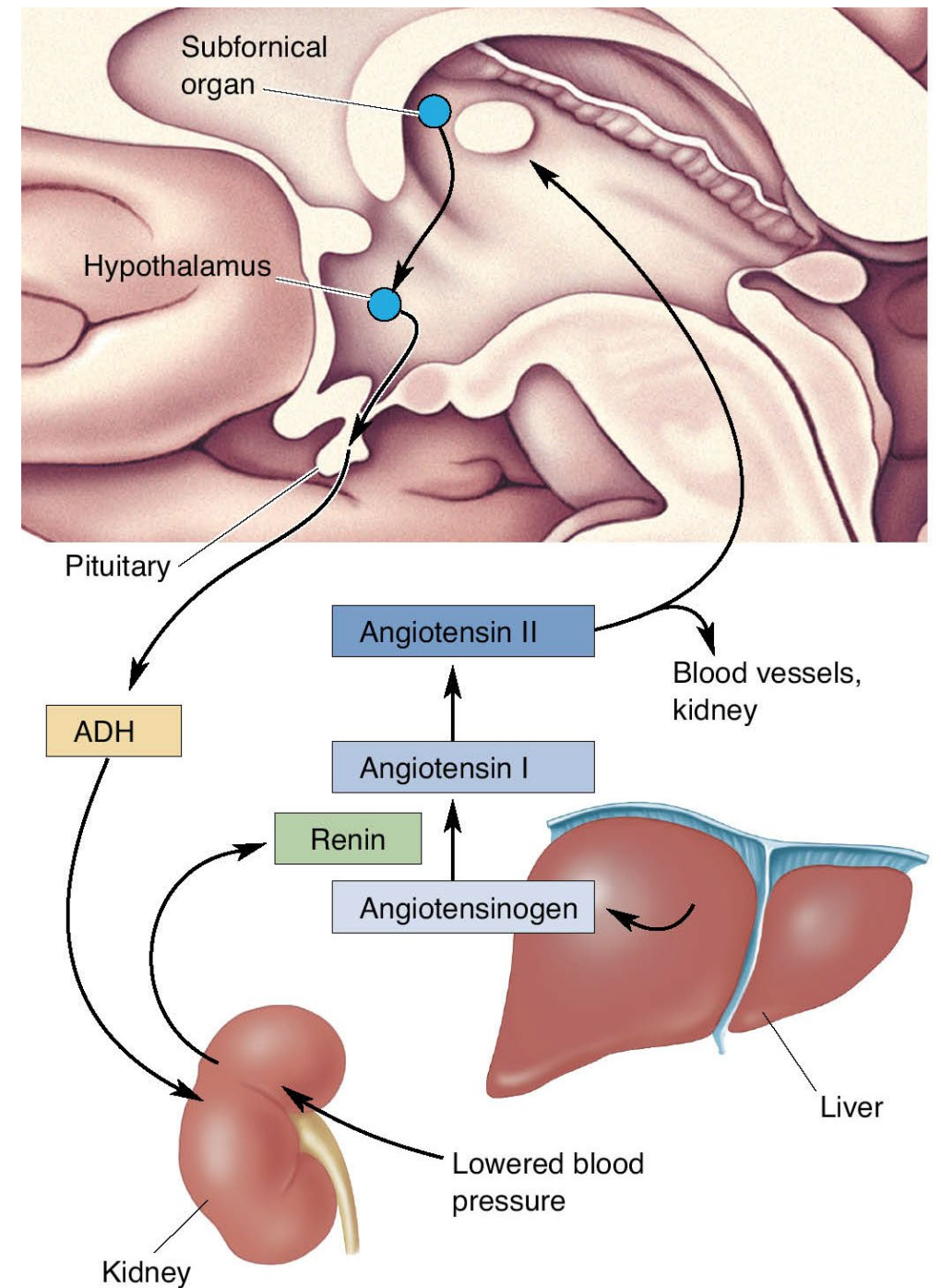
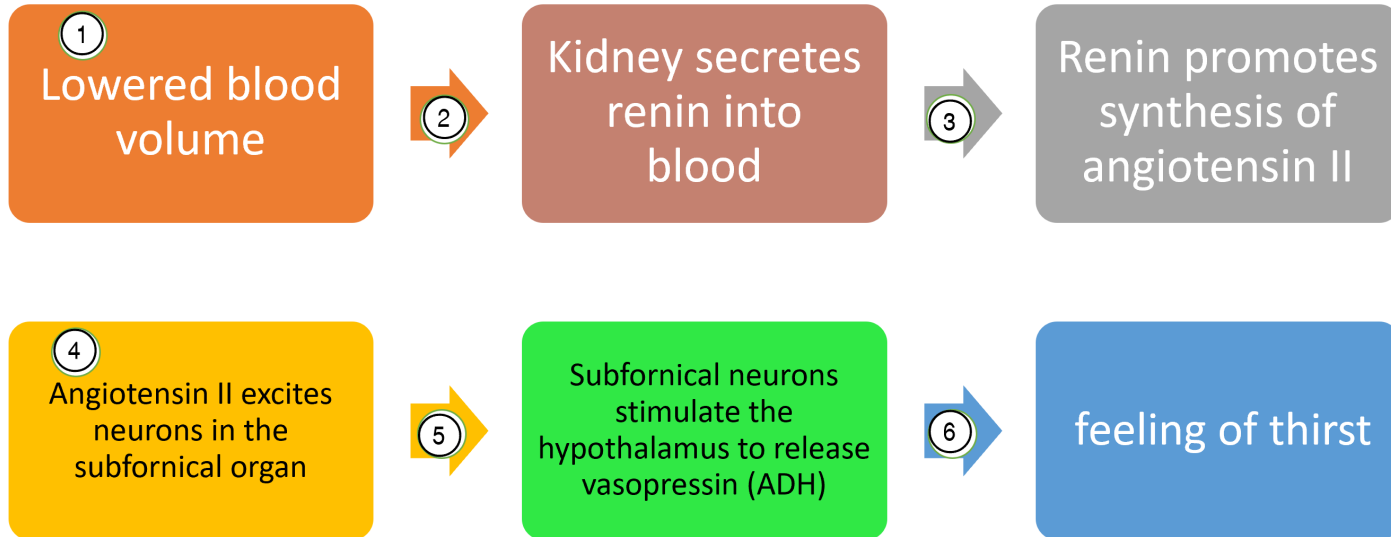


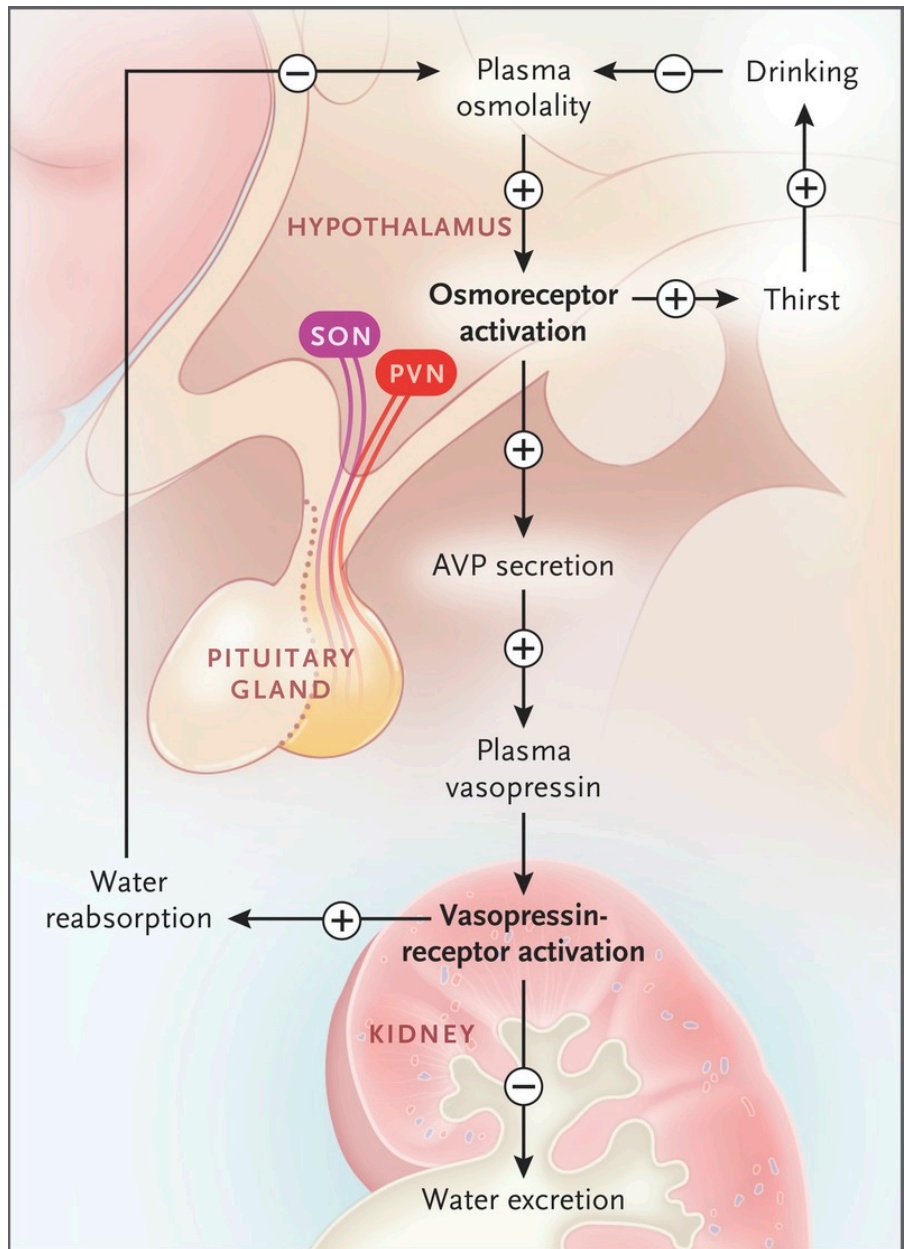


Kidney drives your thirst.



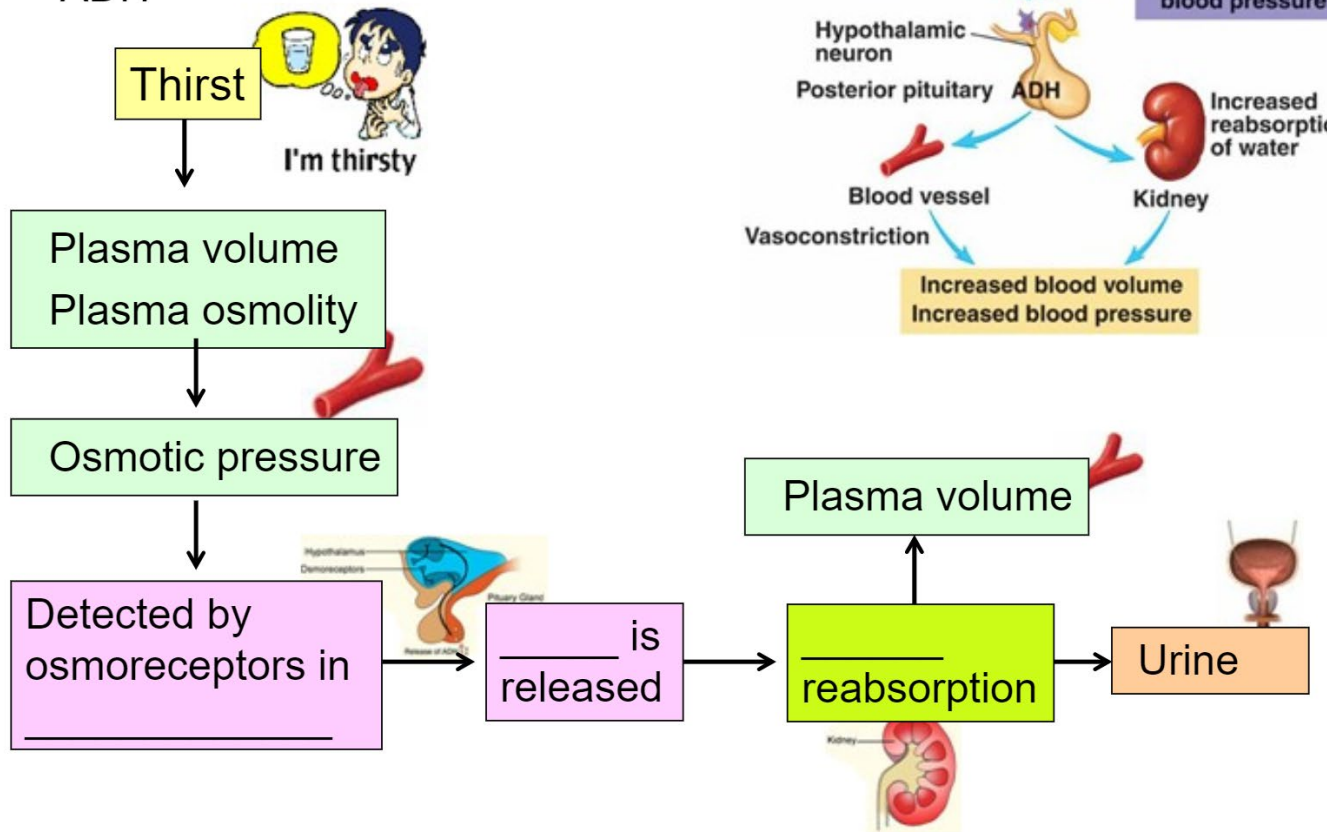
Kidney drives your thirst.





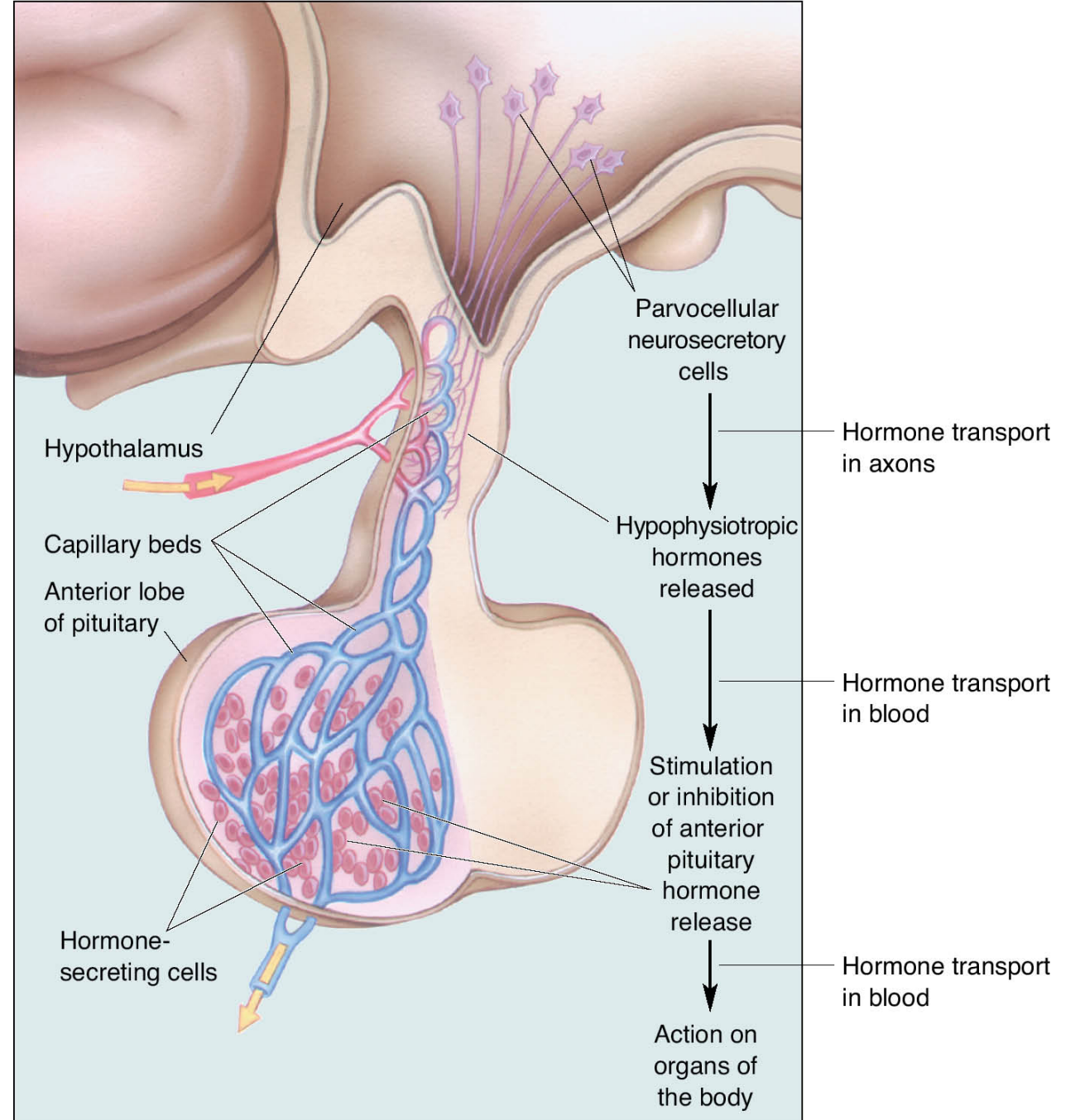
Regulation of plasma volume - ADH

- ADH



Hypothalamus is the Master Gland of the Endocrine System

- Controlled by parvocellular neurosecretory cells
 - Secrete hypophysiotropic hormones
 - Hypothalamo-pituitary portal circulation
 - Pituitary cells secrete or stop secreting hormones.



Secretory Hypothalamus controls the Anterior Pituitary

The cells of the anterior lobe synthesize and secrete a wide range of hormones that regulate secretions from other glands throughout the body.

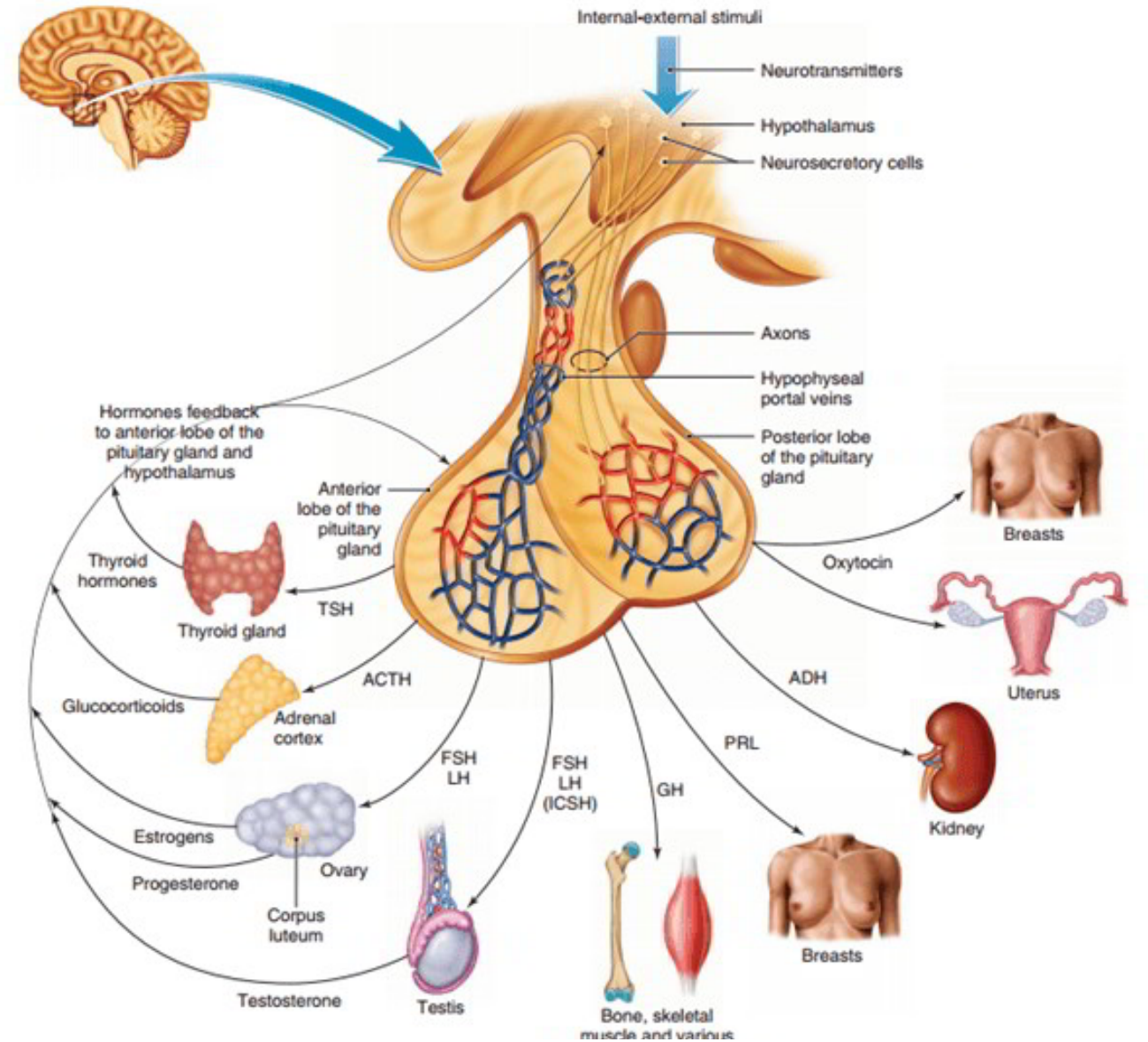
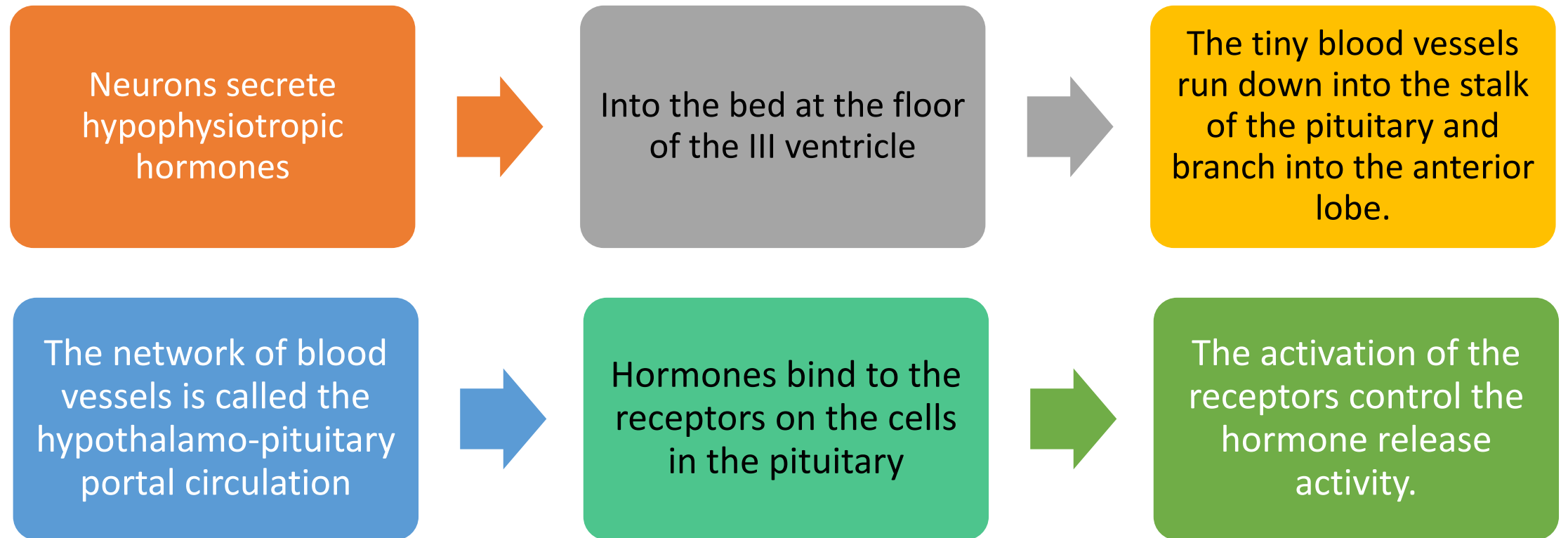
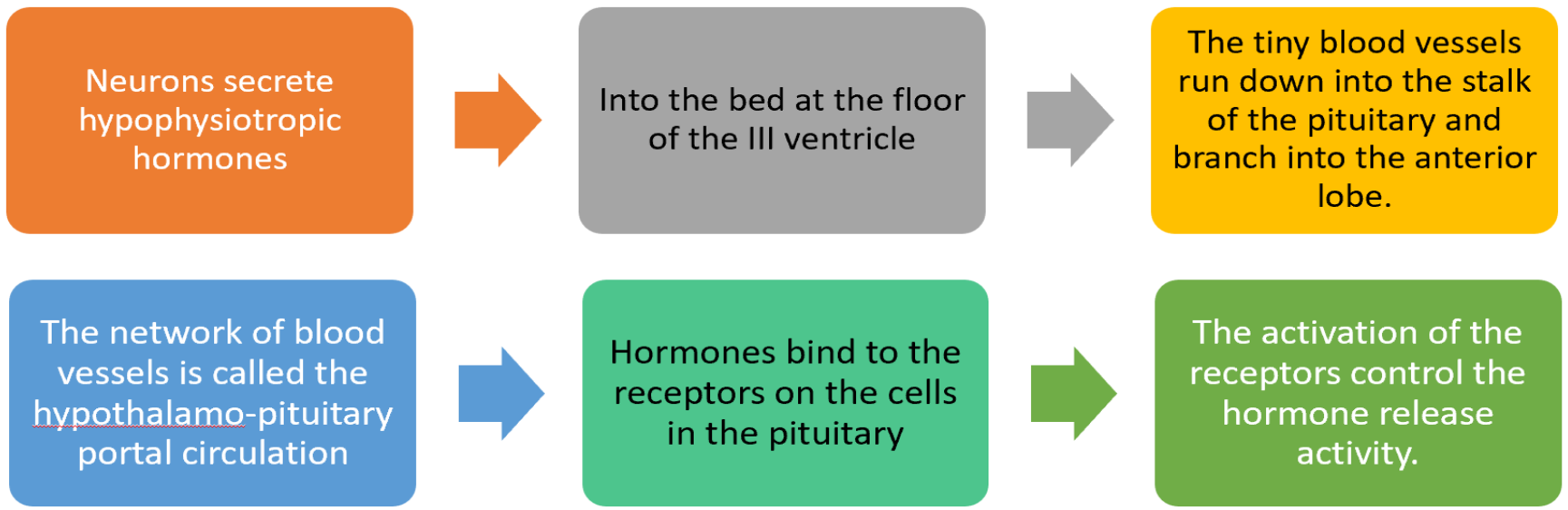
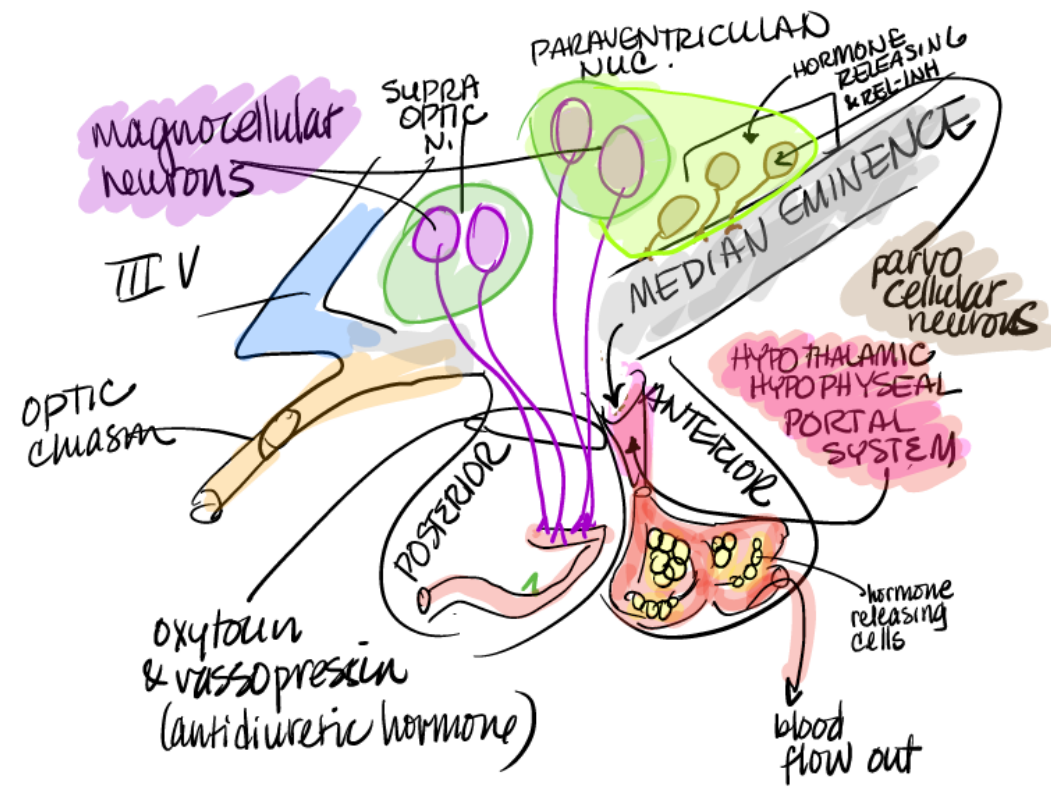


TABLE 15.1 Hormones of the Anterior Pituitary

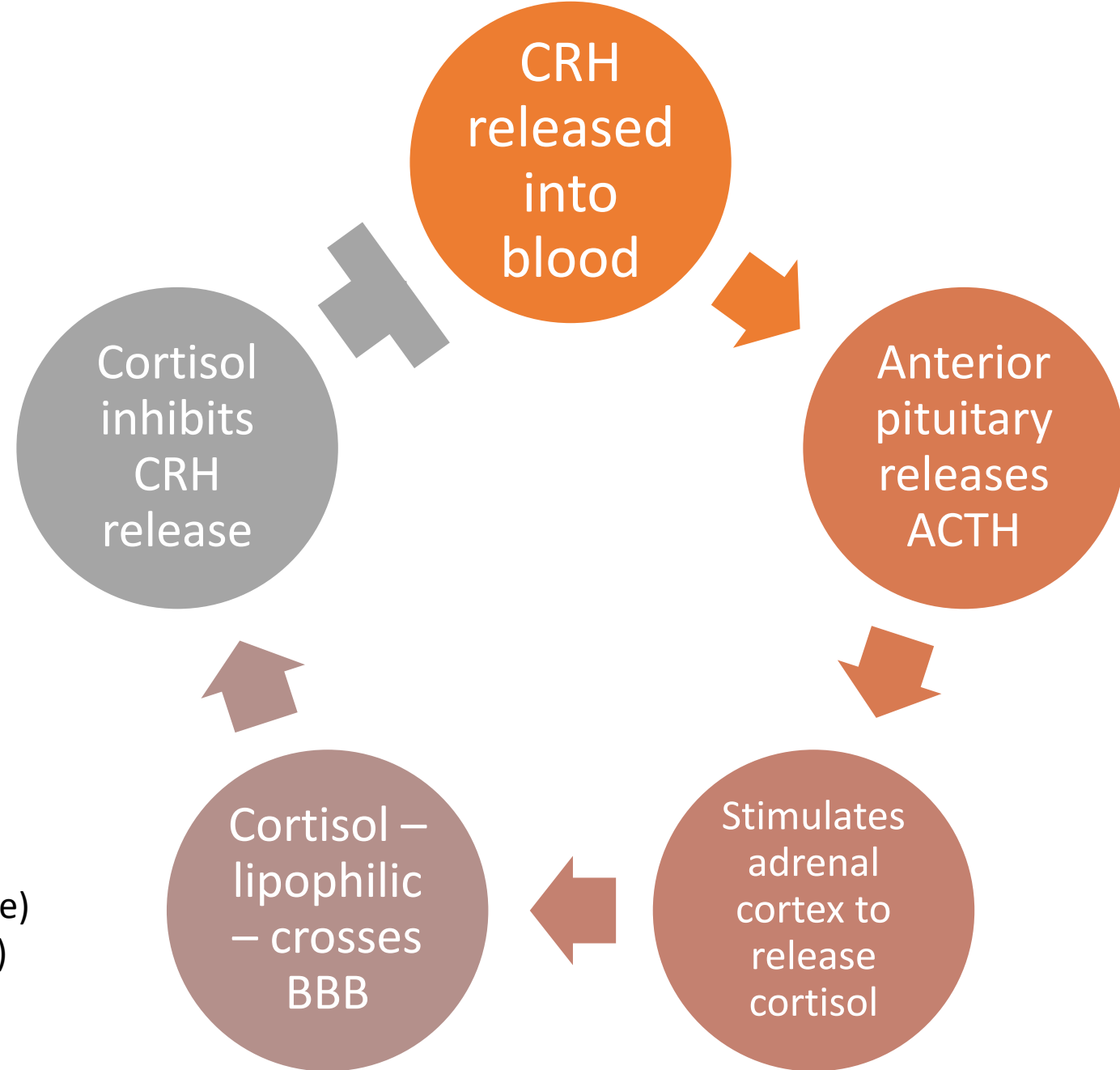
| Hormone | Target | Action |
|----------------------------------------------------------------|----------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH) | Gonads | Ovulation, spermatogenesis |
| Luteinizing hormone (LH) | Gonads | Ovarian and sperm maturation |
| Thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH); also called thyrotropin | Thyroid | Thyroxin secretion (increases metabolic rate) |
| Adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH); also called corticotropin | Adrenal cortex | Cortisol secretion (mobilizes energy stores, inhibits immune system, other actions) |
| Growth hormone (GH) | All cells | Stimulation of protein synthesis |
| Prolactin | Mammary glands | Growth and milk secretion |

Hypothalamus communicates with the anterior lobe of the pituitary gland by:





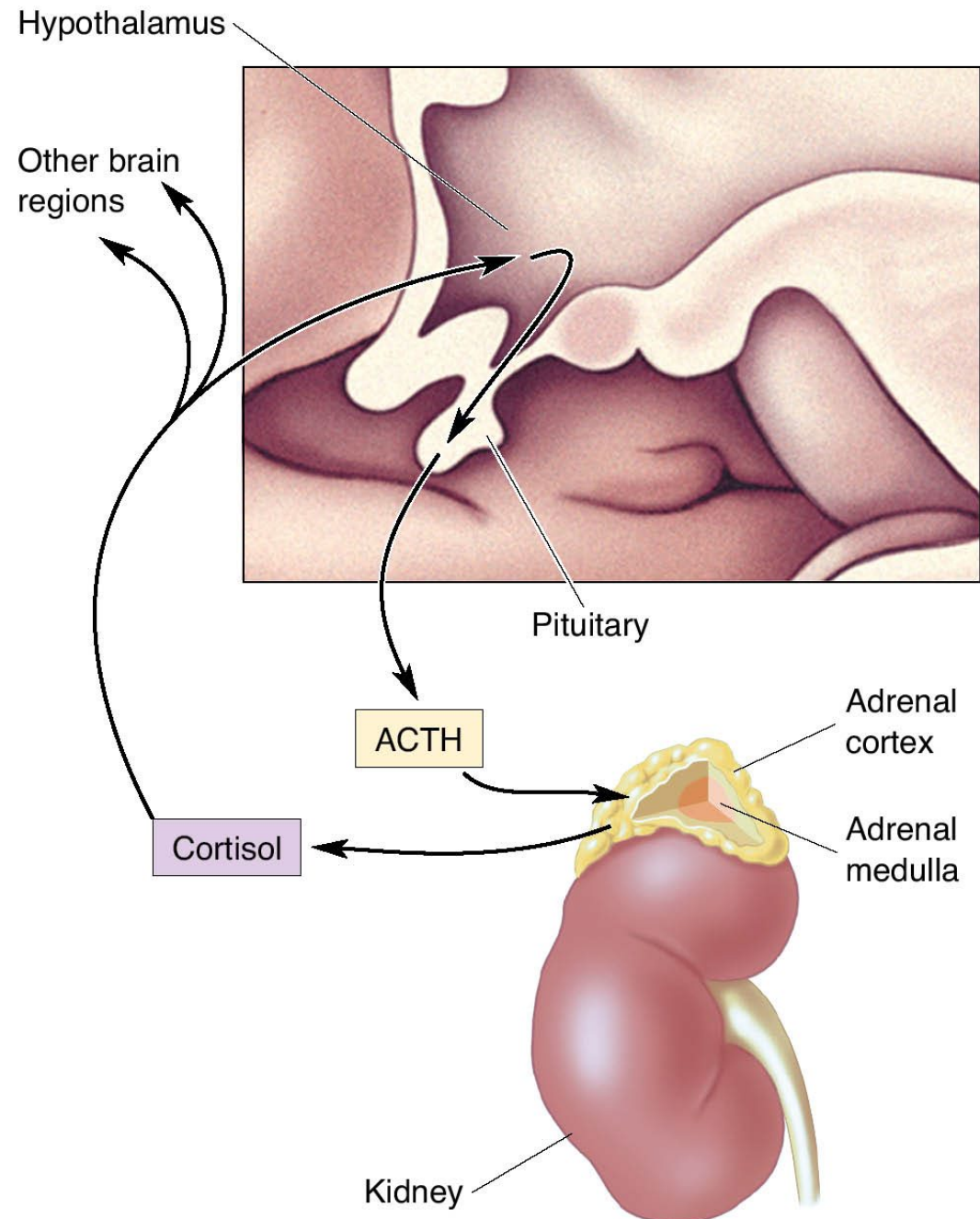
To stress or not stress – it's up to the parvocellular neurosecretory cells.



CRH (corticotropin releasing hormone)
ACTH (adrenocorticotrop hormone)
BBB (blood brain barrier)

Stress Response

- Periventricular hypothalamus secretes CRH into portal circulation.
- ACTH (adrenocorticotrophic hormone) released into circulation
- ACTH stimulates cortisol release from adrenal cortex.
- Cortisol inhibits CRH release



Recall:

Divisions of Autonomic Nervous System



Sympathetic division: “fight or flight”

Increased heart rate and blood pressure

Depressed digestive function

Mobilized glucose reserves



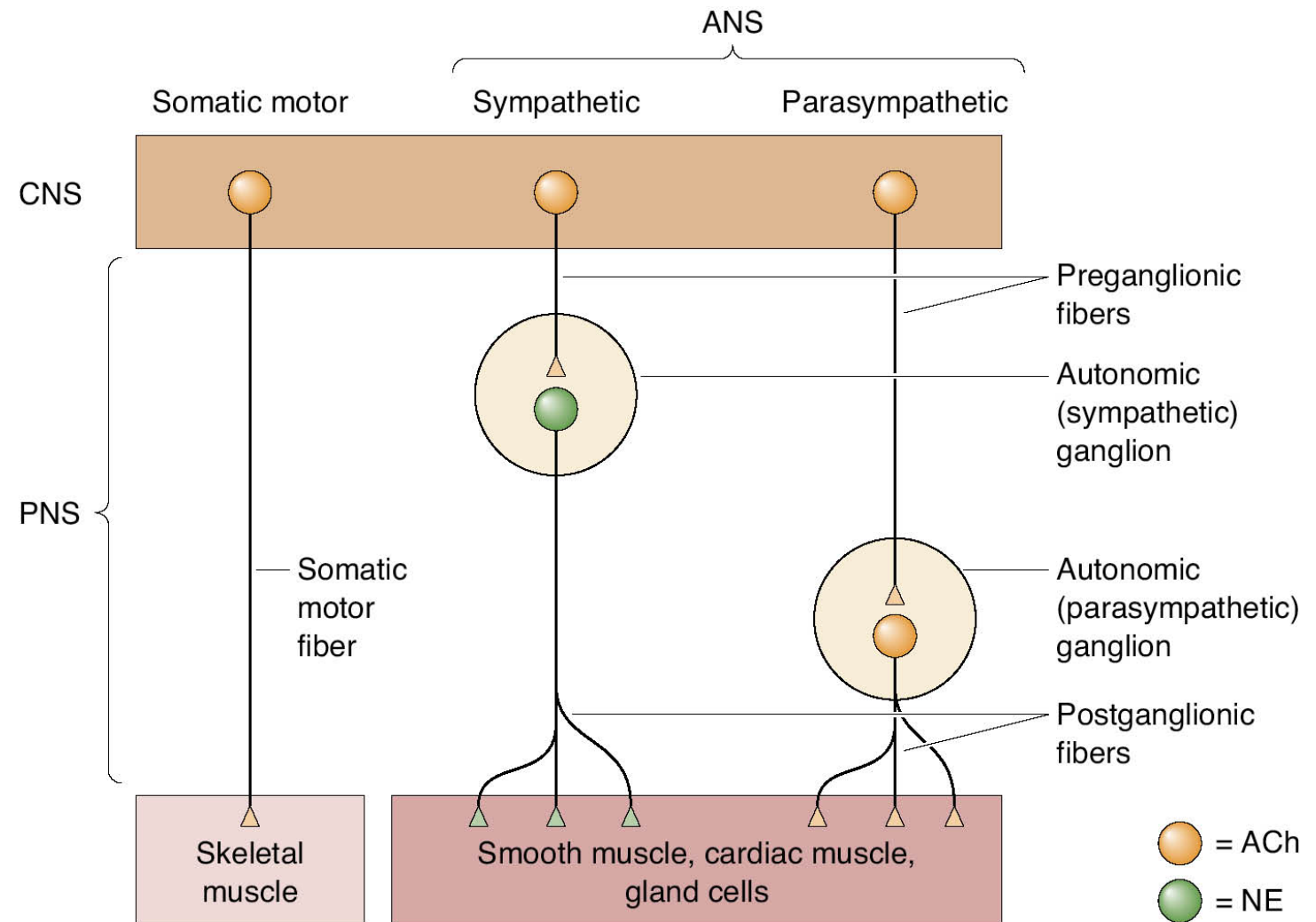
Parasympathetic division: “rest and digest”

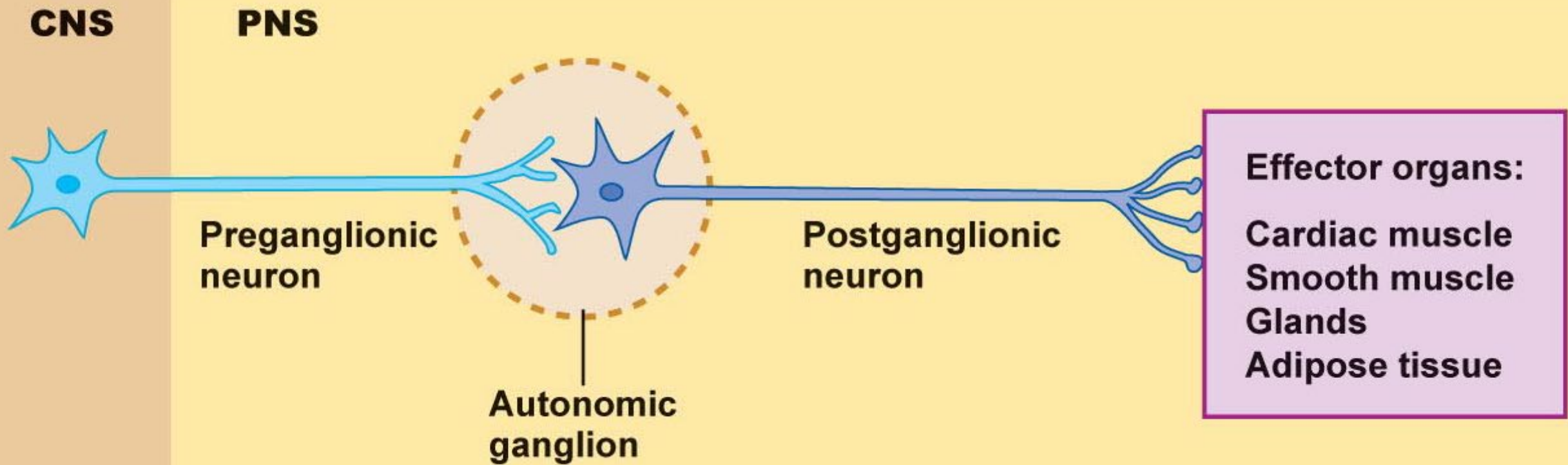
Slower heart rate, fall in blood pressure

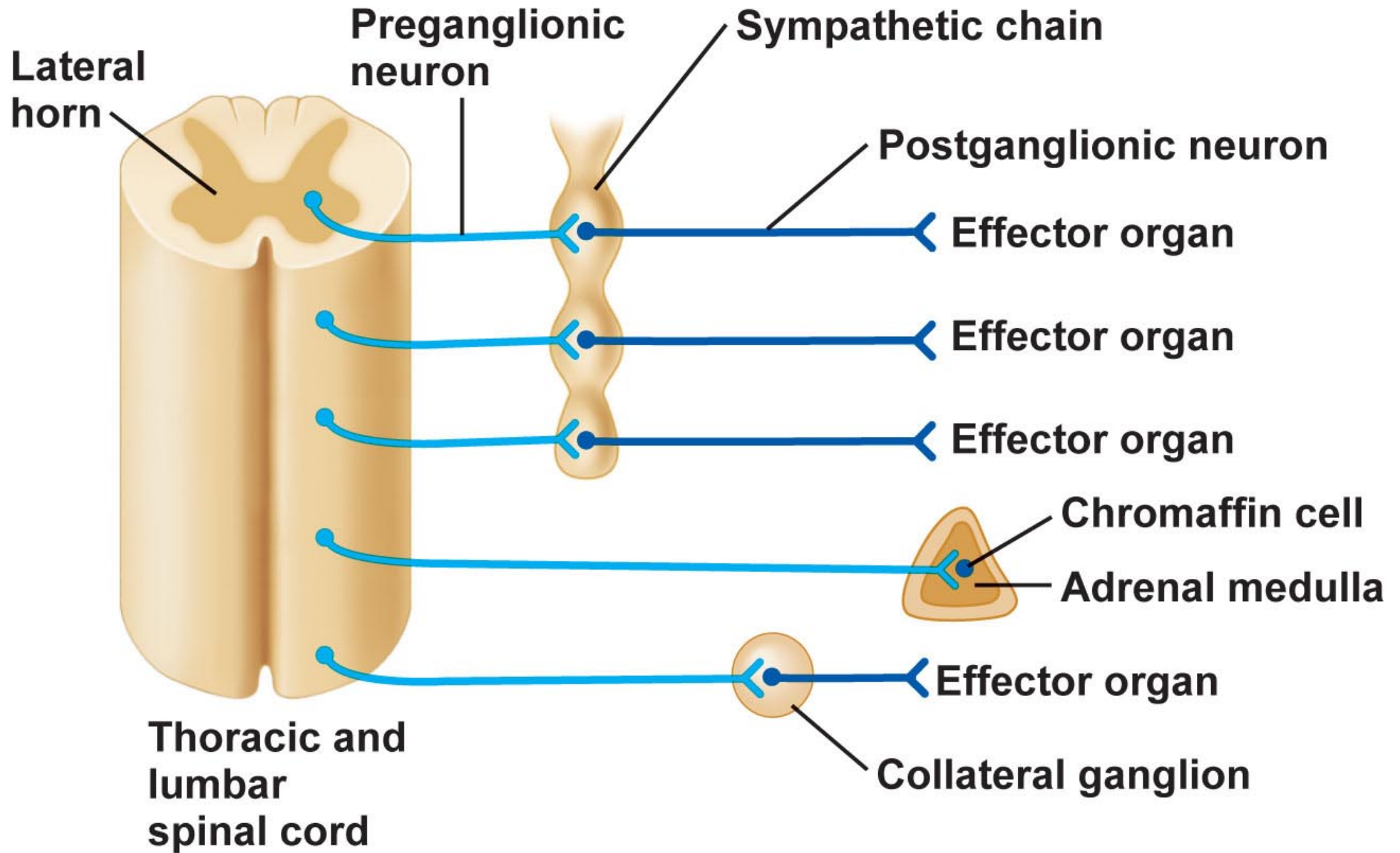
Increased digestive functions

Stop sweating

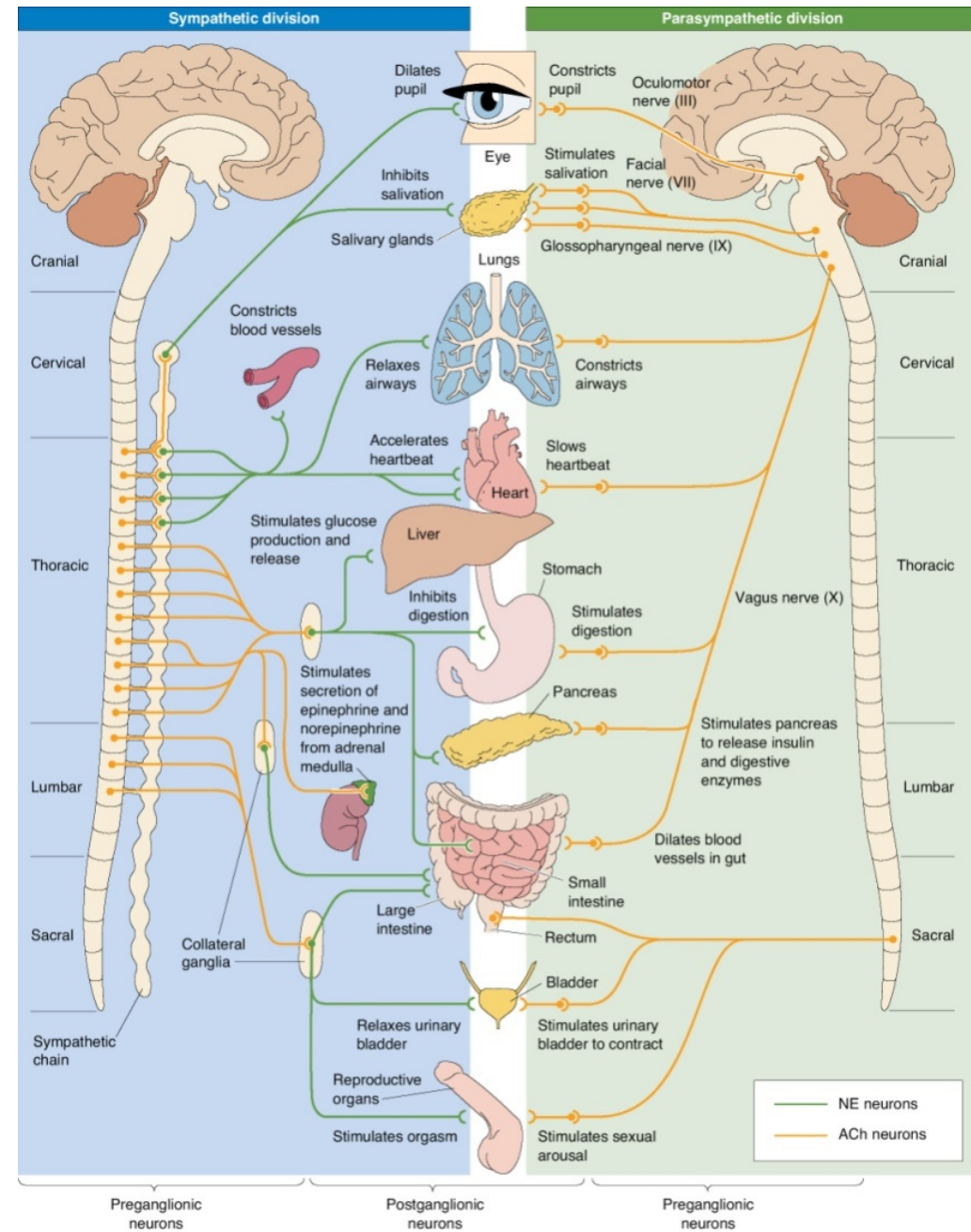
Recall: ANS Circuits versus Somatic Motor System

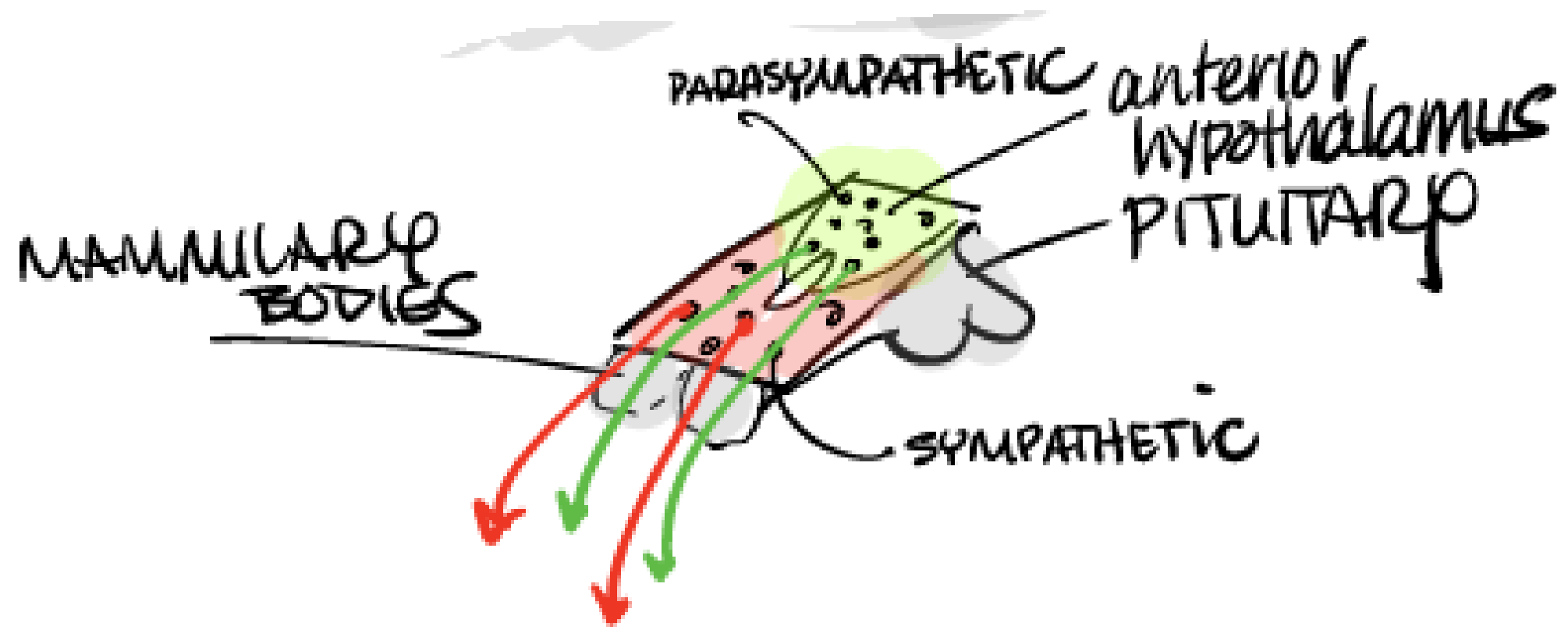


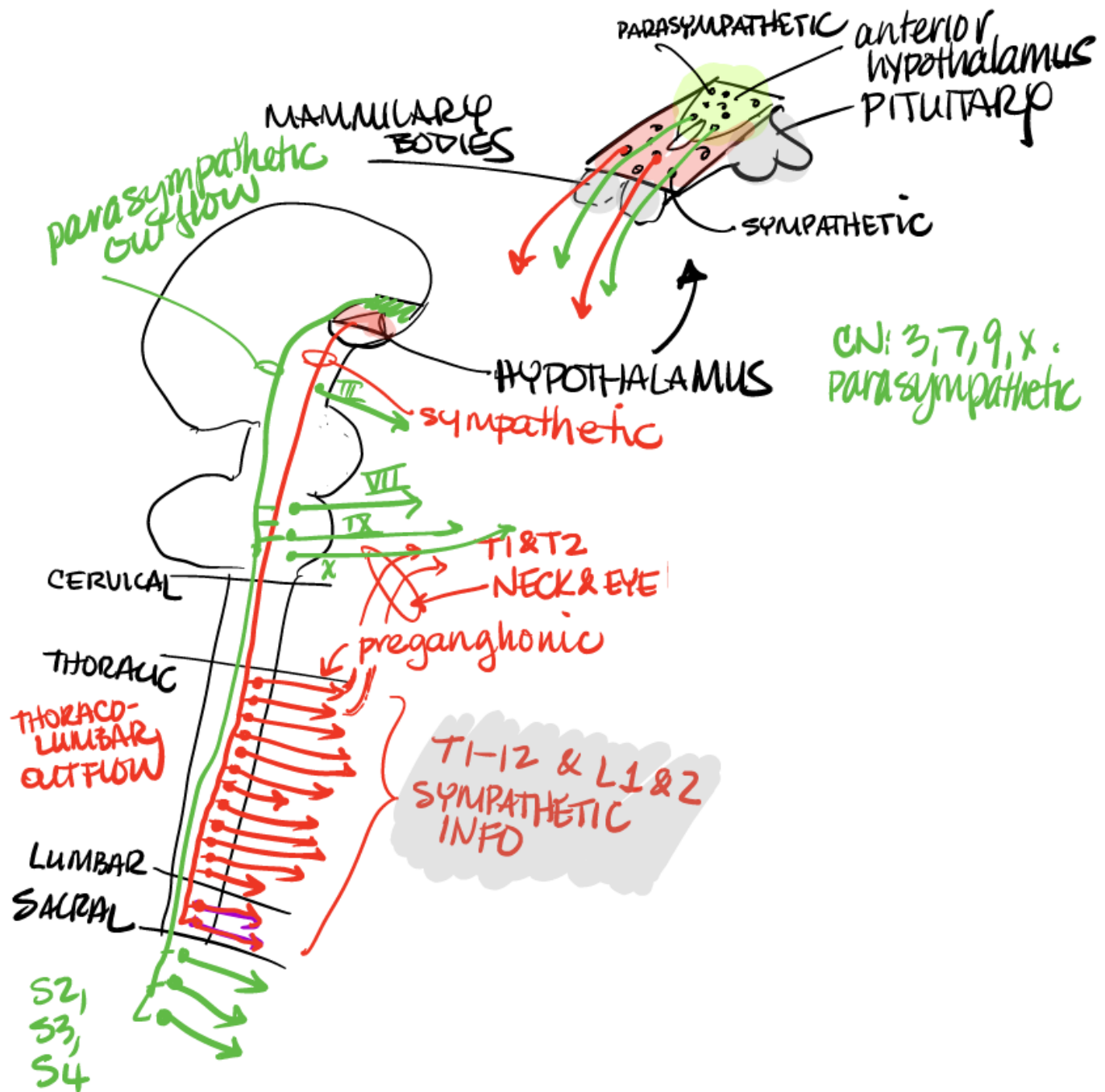




Sympathetic and Parasympathetic Divisions

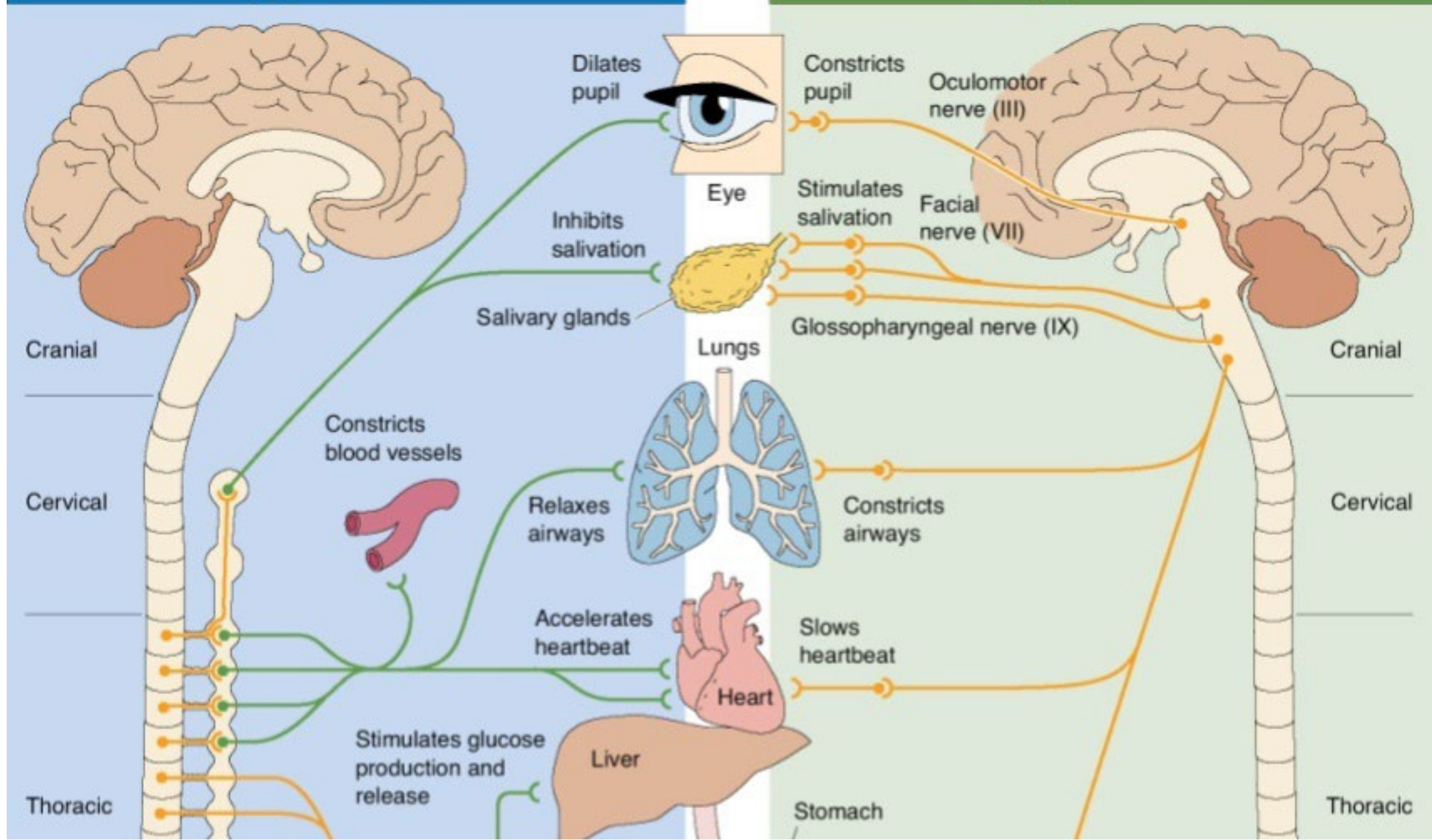






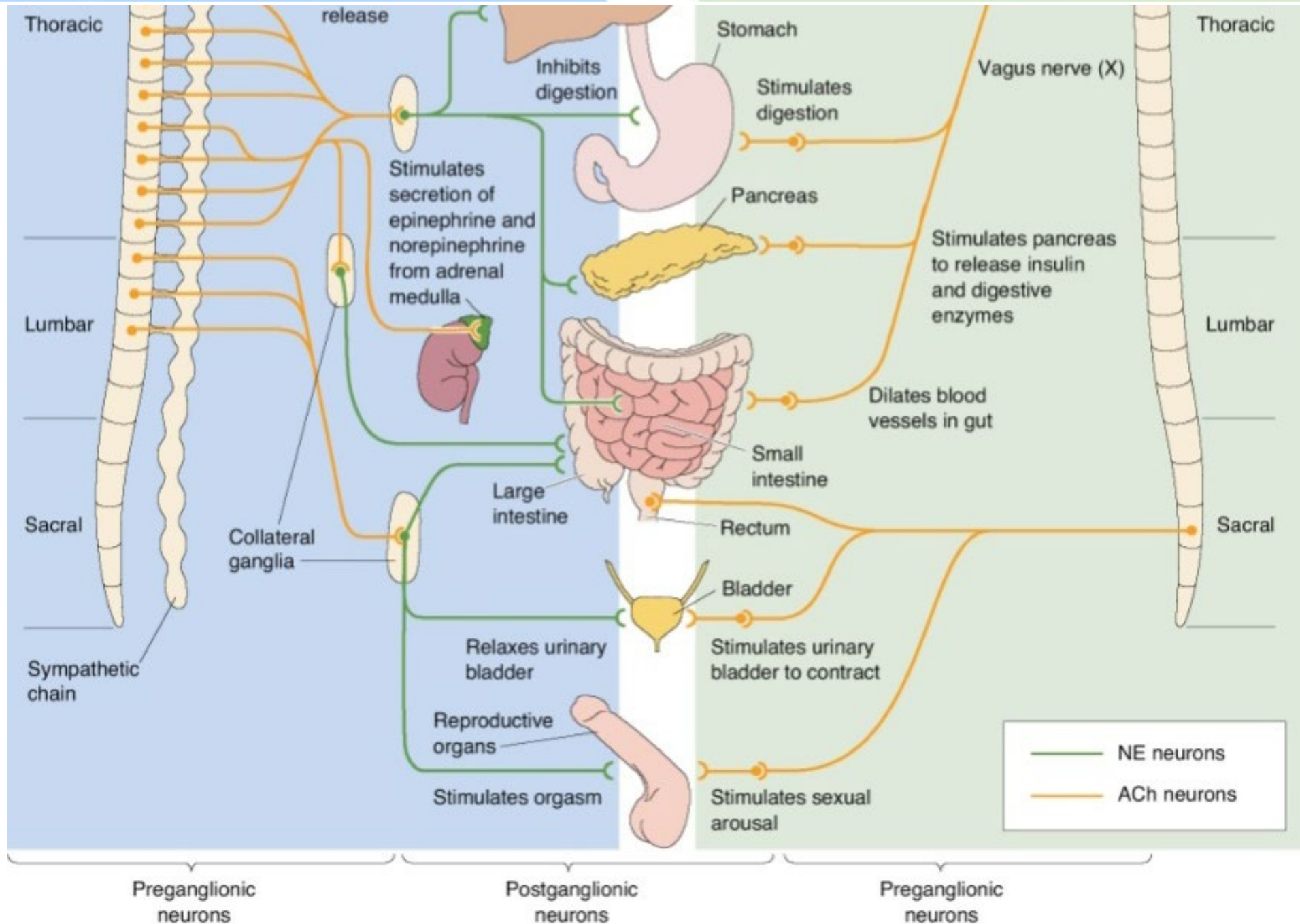
Sympathetic division

Parasympathetic division



Sympathetic division

Parasympathetic division





Your gut, your second brain.

The Enteric Division

- Location: lining of esophagus, stomach, intestines, pancreas, and gallbladder
- Two complicated networks: myenteric (Auerbach's) plexus and submucous (Meissner's) plexus
- Function: control physiological processes involved in transport, digestion of food
- Input indirectly from brain via axons of the sympathetic and parasympathetic divisions



Central Control of the ANS

Connections for autonomic control

- Periventricular zone connections to brain stem and spinal cord nuclei
- Nucleus of solitary tract

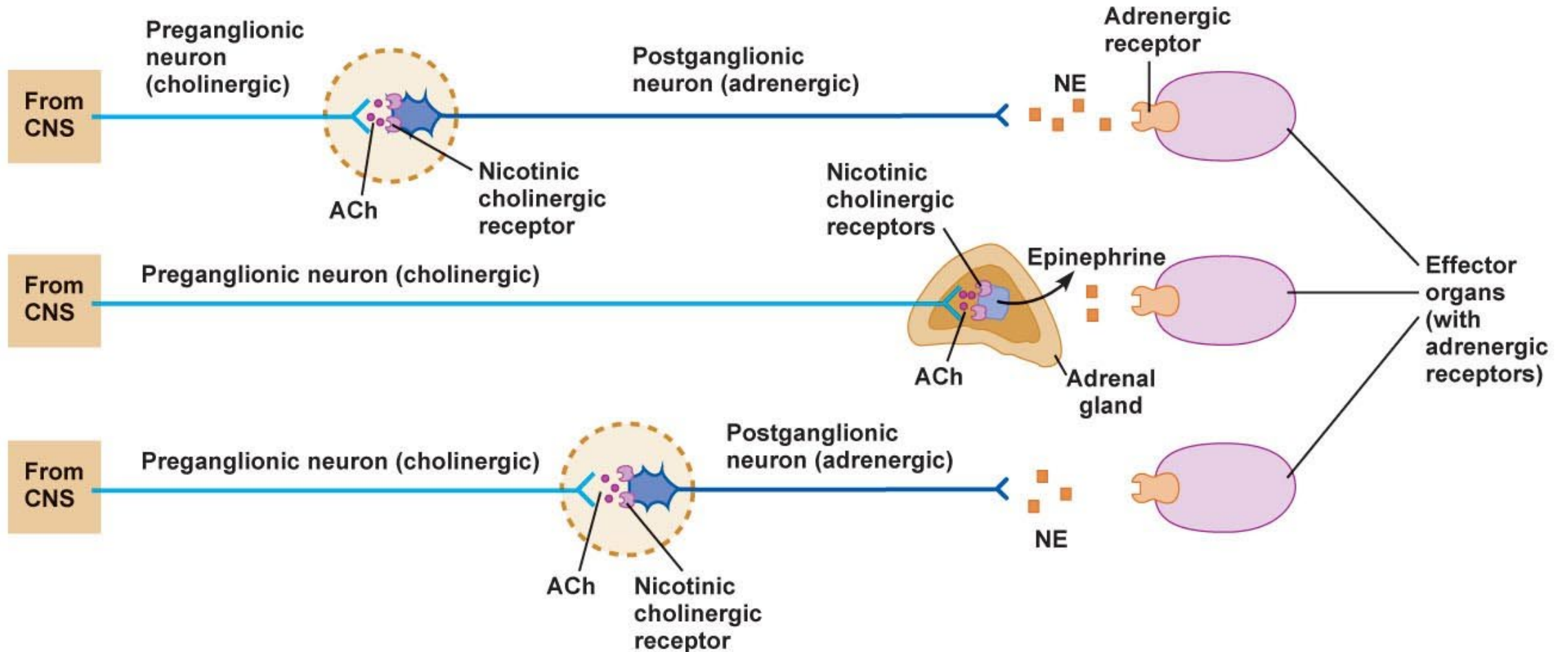
Function of solitary nucleus

- Integrates sensory information from internal organs and coordinates output to autonomic brain stem nuclei

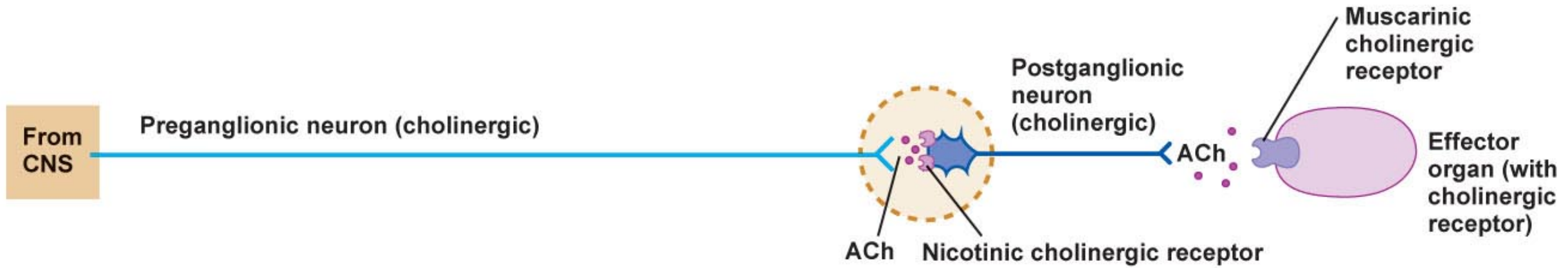
Autonomic Neurotransmitters

The peripheral nervous system uses two neurotransmitters:

1. **Acetylcholine** is the most common.
2. **Norepinephrine** the other neurotransmitter.



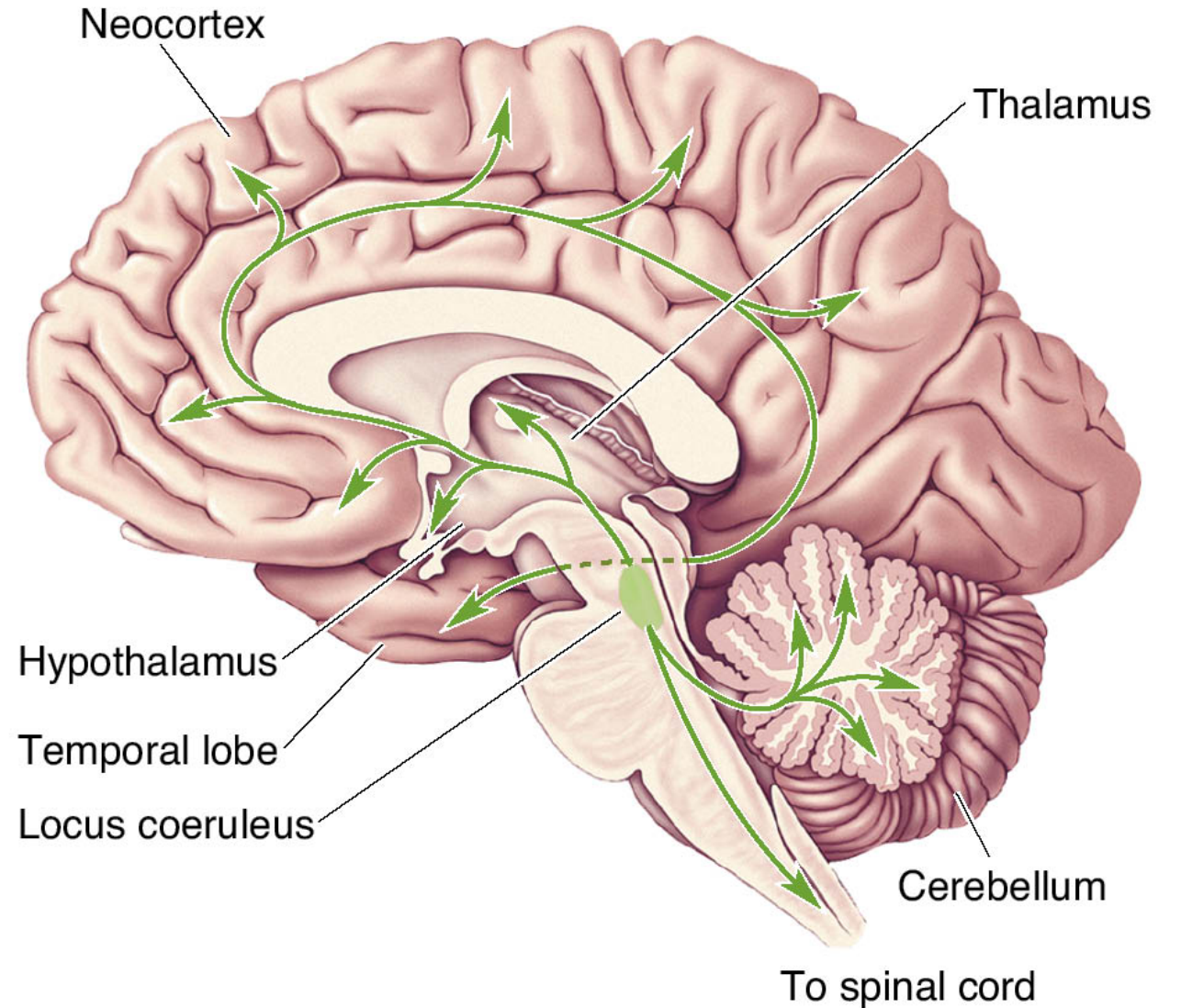
(a) Sympathetic nervous system



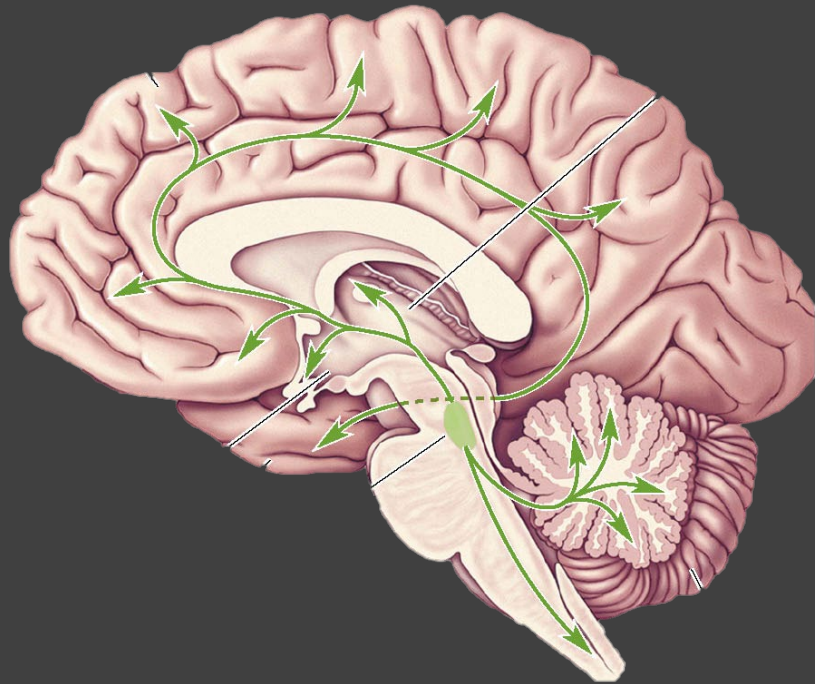
(b) Parasympathetic nervous system

The Noradrenergic Locus Coeruleus

Norepinephrine system



Norepinephrine system



Locus coeruleus



Path: Axons innervate cerebral cortex, thalamus, hypothalamus, olfactory bulb, cerebellum, midbrain, and spinal cord.



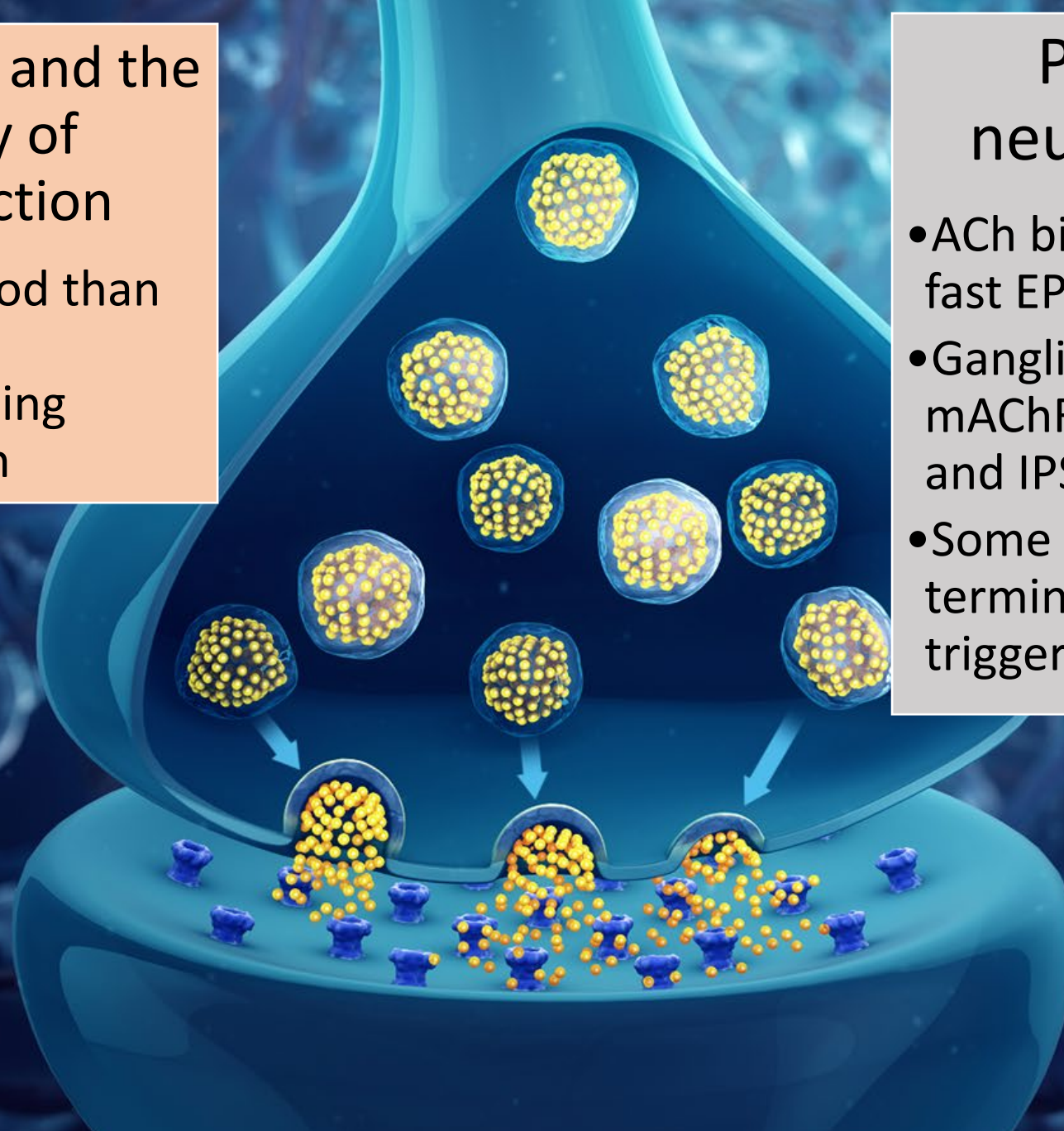
Function: regulation of attention, arousal, sleep–wake cycles, learning and memory, anxiety and pain, mood, brain metabolism



Activation: new, unexpected, nonpainful sensory stimuli

Neurotransmitters and the pharmacology of autonomic function

- ANS better understood than the CNS—e.g., drug mechanisms influencing synaptic transmission



Preganglionic neurotransmitters

- ACh binds to nAChR, evokes fast EPSP.
- Ganglionic ACh activates mAChR, causes slow EPSPs and IPSPs.
- Some preganglionic terminals release NPY, VIP—trigger small EPSPs.

Postganglionic Neurotransmitters



Parasympathetic:
release ACh

Local effect



Sympathetic: most
release NE

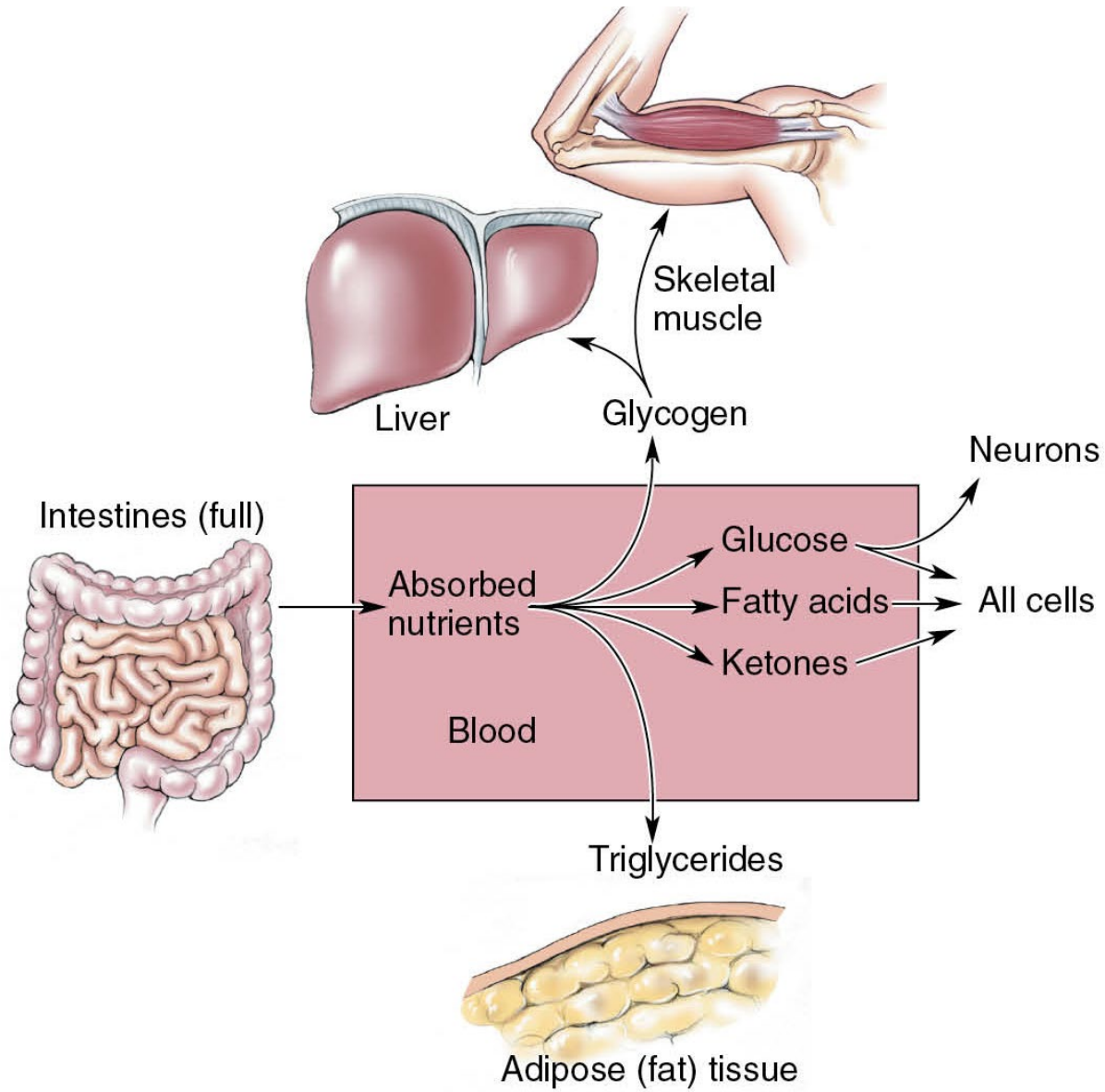
Far-reaching effects



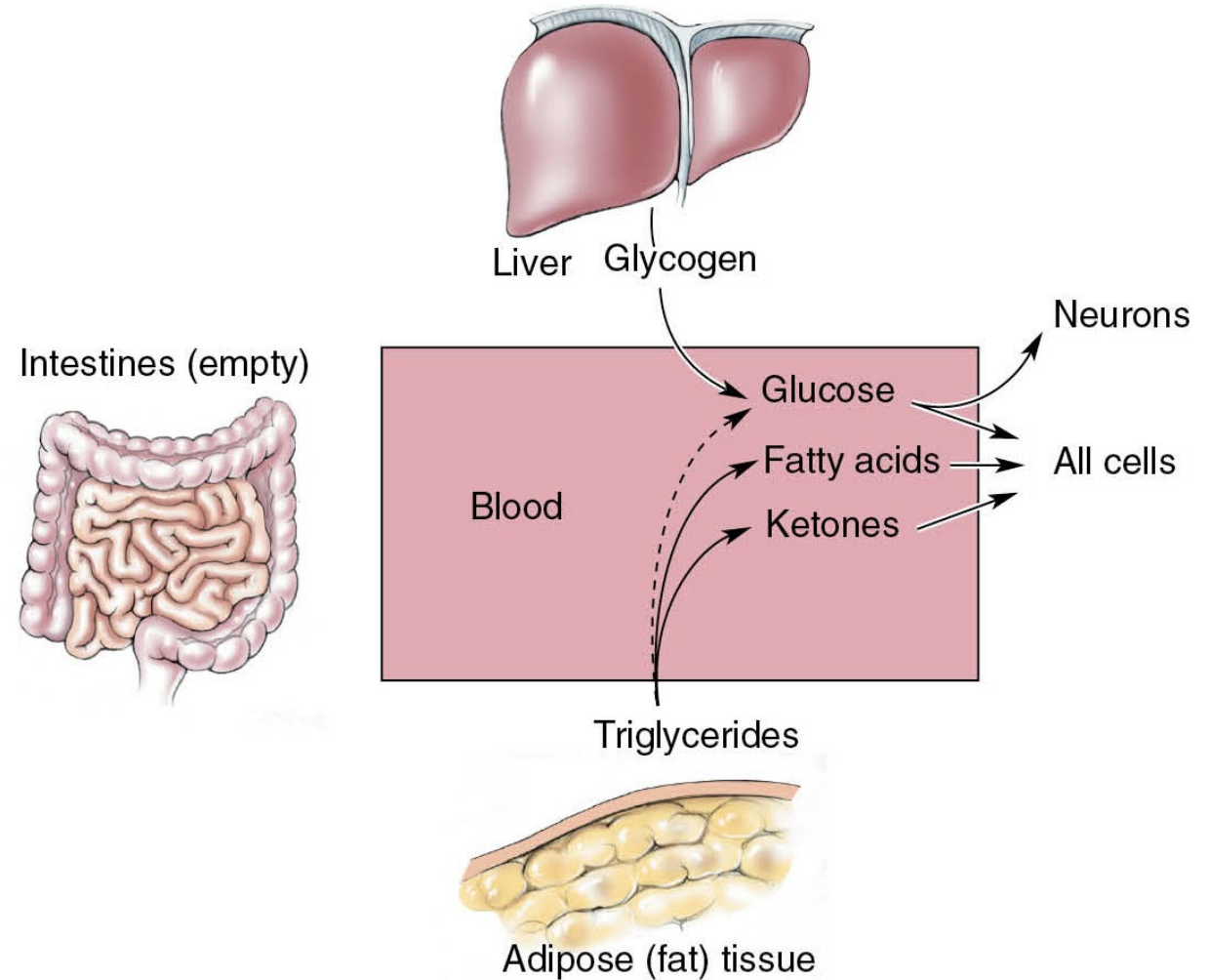
Parasympathomimetic: mimic or promote
muscarinic actions of ACh or inhibit
actions of NE



Sympathomimetic: mimic or promote NE
actions or inhibit muscarinic actions of
ACh



(a) Anabolism during the prandial state



(b) Catabolism during the postabsorptive state

Energy balance

Body fat

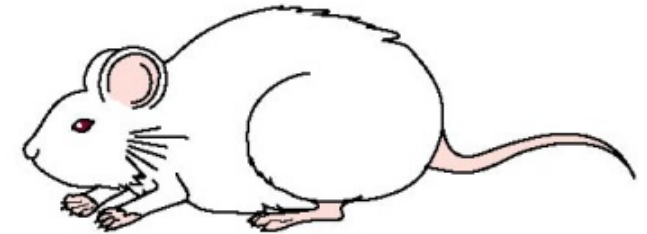
(a) Intake = expenditure

Normal



(b) Intake > expenditure

Obesity



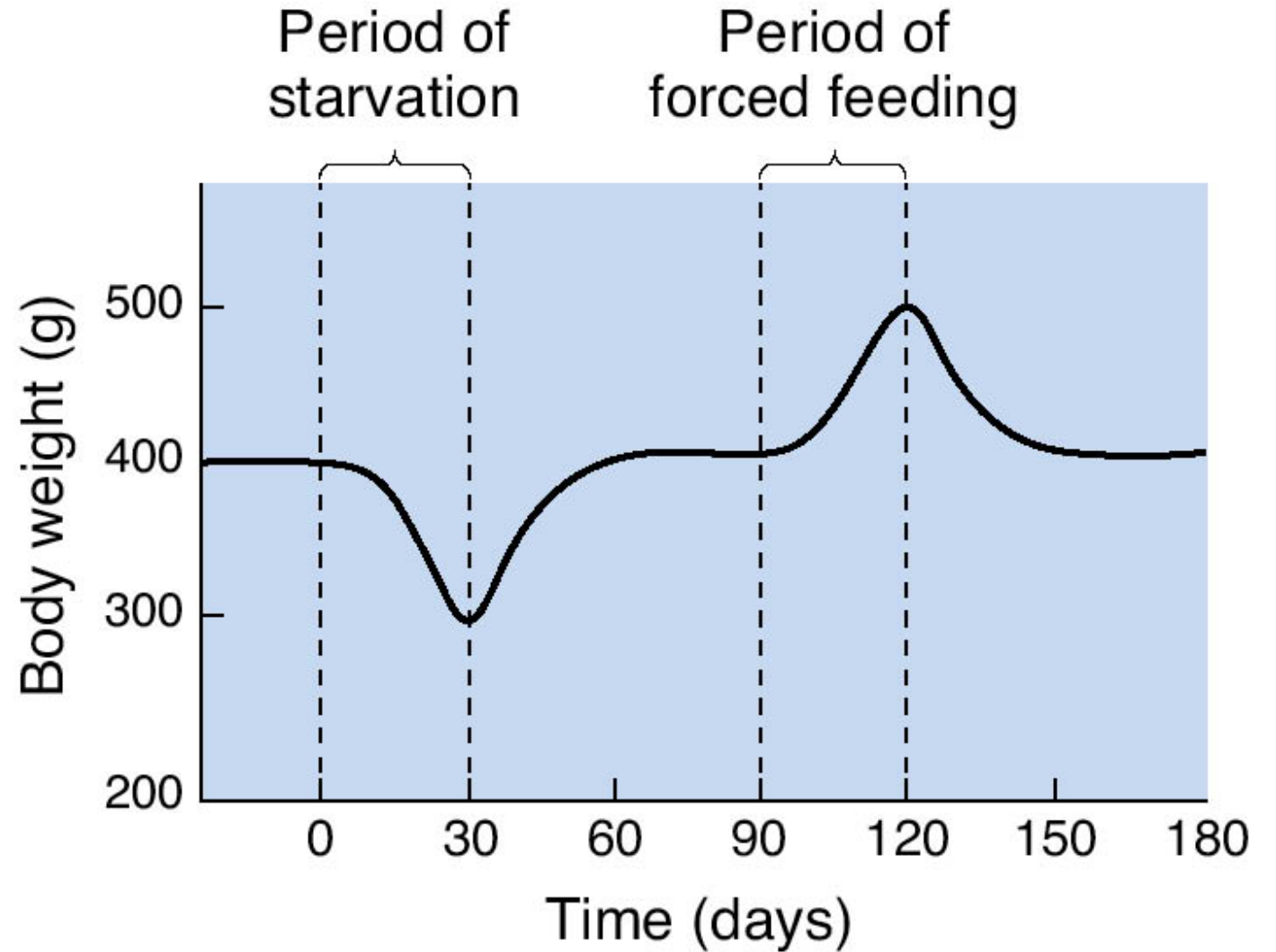
(c) Intake < expenditure

Starvation



Body Fat and Food Consumption

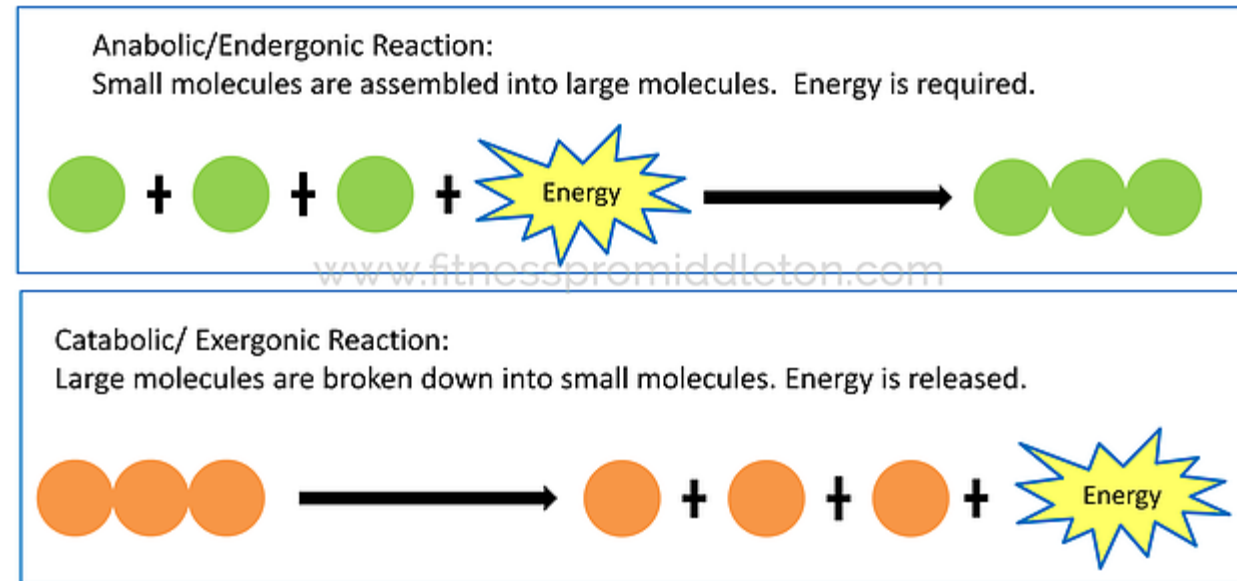
- Lipostatic hypothesis
- Experiments with parabiosis
- Leptin
 - Regulates body mass
 - Decreases appetite
 - Increases energy expenditure
- Leptin depletion
 - Incites adaptive responses to fight starvation



Energy Balance

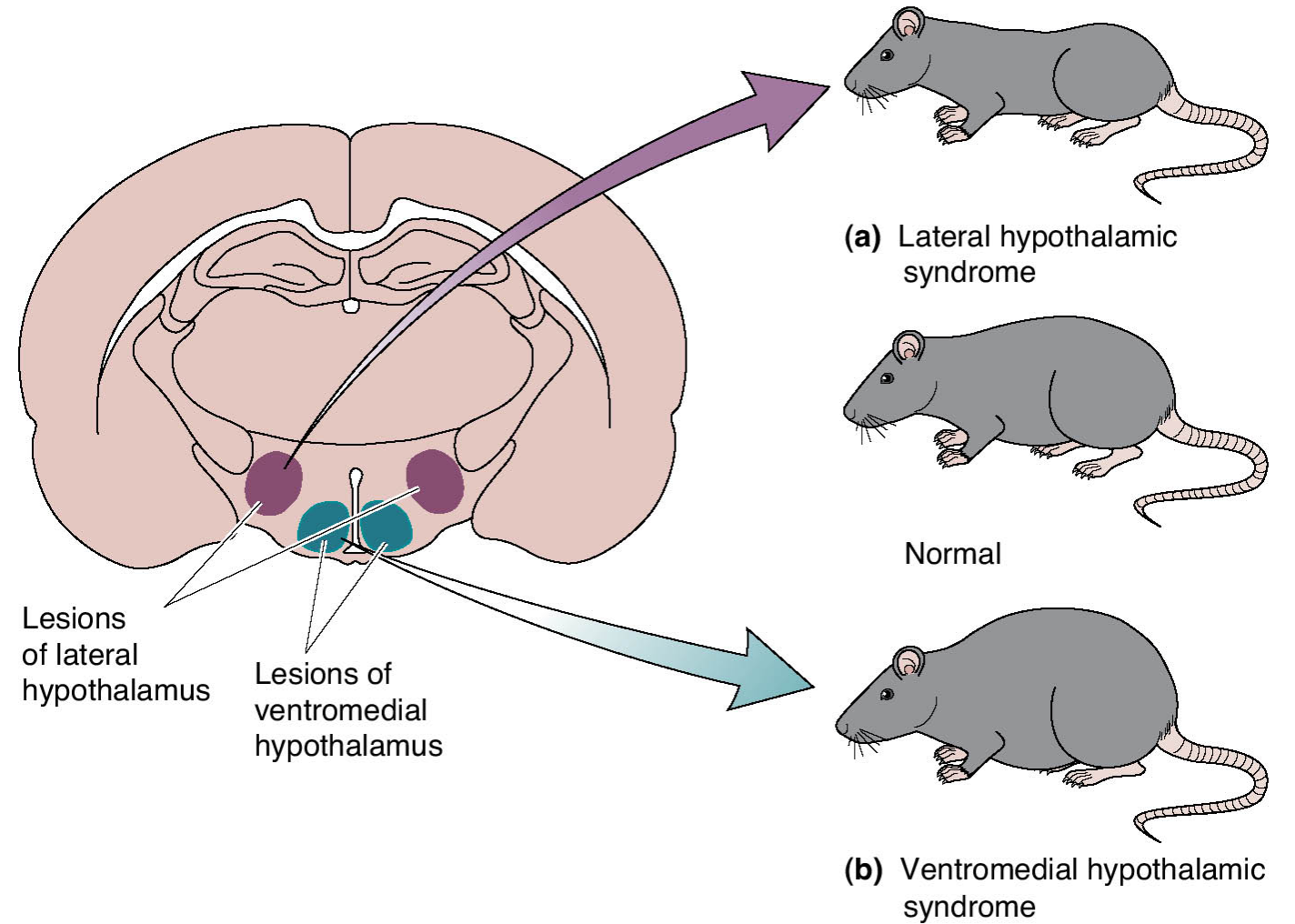
- Prandial state—
anabolism:
energy storage
as glycogen and
triglycerides
- Postabsorptive
state—
catabolism:
breaking down
complex
macromolecules
for energy

Metabolic Pathways: Anabolic and Catabolic

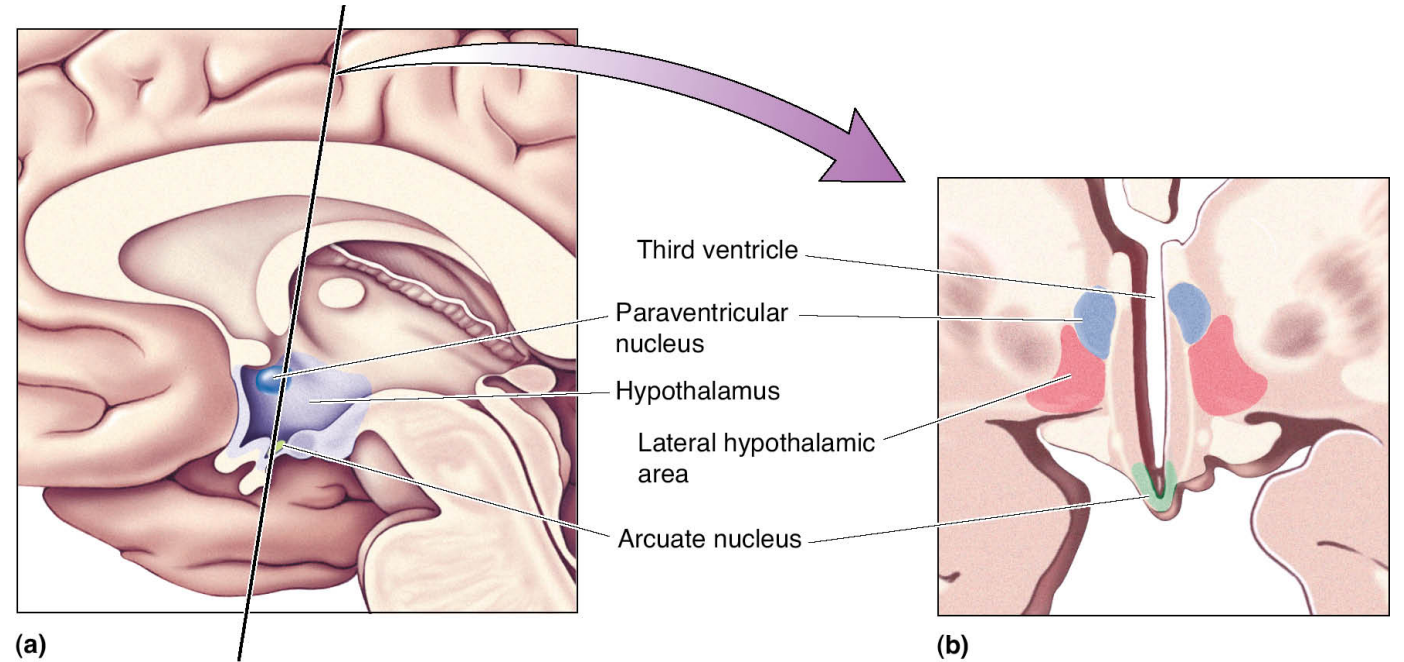


The Hypothalamus and Feeding

- Anorexia from lateral hypothalamic syndrome
- Obesity from ventromedial hypothalamic syndrome
- Both related to leptin signaling

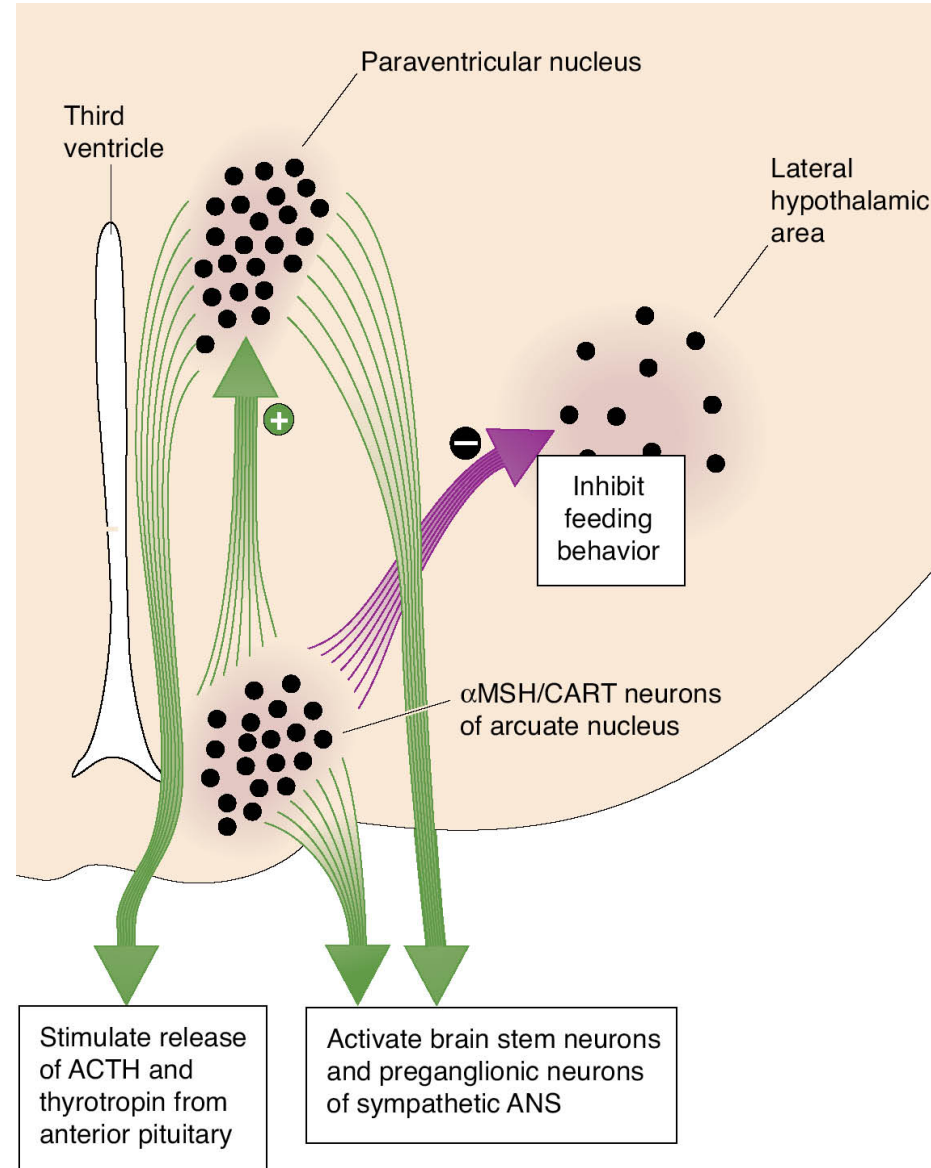


Arcuate nucleus
of hypothalamus
important for the
control of
feeding



Response to Elevated Leptin Levels

- Activation of arcuate neurons that release α MSH and CART peptides
 - Anorectic peptides—diminish appetite
 - Project to regions that orchestrate coordinated response of humoral, visceromotor, and somatic responses
 - Paraventricular nucleus (humoral response)
 - Intermediolateral gray matter of spinal cord
 - Lateral hypothalamus



Response to Decreased Leptin Levels



Activation of arcuate neurons that release NPY and AgRP



Effects on energy balance: opposite the effects of α MSH and CART

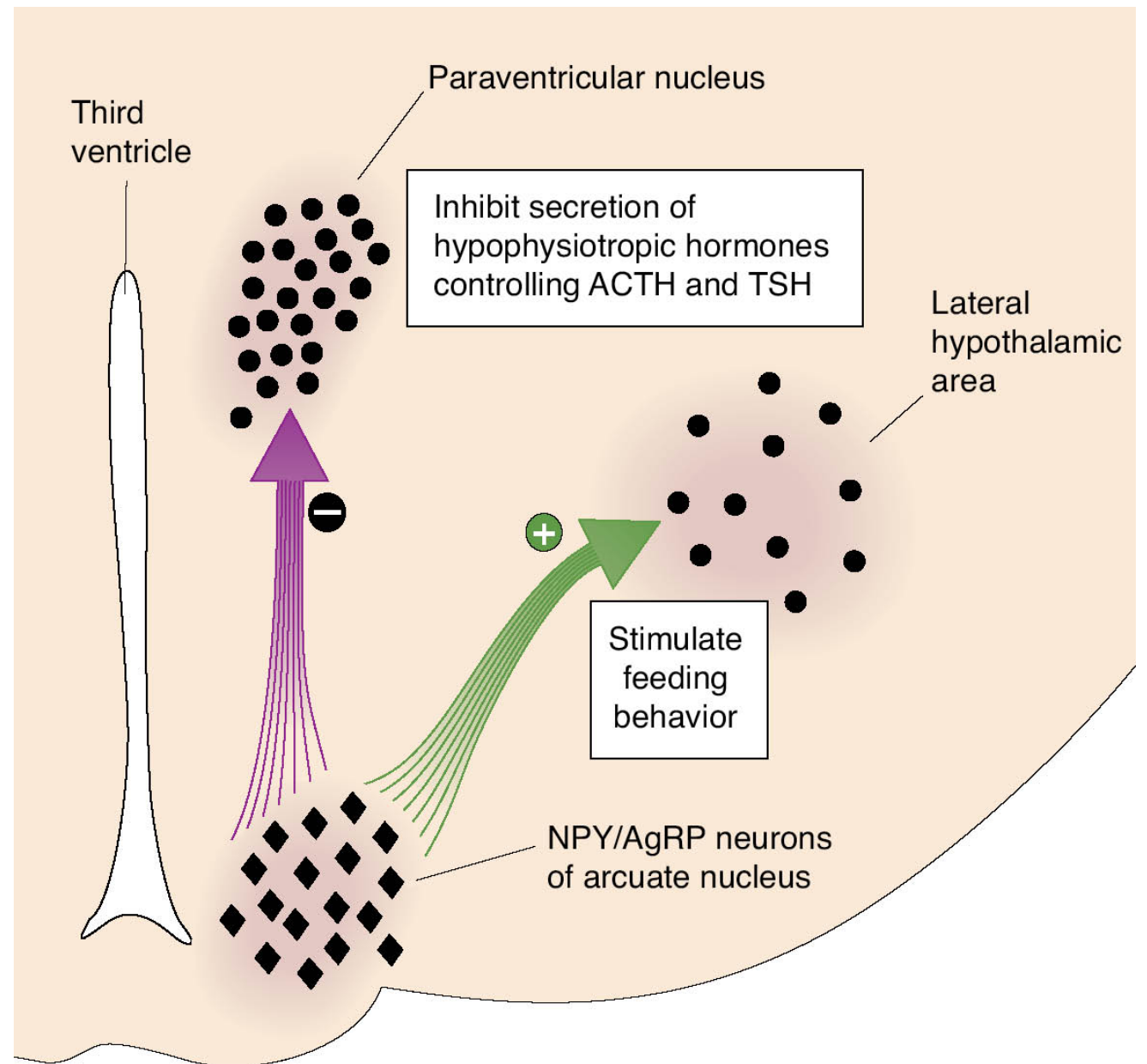


Orexigenic peptides—**increase appetite**

NPY and AgRP inhibit secretion of TSH and ACTH

Activate parasympathetic division of ANS

Stimulate feeding behavior



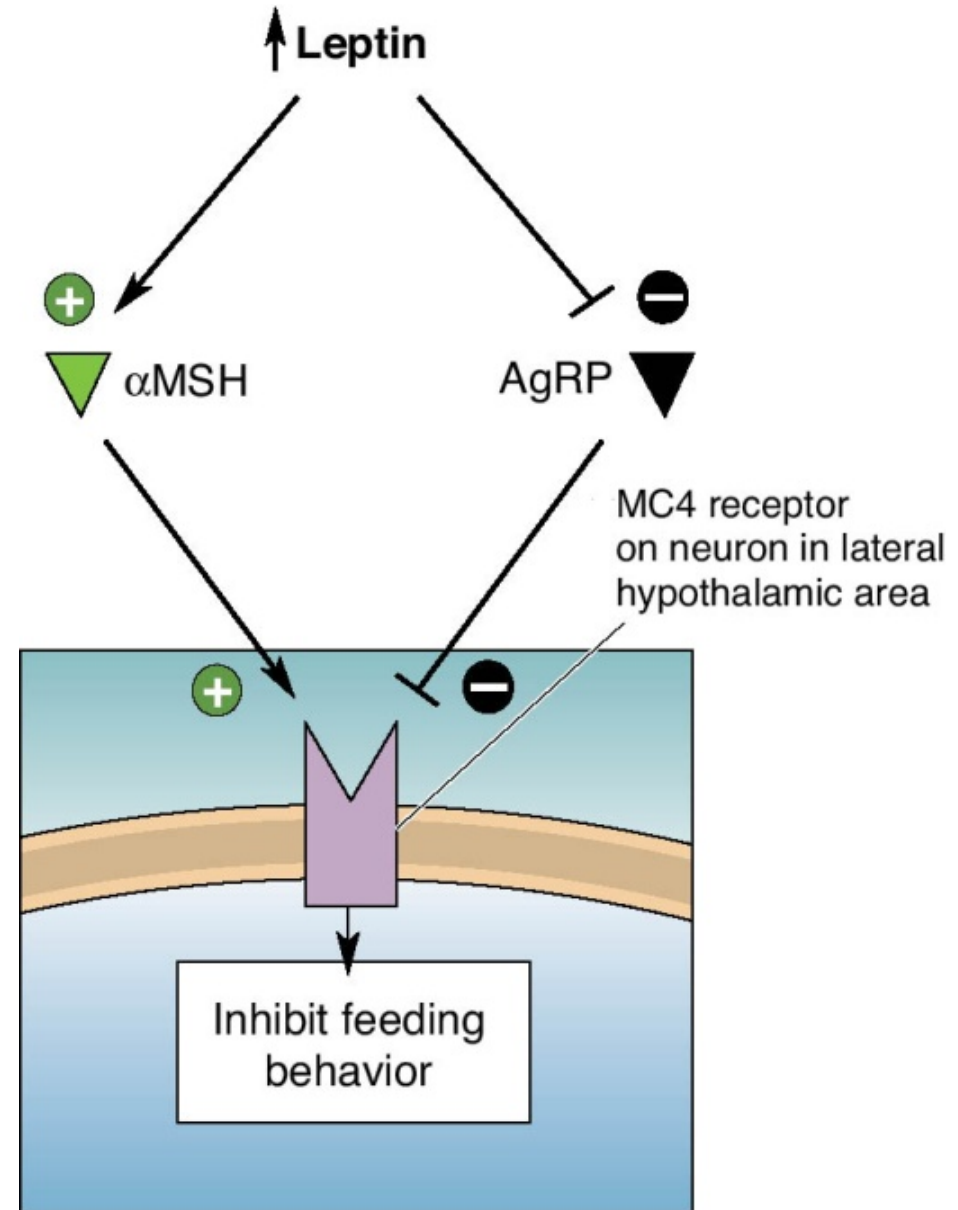
Control of Feeding by Lateral Hypothalamic Peptides

- LH neurons stimulating feeding behavior contain:
 - Melanin-concentrating hormone (MCH)
 - Widespread connections in the brain
 - Prolongs consumption
 - Orexin
 - Also with widespread cortical connections
 - Promotes meal initiation

Summary of Responses to Increased and Decreased Adiposity

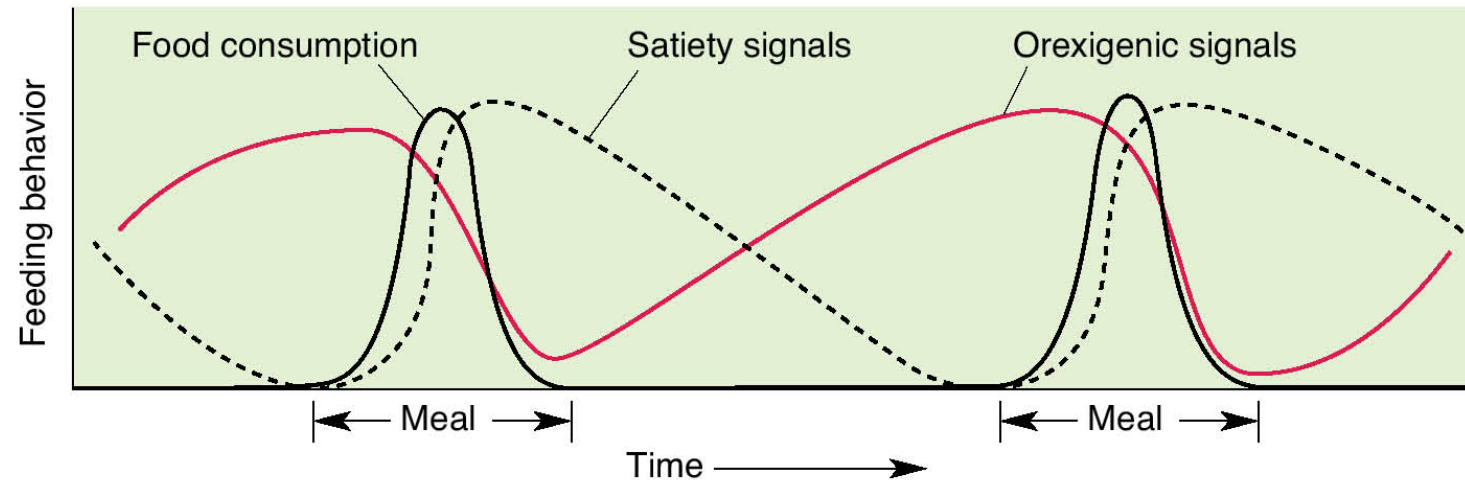
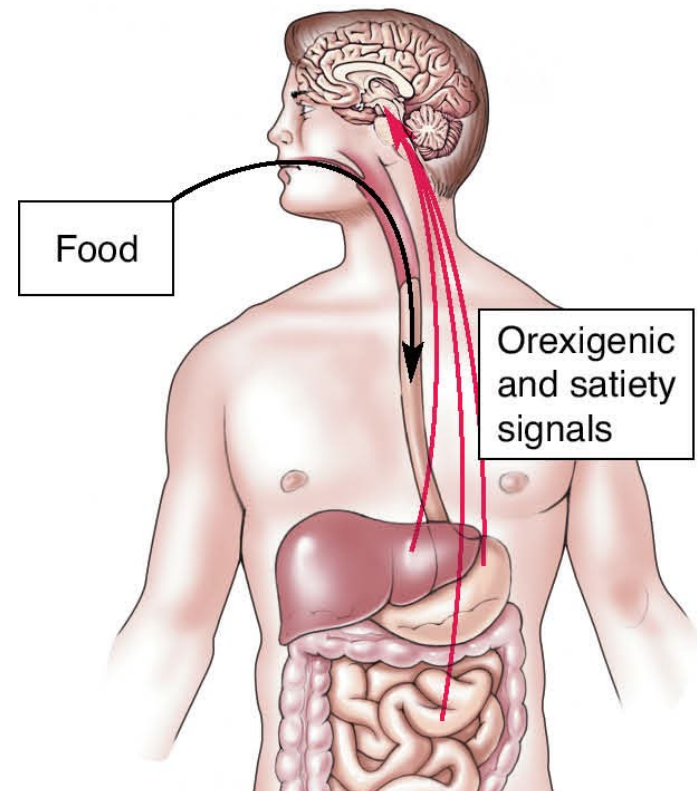
| | Fat | Lean | |
|-----------------------------------|-----|------|----------------------------|
| Blood leptin level | + | - | |
| α MSH/CART neuron activity | + | - | } Arcuate nucleus response |
| NPY/AgRP neuron activity | - | + | |
| TSH and ACTH release | + | - | } Humoral response |
| Sympathetic NS activity | + | - | } Visceromotor response |
| Parasympathetic NS activity | - | + | |
| Feeding behavior | - | + | } Somatic motor response |

Competition for Activation of the MC4 Receptor



Model for Short-Term Regulation of Feeding

Three phases: cephalic, gastric, substrate

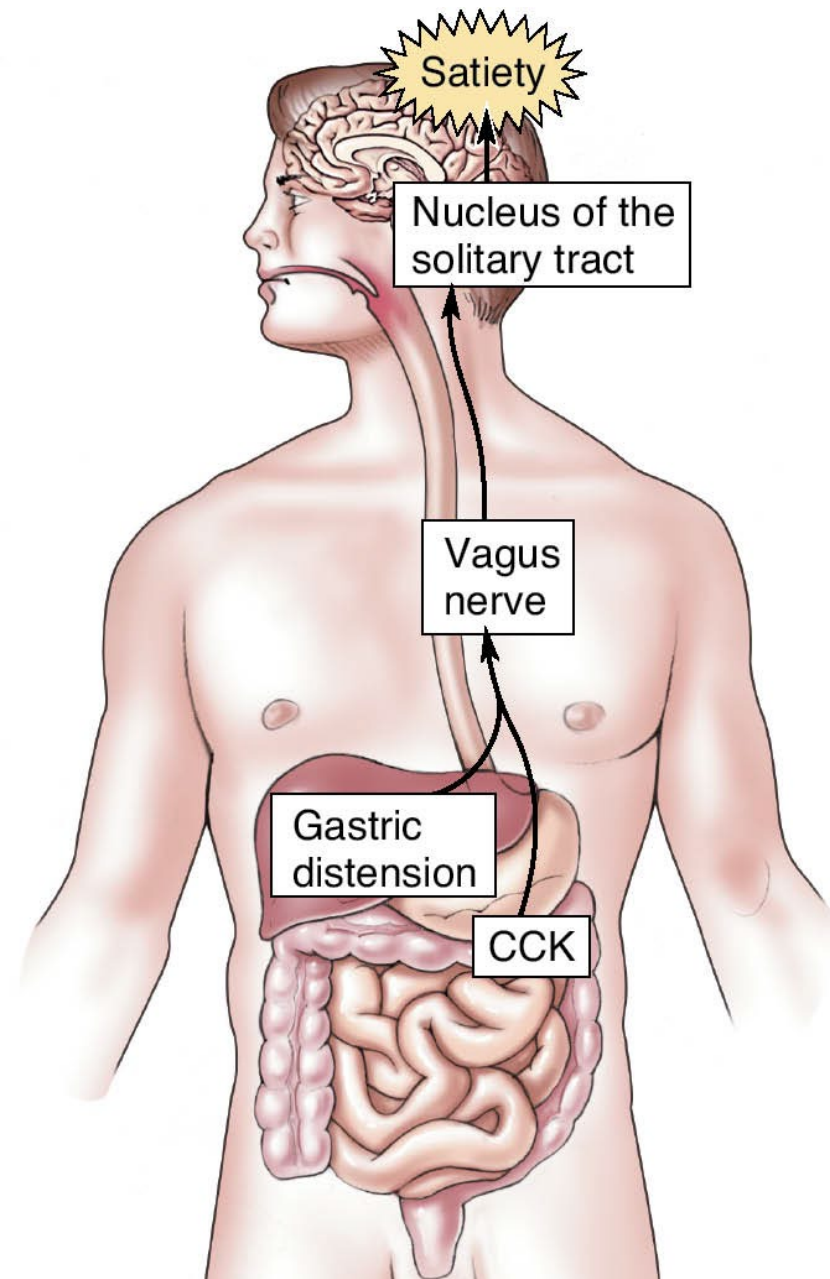


- Cephalic: hunger
 - Ghrelin released when stomach is empty
 - Activates NPY/AgRP-containing neurons in arcuate nucleus
 - Removal of ghrelin-secreting cells of stomach thought to cause loss of appetite

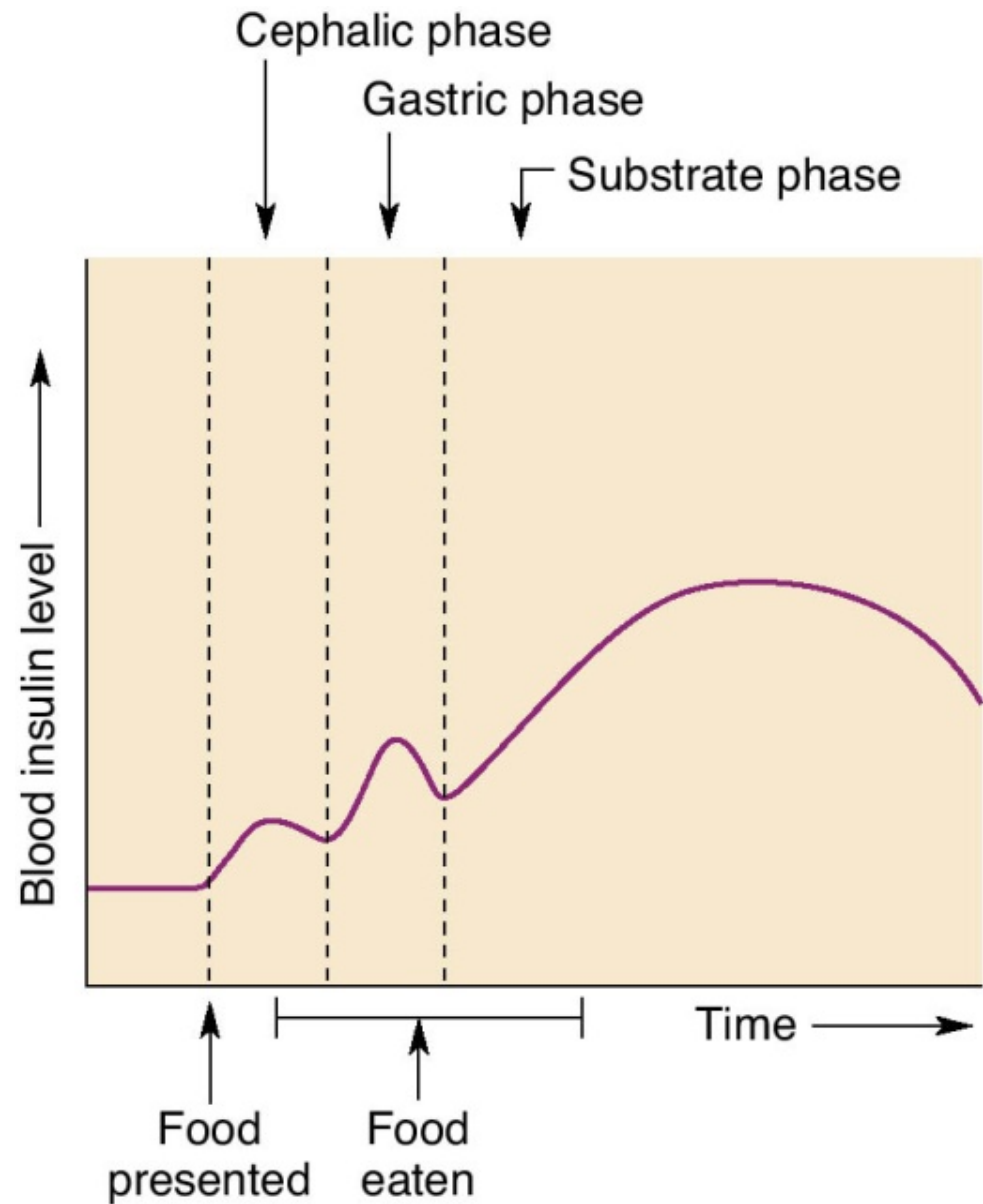


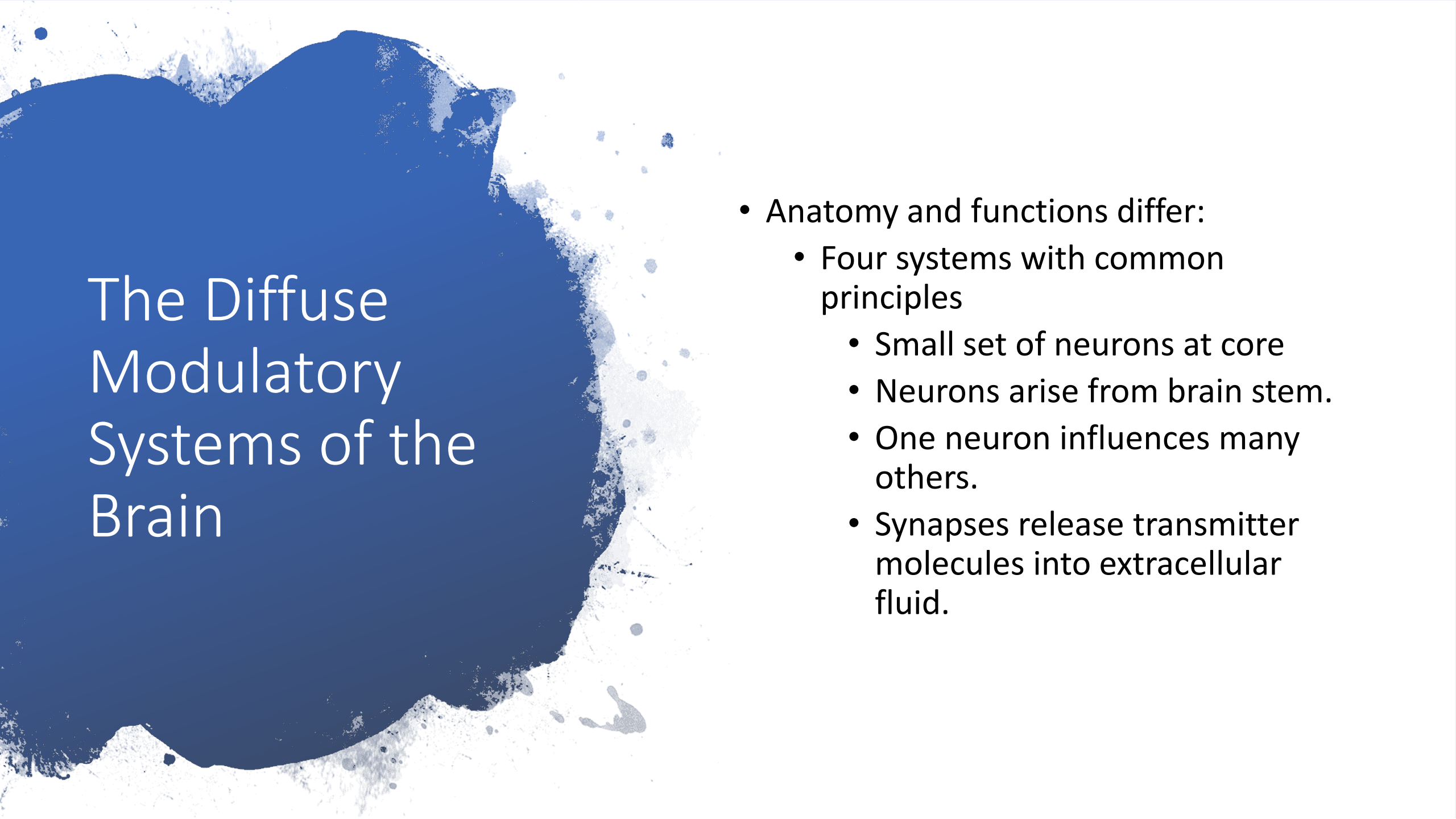
Model for Short-Term Regulation of Feeding

- Gastric: feeling full
 - Gastric distension signals brain via vagus nerve.
 - Works synergistically with CCK released in intestines in response to certain foods
 - Insulin also released by β cells of the pancreas— important in anabolism



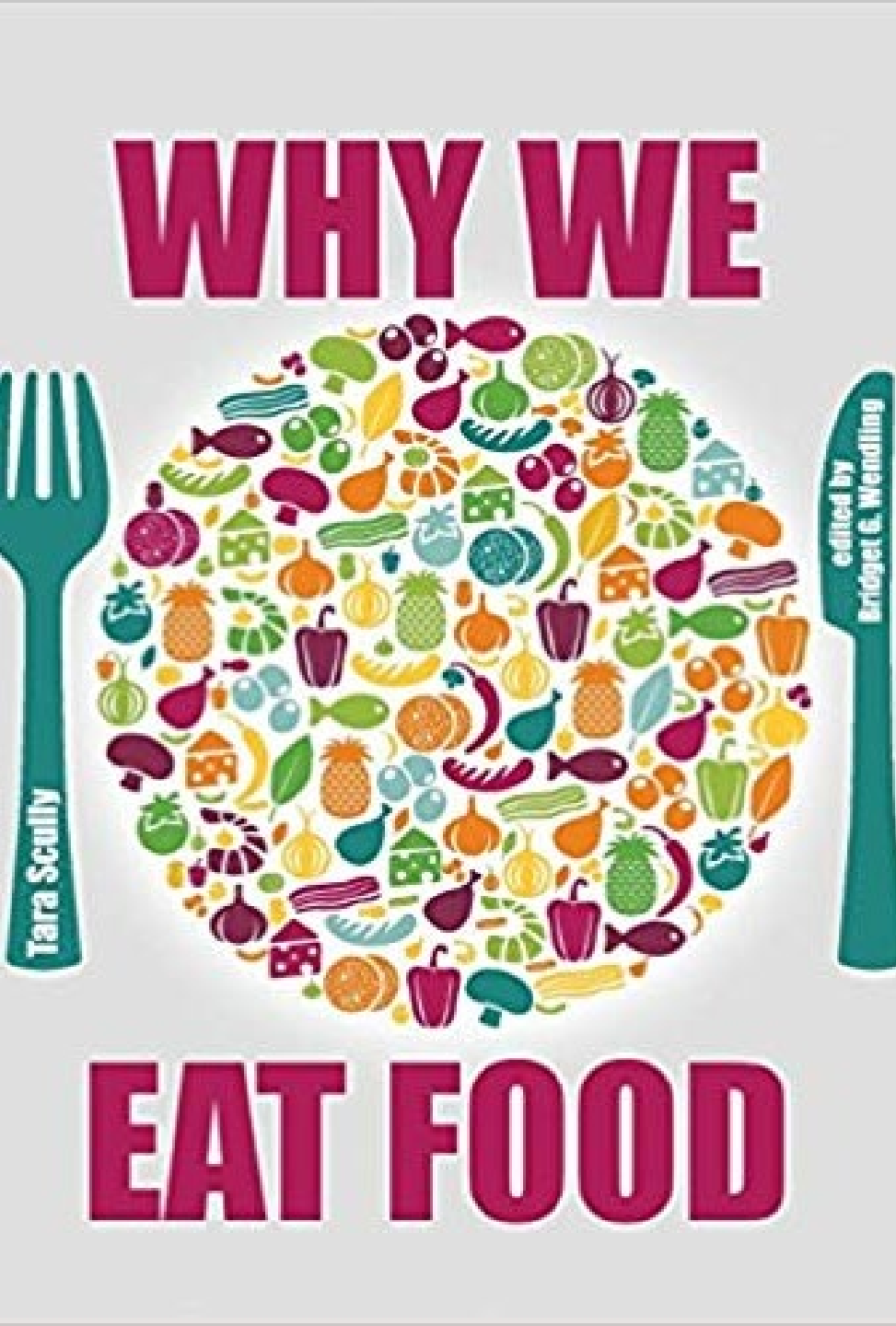
- Changes in blood insulin levels before, during, and after a meal
- Highest during substrate phase





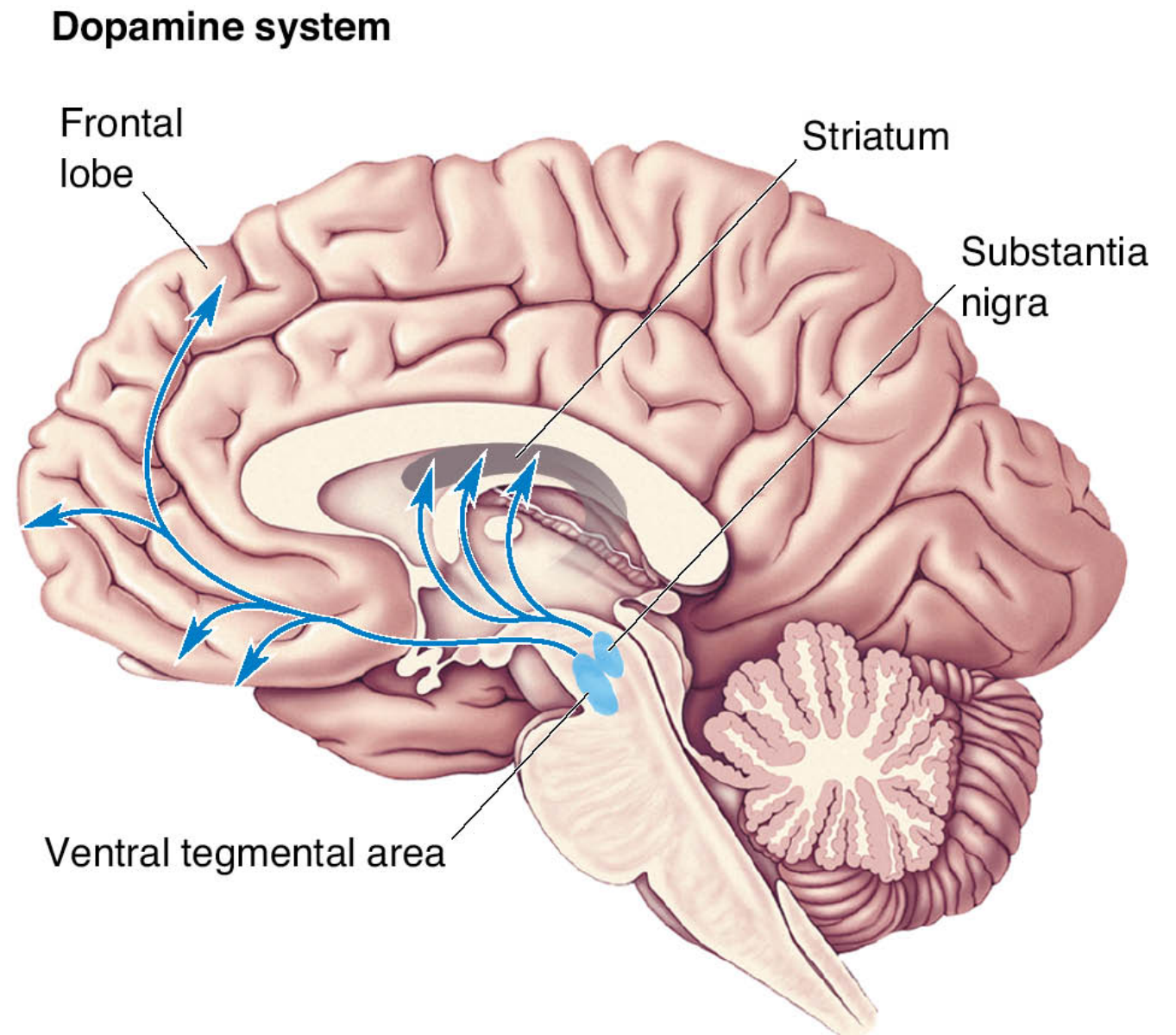
The Diffuse Modulatory Systems of the Brain

- Anatomy and functions differ:
 - Four systems with common principles
 - Small set of neurons at core
 - Neurons arise from brain stem.
 - One neuron influences many others.
 - Synapses release transmitter molecules into extracellular fluid.

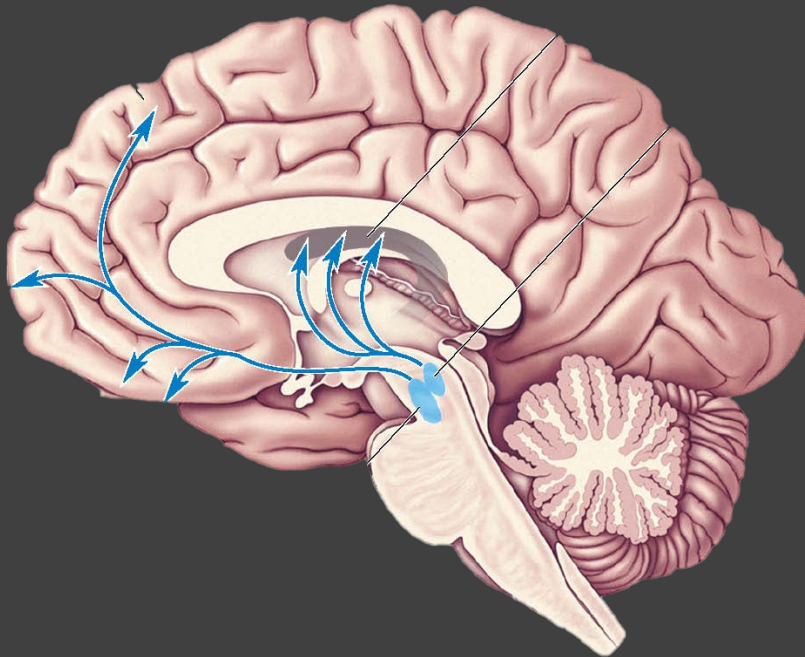


- Reinforcement and reward
 - Liking: hedonic
 - Wanting: drive reduction
- Electrical self-stimulation experiments—identify brain sites of reinforcement
- Effective sites for self-stimulation
 - Trajectory of dopaminergic axons in the ventral tegmental area projecting to the forebrain
- Drugs that block dopamine receptors: reduce self-stimulation

Dopaminergic Substantia Nigra and Ventral Tegmental Area



Dopaminergic system



Substantia nigra



Axons project to the striatum.

Facilitates the initiation of voluntary movements (degeneration causes Parkinson's disease)

Ventral tegmental area

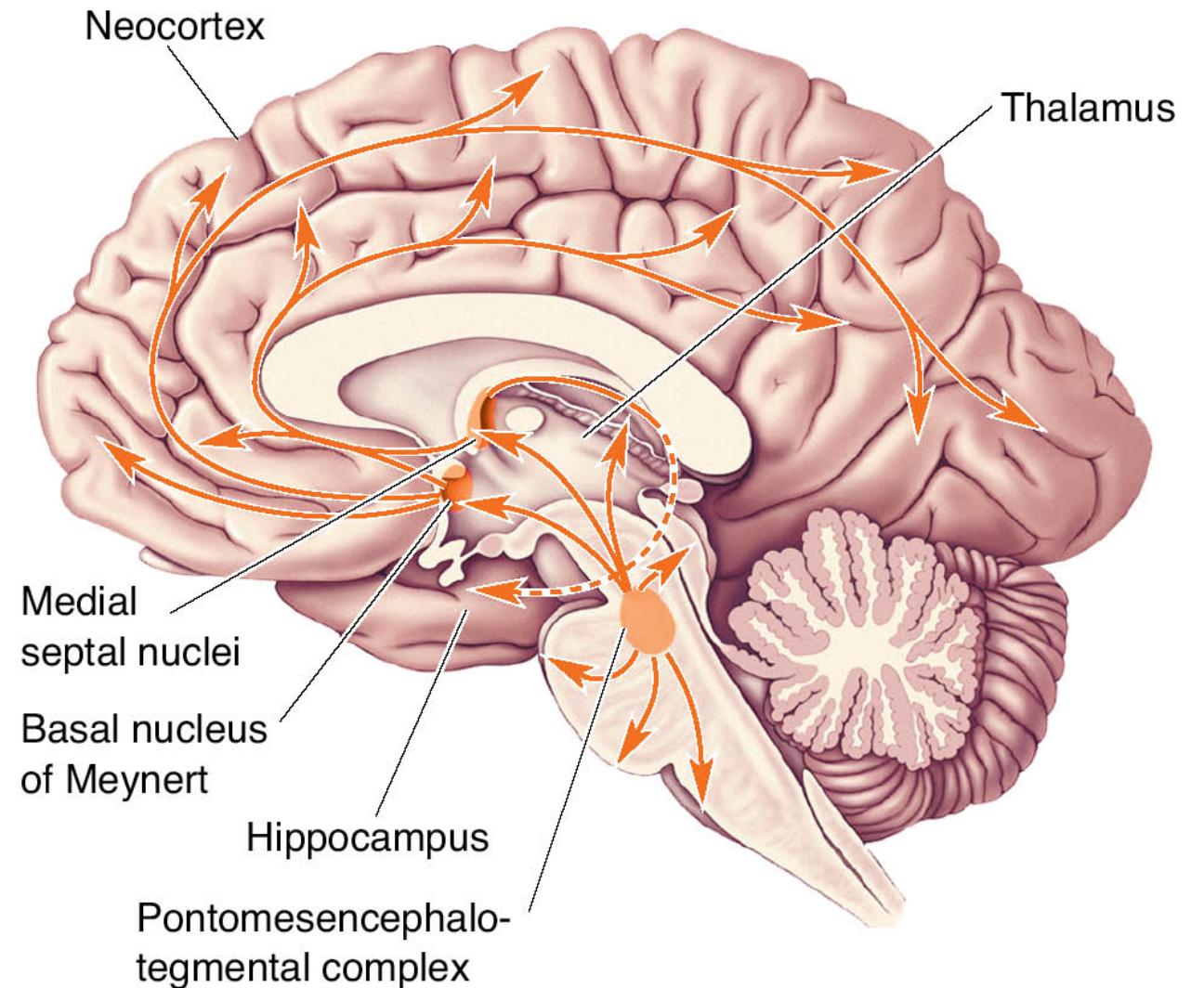


Innervates circumscribed region of telencephalon

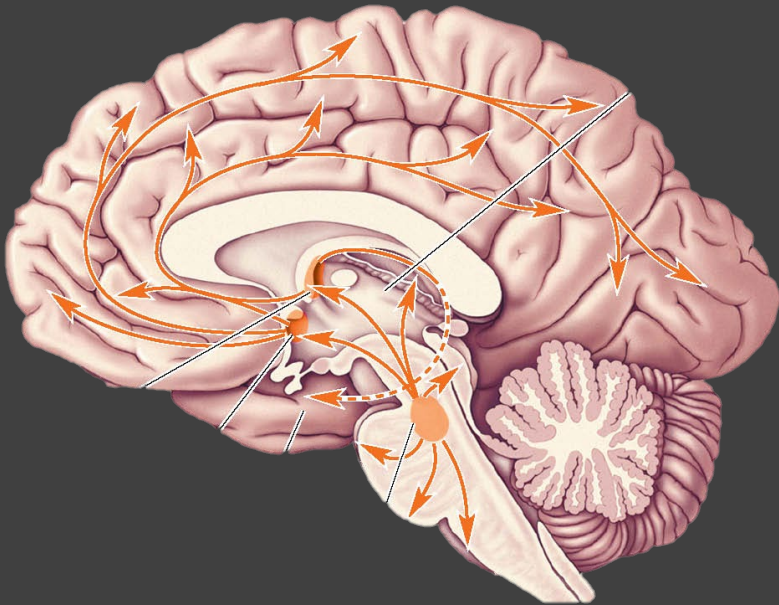
- Mesocorticolimbic dopamine system: dopaminergic projection from midbrain

The Cholinergic Diffuse Modulatory Systems

Acetylcholine system



Cholinergic System



Basal forebrain complex



Core of telencephalon, medial and ventral to basal ganglia

Function: mostly unknown, participates in learning and memory

Pontomesencephalotegmental complex

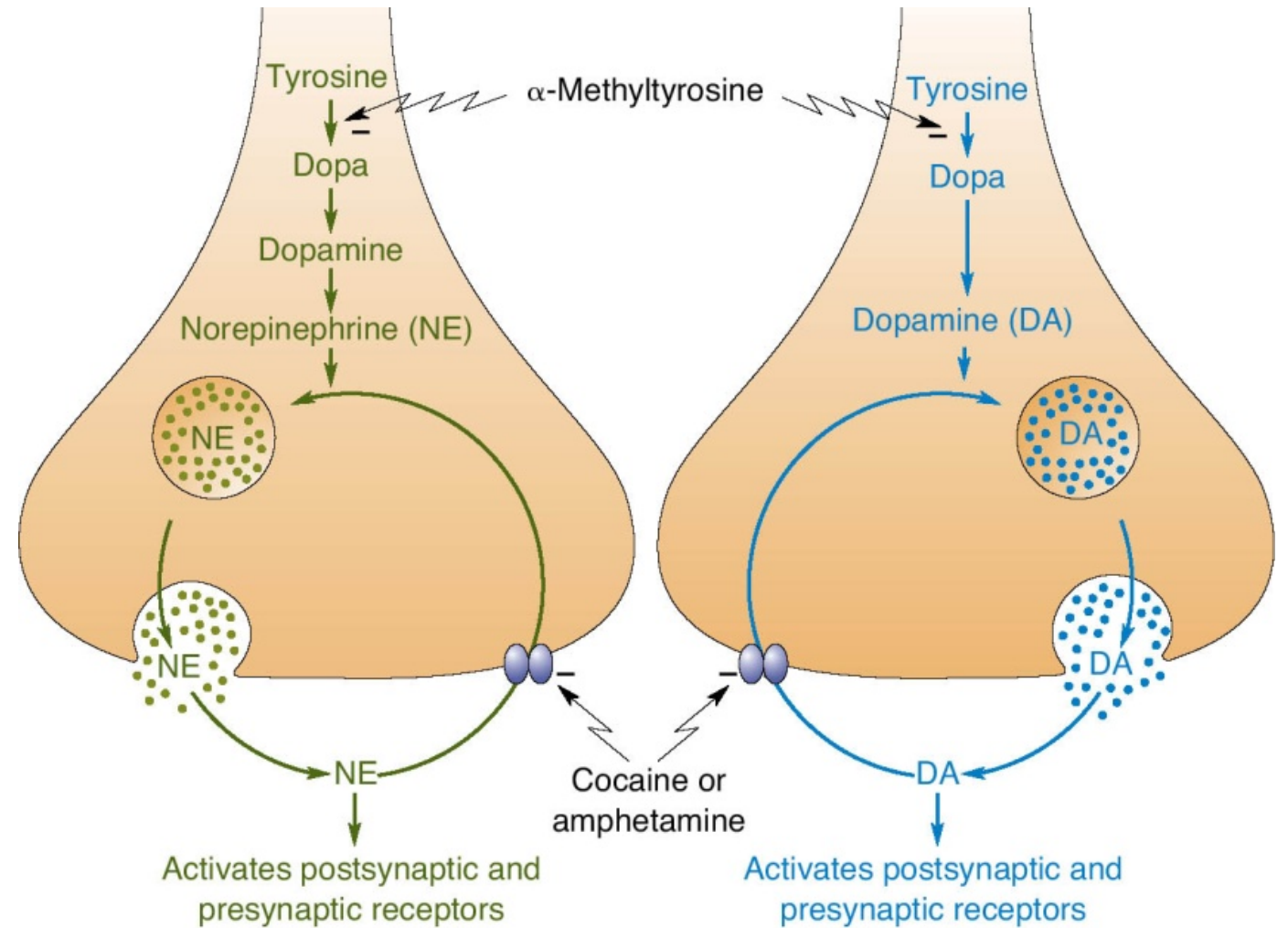


Utilizes ACh

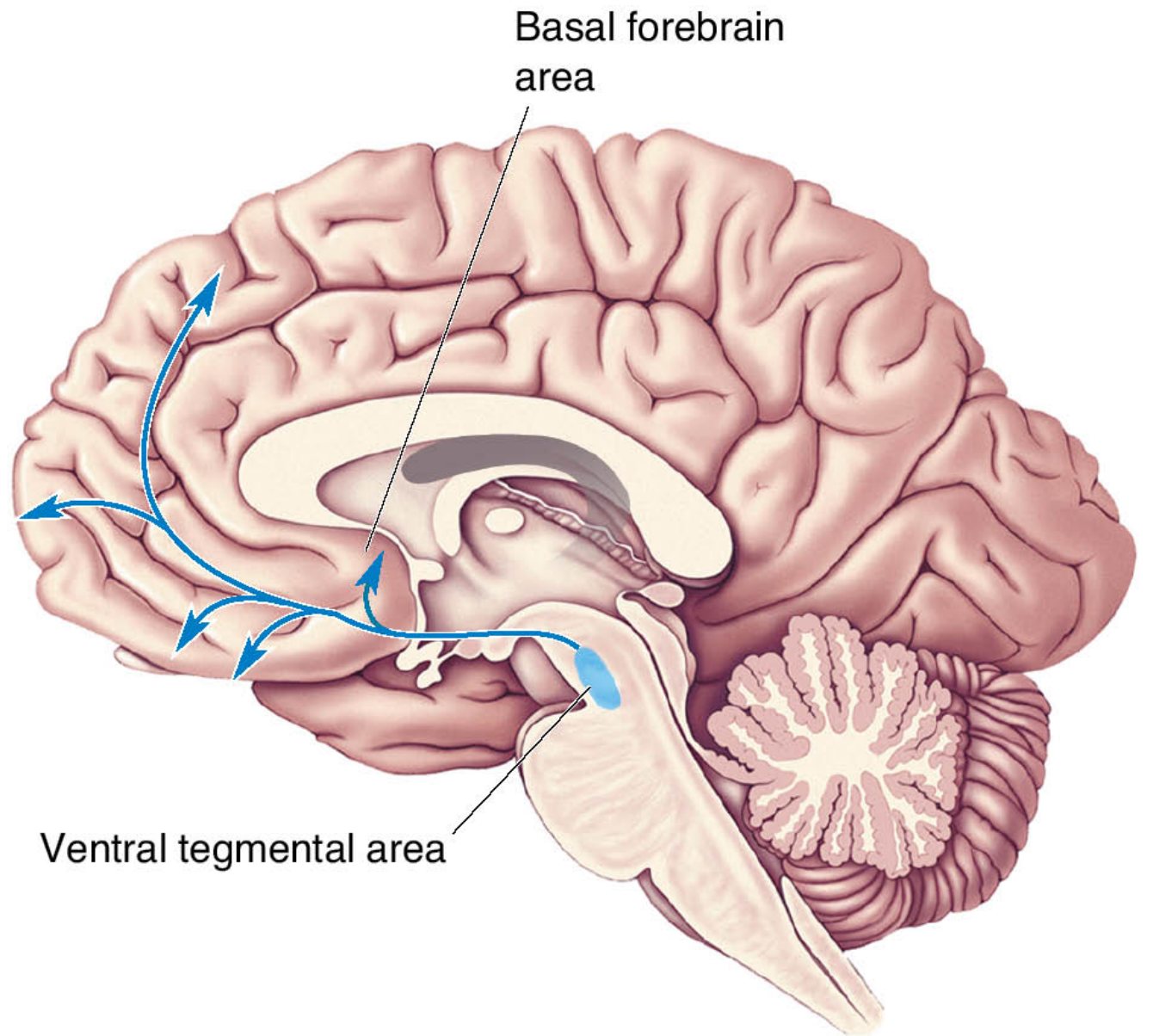
Function: regulates excitability of thalamic sensory relay nuclei

Stimulant Drug Action on Catecholamine Axon Terminal

- Stimulants: block catecholamine reuptake
 - Cocaine targets DA reuptake.
 - Amphetamine blocks NE and DA reuptake and stimulates DA release.
- Alpha-methyltyrosine will block the effects of cocaine or amphetamine



Mesocorticolimbic Dopamine System



The Role of Dopamine in Motivation



Former belief: dopamine projection served hedonic reward



New understanding

Dopamine-depleted animals “like” food but do not “want” food.

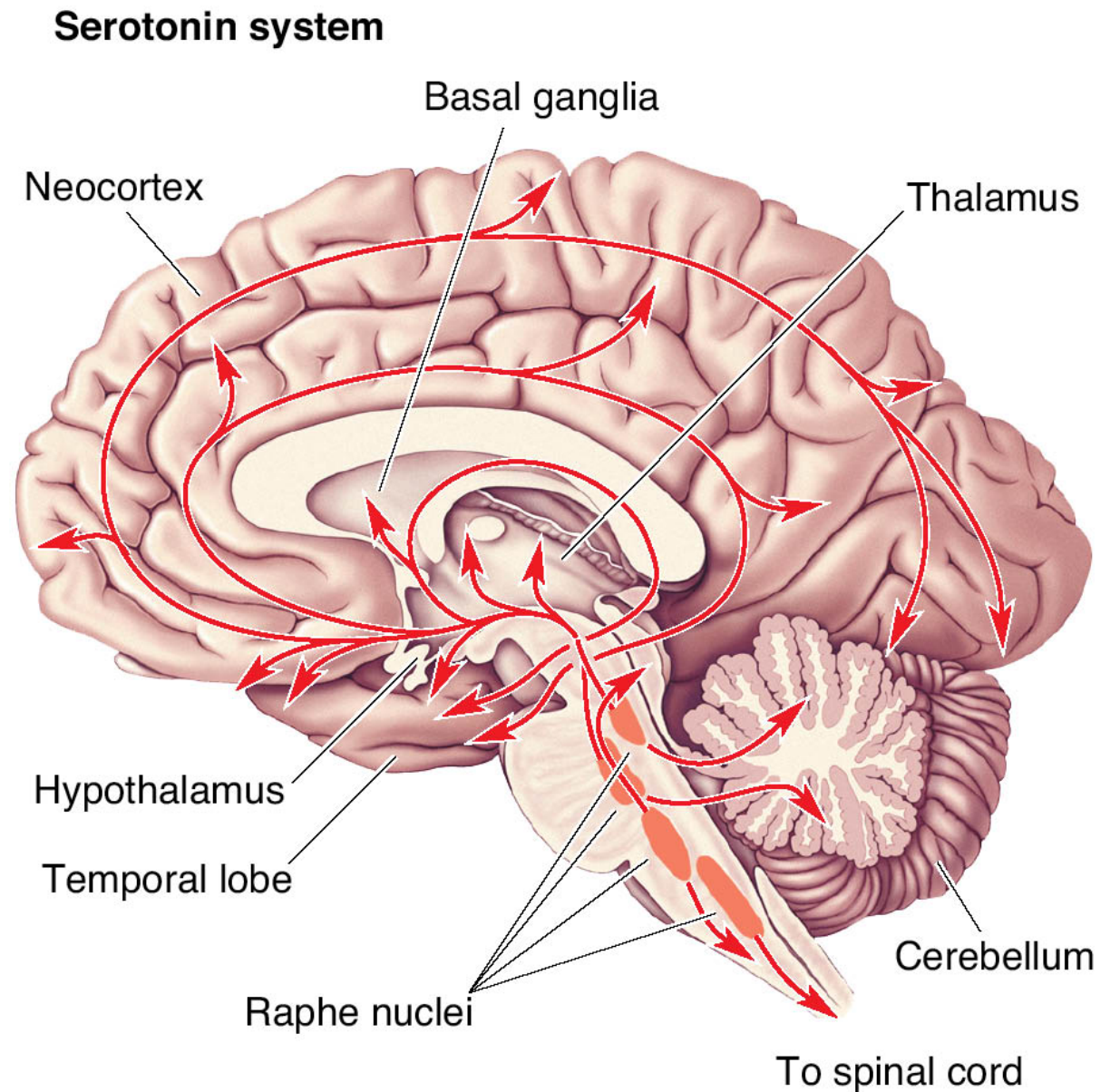
Lack motivation to seek food but enjoy it when available



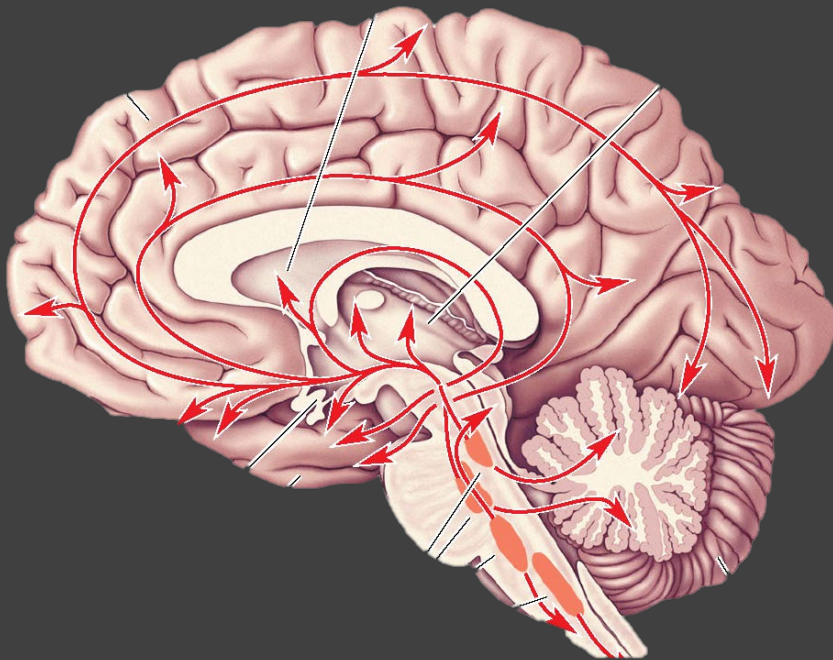
Stimulation of the dopamine axons

Produces craving for food without increasing the hedonic impact

The Serotonergic Raphe Nuclei



Serotonergic system



Raphe Nuclei



Path: innervate many of the same areas as noradrenergic system



Function: together with noradrenergic system, comprise the ascending reticular activating system

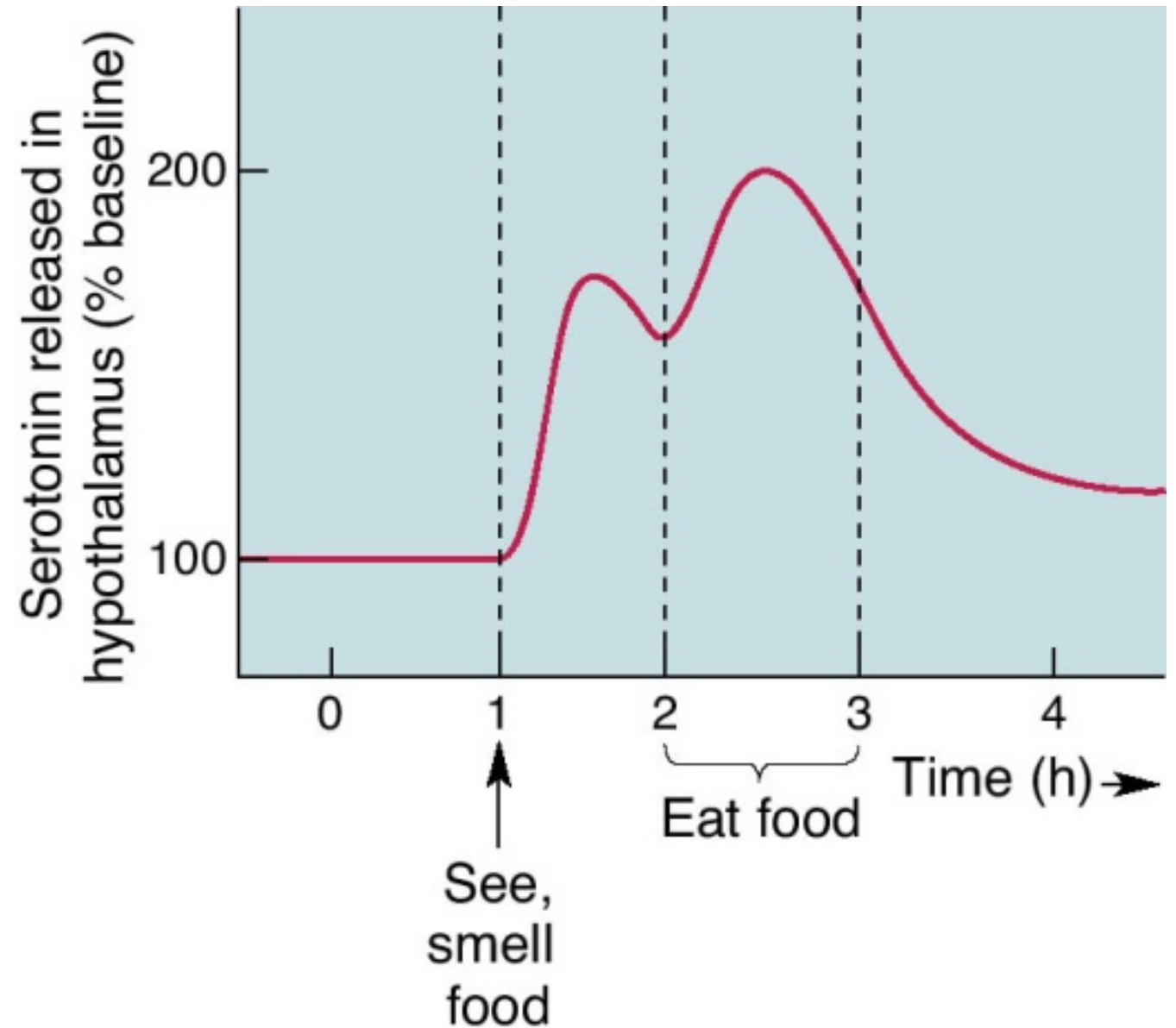
Particularly involved in sleep–wake cycles, mood
Other transmitters involved in coordination



Most active during wakefulness, when aroused and active

Changes in Hypothalamic Serotonin Levels Before and During a Meal

- Low in postabsorptive period
- Rise in anticipation of food
- Spike during meal
 - Mood elevation—rise in blood tryptophan and brain serotonin



- Serotonin, food, and mood
 - Drugs that elevate serotonin suppress appetite.
 - Example: dexfenfluramine (Redux)
- Disorders in serotonin regulation: anorexia nervosa, bulimia nervosa—both often accompanied by depression
- Treatment
 - Antidepressant drugs that elevate brain serotonin levels
 - Example: fluoxetine (Prozac)



Drugs and the Diffuse Modulatory Systems

Psychoactive drugs act on CNS.



Interfere with chemical
synaptic transmission

Many drugs of abuse act on modulatory systems.



LSD, *Psilocybe* mushrooms, and peyote
are close to the structure of serotonin.
Cocaine and amphetamine affect
dopaminergic and noradrenergic systems
- sympathomimetic

Concluding Remarks

Overview of motor systems

- The “how” questions of behavior
 - Example: How is movement initiated?

Overview of motivation systems

- The “why” questions of behavior
 - Example: Why do we drink when dehydrated?

Important discovery of neural basis for feeding behavior

- Allows us to frame new questions that will impact how we view our own behaviors