CONTENTS

LIST OF CONTRIBUTORS ix

FOREWORD TO THE PRINCETON SCIENCE LIBRARY EDITION xi
   Mackenzie W. Mathis

PREFACE
   Gary Marcus and Jeremy Freeman xvii

MAPPING THE BRAIN

Building Atlases of the Brain 3
   Mike Hawrylycz with Chinh Dang, Christof Koch, and Hongkui Zeng

Whole Brain Neuroimaging and Virtual Reality 17
   Misha B. Ahrens

Project MindScope 25
   Christof Koch with Clay Reid, Hongkui Zeng, Stefan Mihalas, Mike Hawrylycz, John Philips, Chinh Dang, and Allan Jones

The Connectome as a DNA Sequencing Problem 40
   Anthony Zador

Rosetta Brain 50
   George Church with Adam Marblestone and Reza Kalhor

COMPUTATION

Understanding the Cortex through Grid Cells 67
   May-Britt Moser and Edvard I. Moser

Recording from Many Neurons Simultaneously: From Measurement to Meaning 78
   Krishna V. Shenoy
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Network Neuroscience</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Olaf Sporns</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large-Scale Neuroscience: From Analytics to Insight</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeremy Freeman</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIMULATING THE BRAIN</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whole Brain Simulation</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sean Hill</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building a Behaving Brain</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chris Eliasmith</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LANGUAGE</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Neurobiology of Language</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>David Poeppel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translating the Genome in Human Neuroscience</td>
<td>149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simon E. Fisher</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Color plates follow p. 160</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SKEPTICS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consciousness, Big Science, and Conceptual Clarity</td>
<td>161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ned Block</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Circuits to Behavior: A Bridge Too Far?</td>
<td>177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matteo Carandini</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lessons from Evolution</td>
<td>186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leah Krubitzer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lessons from the Genome</td>
<td>194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arthur Caplan with Nathan Kunzler</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Computational Brain</td>
<td>205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gary Marcus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the jargon of neuroscience, to map the brain is to understand two things: all of the brain’s myriad connections (equivalent to drawing a map of all the roads and buildings in the United States) and all of the “traffic” (neural activity that occurs on those roads). “Connectomes” are like highway maps, “activity maps” record the traffic as the brain is engaged in behavior. Like Google Maps, we ultimately need many “layers” of information, telling us about landmarks (like the folds of the cortex), annotations about particular types of neurons (the brain likely has close to a thousand), and ultimately about the pathways of neurons that are involved in particular kinds of behaviors.

The essays in this part tell a story—from the current, cutting edge to the future—about technological advances that will allow us to map out as much of that territory as possible. Most complex organisms have hundreds of thousands, if not millions or billions, of neurons. For decades, neuroscientists have recorded from just a few at a time, inferring something about a complex system based on incomplete measurements. **Mike Hawrylycz** narrates the history of brain anatomy, from the earliest drawings of neural circuits by Ramón y Cajal to ongoing, cutting-edge efforts to obtain and annotate high-resolution anatomical maps of the entire human brain at cellular resolution. **Misha Ahrens** describes an approach called light-sheet microscopy for monitoring neural activity from the *entire* brain of a transparent organism, the zebrafish, and to do so during behavior in intact animals. **Christof Koch** describes a confluence of emerging methods—anatomical, physiological, and optical—that are making it possible to characterize neural activity across large swaths of the visual cortex of the mouse. Looking further into the future, **Anthony Zador** and **George Church** describe novel approaches to characterizing neural anatomy, specifically neural connectivity, that use genetic techniques to indirectly encode information about connectivity in sequences of DNA. **Church** discusses how these approaches might even be extended to record the firing of neurons over scales much larger than optical or electrophysiological methods currently allow.
The earliest known significant works on human anatomy were collected by the Greek physician Claudius Galen around 200 BCE. This ancient corpus remained the dominant viewpoint through the Middle Ages until the classic work *De humani corporis fabrica* (*On the Fabric of the Human Body*) by Andreas Vesalius of Padua (1514–1564), the first modern anatomist. Even today many of Vesalius’s drawings are astonishing to study and are largely accurate. For nearly two centuries scholars have recognized that the brain is compartmentalized into distinct regions, and this organization is preserved throughout mammals in general. However, comprehending the structural organization and function of the nervous system remains one of the primary challenges in neuroscience. To analyze and record their findings neuroanatomists develop atlases or maps of the brain similar to those cartographers produce.

The state of our understanding today of an integrated plan of brain function remains incomplete. Rather than indicating a lack of effort, this observation highlights the profound complexity and interconnectivity of all but the simplest neural structures. Laying the foundation of cellular neuroscience, Santiago Ramón y Cajal (1852–1934) drew and classified many types of neurons and speculated that the brain consists of an interconnected network of distinct neurons, as opposed to a more continuous web. While brain tissue is only semitranslucent, obscuring neuronal level resolution, a certain histological stain Franz Nissl (1860–1919) discovered, and known as the Nissl stain, can be used to stain negatively charged RNA in the cell nucleus in blue or other visible colors. The development of this stain allowed the German neuroanatomist
Korbinian Brodmann (1868–1918) to identify forty-three distinct regions of the human cerebral cortex based on cytoarchitectural organization using this Nissl stain. These pioneering works of Brodmann, Constantin von Economo, Marthe Vogt, and others mapped cyto- and myeloarchitectural landscape of the human cortex based on painstaking visual inspection and characterization of a few observable cellular properties such as cell shape, density, packing, and such.

Since Vesalius, most atlases of the brain have been drawn on paper, with the most recent versions in vivid color delineating hundreds of structures. Such atlases have been drawn for most of the important model organisms studied in the laboratory and provide key bench-side experimental references. As with most aspects of modern biology, however, technology has been a driving factor in improved understanding of brain organization. Neuroimaging techniques evolved over the last twenty years have now allowed neuroscientists to revisit the subject of brain mapping, with the modern brain atlas more akin to a digital database that can capture the spatiotemporal distribution of a multitude of physiological and anatomical data. Modern techniques such as magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), functional magnetic resonance imaging...
Building Atlases of the Brain

(fMRI), diffusion MRI, magnetoencephalography (MEG), electroencephalography (EEG), and positron emission tomography (PET) have provided dramatic improvements in brain imaging for research, clinical diagnosis, and surgery. Digital atlases based on these techniques are advantageous since they can be warped, mathematically or in silico, to fit each individual brain’s unique anatomy.

The origin of modern brain mapping for clinical use lies with the seminal work of Jean Talairach, who in 1967 developed a 3D coordinate space to assist deep brain surgical methods. This atlas was generated from two series of sections from a single sixty-year-old female brain, and was later updated by Talairach and P. Tournoux in a printed atlas design for guiding surgery. Today biomedical imaging forms a crucial part of diagnosis and presurgical planning, and much time and resources are invested in the search of imaging biomarkers for diseases. Atlases have been used in image-guided neurosurgery to help plan “stereotaxic,” that is, coordinate referenced, neurosurgical procedures. Using this data, surgeons are able to interpret patient-specific image volumes for anatomical, functional, and vascular relevance as well as their relationships.

The field of digital atlasing is extensive and includes high-quality brain atlases of the mouse, rat, rhesus macaque, human, and other model organisms. In addition to atlases based on histology, magnetic resonance imaging, and positron emission tomography, modern digital atlases use gene expression, connectivity, and probabilistic and multimodal techniques, as well as sophisticated visualization software. More recently, with the work of Alan Evans at the Montreal Neurological Institute and colleagues, averaged standards were created such as the Colin27, a multiple scan of a single young man, as well as the highly accessed MNI152 standard. While inherently preserving the 3D geometry of the brain, imaging modalities such as MRI, CT, and PET do not usually allow for detailed analysis of certain structures in the brain because of limitations in spatial resolution. For this reason it is common to use very high-resolution 2D imaging of in vitro tissue sections and employ mathematically sophisticated reconstruction algorithms to place these sections back into the 3D context of the brain.

Today digital brain atlases are used in neuroscience to characterize the spatial organization of neuronal structures, for planning and guidance during neurosurgery, and as a reference for interpreting other data.
modalities such as gene expression or proteomic data. One ultimate aim of neuroscientific inquiry is to gain an understanding of the brain and how its workings relate to activities from behavior to consciousness. Toward this end, brain atlases form a common coordinate framework for summarizing, accessing, and organizing this knowledge and will undoubtedly remain a critical-path technology in the future.

The Genetic Brain

The development of the techniques of modern molecular biology and eventually whole genome sequencing opened the door for understanding the genetics of the brain, and new perspectives on the study of brain anatomy are emerging with the availability of large-scale spatial gene expression data. The brain consists of at least several hundred distinct cell types whose complete classification is still at present elusive. Each cell type is related to its function with its gene expression pattern, for example, on/off, high/low, as a key determinant. Gene expression data can be collected through a variety of techniques, and exploration of these
data promises to deliver new insights into the understanding of relations between genes and brain structure.

Early gene expression studies used methods such as northern blots, which combine electrophoresis separation of RNA molecules followed by hybridizing probes for detection. At one time this method was the gold standard for confirming gene expression, but it ultimately gave way to more quantitative methods. The microarray revolution dramatically increased our ability to profile genes by hybridizing many gene probes on a single gene chip. Today rapid digital sequencing technology can count individual RNA fragments that can subsequently be mapped back to the genome once it is known for an organism.

In 2001, Paul Allen, cofounder of Microsoft, assembled a group of scientists, including James Watson of Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory and Steven Pinker, then at MIT, to discuss the future of neuroscience and what could be done to accelerate neuroscience research. During these meetings the idea emerged that a complete 3D atlas of gene expression in the mouse brain would be of great use to the neuroscience community. The mouse was chosen due to the wealth of existing genetic studies and for practical reasons. Of the potential possible techniques, the project chose a technique for mapping gene expression called *in situ* hybridization (ISH) (automated by Gregor Eichele of the Max Planck Institute and colleagues), which uses probes that bind to mRNA within sectioned but intact brain tissue and thereby preserves spatial context (see color plate 1).

In 2006, an interdisciplinary scientific team at the Allen Institute for Brain Science, funded by Paul Allen and led by Allan Jones, delivered the first atlas of gene expression in a complete mammalian brain, publically available online at www.brain-map.org. Since then, the Allen Institute has expanded its projects to provide online public resources that integrate extensive gene expression, connectivity data, and neuroanatomical information with powerful search and viewing tools for the adult and developing brain in mouse, human, and nonhuman primate (see figure 3 for an example). In addition to the data there are colorimetric and fluorescent ISH image viewers, graphical displays of ISH, microarray and RNA sequencing data, and an interactive reference atlas viewer (“Brain Explorer”) that enables 3D navigation of anatomy and
gene expression across these datasets. (Approximately fifty thousand users worldwide access the Allen Brain Atlas resources each month.) Scientists have mined the atlases to search for marker genes in various brain regions associated with diseases, to identify different cell type markers, to delineate brain regions, and to compare gene expression data across species. Extending this work to humans, the Allen Human Brain Atlas was made public in May 2010 and is the first anatomically comprehensive and genome-wide, three-dimensional map of the human brain. This transcriptional atlas of six adult human brains contains extensive histological analysis and comprehensive microarray profiling of several hundred precise brain subdivisions and has revealed that gene expression varies enormously by anatomical location, with different regions and their constituent cell types displaying robust molecular signatures that are highly conserved between individuals.

Figure 3. Genes whose expression pattern is highly correlated with Prox1 (upper left) in dentate gyrus of the hippocampus. These genes were found by starting with the image for gene Prox1 and searching for patterns whose spatial pattern of gene expression strongly resembled Prox1. Combinations of expression patterns such as these may help to refine our present understanding of the function of the hippocampus.
In particular, these data show that 84 percent of all genes are expressed somewhere in the human brain and in patterns that while complex are substantially similar from one brain to the next. The analysis of differential gene expression and gene coexpression relationships demonstrates that brain-wide variation strongly reflects the distributions of the major cell types such as neurons, oligodendrocytes, astrocytes, and microglia, all of which are essential to brain function. Interestingly, the neocortex displays a relatively homogeneous transcriptional pattern but with distinct features associated selectively with primary sensorimotor cortices and with enriched frontal lobe expression. Interestingly, the spatial topography of the neocortex is strongly reflected in its molecular topography, that is, the closer two cortical regions are, the more similar their gene expression patterns remain.

Several other significant efforts toward understanding the genetic basis of brain organization are underway, including the Edinburgh Mouse Atlas Project (EMAP) (www.emouseatlas.org), which contains substantial spatial and temporal data for mouse embryonic development, and the Rockefeller University–based GENSAT project of Nathaniel Heintz and colleagues that seeks to characterize gene expression patterns using Bacterial Artificial Chromosomes (BAC) in genetically modified mice (www.gensat.org), as well as BGEM (www.stjudebgem.org), GenePaint (www.genepaint.org), EurExpress (www.eurexpress.org), and MGI (http://www.informatics.jax.org), all generally user friendly with useful tutorials.

A Standard Brain?

Does a standard or normal brain exist? This is less likely for humans than genetically bred mice, but mapping neuroscientific and clinical data onto a common frame of reference allows scientists and physicians to compare results between individuals. One main reason for standardization is that multiple and diverse brains can be transformed into a standard framework that maximizes our ability to understand their similar features. Another is that it allows us to identify how unique or unusual features in a particular brain may differ from an average population. With modern advanced image processing capabilities, digital
atlases can serve as the framework for building standard atlases and for surveying the information linked to it. In contrast to basic data repositories, which allow for simple access to data through a single interface, sophisticated digital atlases backed by appropriate technology can act as hubs facilitating access to multiple databases, information sources, and related documents and annotations. These may act as a scaffold from which to share, visualize, analyze, and mine data of multiple modalities, scales, and dimensions.

Many of these ideas of standardization grew out of a major initiative of the National Institutes of Health in the 1990s called the “Decade of the Brain,” where a number of digital and electronic resources were created to enable the unification and integration of the various subfields of neuroscience. One outcome of this work is the field of neuroinformatics, or the application of computer- and mathematical-based technologies to organize and understand brain data. The ultimate goal of neuroinformatics is to bring together brain architecture, gene expression, and 2D and 3D imaging information into common frames of reference. Major organizations have evolved around mapping brain data, such as the International Consortium for Human Brain Mapping (www.loni.ucla.edu/ICBM/About) and the International Neuroinformatics Coordinating Facility (INCF, www.incf.org). These efforts have led to atlases such as the standard Talairach Atlas and the Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI) standard that have been extensively used in neuroscience.

One consideration in standardizing brain atlases is the type of coordinate system used. As Alan Evans of the Montreal Neurological Institute remarks, “The core concept within the field of brain mapping is the use of a standardized or ‘stereotaxic’ 3D coordinate framework for data analysis and reporting of findings from neuroimaging experiments. This simple construct allows brain researchers to combine data from many subjects such that group-averaged signals, be they structural or functional, can be detected above the background noise.” The concept of a coordinate system is fundamental to digital atlases and requires two basic components: the specification of an origin in the stereotaxic space and a mapping function that transforms each 3D brain from its native coordinates to that of the atlas. A major step in addressing these issues, and a standard tool set that allows different types of neuroscience data to be combined and compared, is now in development for one of
the most important subjects in experimental neuroscience: the mouse, *Mus musculus*. This project is an international collaboration in digital atlasing and is sponsored in part by the International Neuroinformatics Coordinating Facility (INCF).

**The Connected Brain**

Much recent evidence indicates that the vast interconnected network of the human brain is responsible for our advanced cognitive capabilities, rather than a simple expansion of specialized regions of the brain such as the prefrontal cortex. This may apply in particular to diseases associated with potentially aberrant wiring such as schizophrenia, autism, and dyslexia. The importance of circuit considerations for differentially characterizing disorders such as major depression, anxiety, and obsessive-compulsive disorder, and substance abuses including nicotine addiction, is now being widely recognized.

It is now understood that neuropsychiatric disorders likely result from pathologies at the system level, with both complex genetic and environmental factors impacting neural circuitry. As Jason Bohland and colleagues point out in a recent 2009 proposal for a “mesoscale,” that is, medium scale, connectome in *PLOS Computational Biology*: “For those [diseases] with heritable susceptibility effects, genetic polymorphism and cellular processes play a greater role, but anatomical circuits remain critical to understanding symptoms and developing therapies.” In Parkinson's disease, for example, drug- and stimulation-based therapeutic interventions do not occur at a particular cellular lesion site, but rather are contingent on understanding interactions within the extrapyramidal motor system of neurons.

The first unified approach to defining connectional atlases of the brain was proposed by Olaf Sporns (Indiana University) and Patrick Hagmann (Lausanne). In 2005 they independently suggested the term “connectome” to refer to a complete map of the neural connections within the brain. This term was directly inspired by the concurrently ongoing effort to sequence the human genetic code, and since then the field of *connectomics* (see chapters by Sporns and Zador, this volume) has been concerned with assembling and analyzing connectome datasets. (The
term *connectome* was most recently popularized in Sebastian Seung’s book *Connectome*, which discusses the high-level goals of mapping the human connectome, as well as ongoing efforts to build a 3D neural map of brain tissue at the microscale.)

The first complete neural circuit in any organism was found in the common worm *Caenorhabditis elegans*, and research into its molecular and developmental biology was begun in 1974 by Nobel laureate Sydney Brenner. *C. elegans* has since been used extensively as a model organism in biology. Using high-resolution electron microscopy and manual annotation of hundreds of images, the circuit-mapping project was a major tour de force of neuroanatomy, resulting in a 341-page publication by the Royal Society in 1986 by John White and Brenner titled “The Structure of the Nervous System of the Nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans*.” Other landmark studies include a study of the areas and connections of the visual cortex of the macaque published by Daniel Felleman and David Van Essen in 1991 and of the thalamo-cortical system in the feline brain by J. W. Scannel and colleagues in 1999. Since then several neuroinformatics databases of connectivity have emerged, such as the online macaque cortex connectivity tool CoCoMac (www.cocomac.org) and the Brain Architecture Management System (BAMS, http://brancusi.usc.edu).

Several years ago, supported both by public and private funding, a series of independent projects were launched to map the connectome of the laboratory mouse at the mesoscale. Among these projects the Allen Institute embarked on a large-scale effort to develop a regional and cell type specific three-dimensional connectivity map. This Allen Mouse Brain Connectivity Atlas uses a combination of normal and genetically modified mice together with genetic tracing approaches and a high-throughput serial 2-photon tomography system to image the labeled axons throughout the entire brain. High-resolution coronal images are sampled every 100 μm (0.1 mm), resulting in a large 750-GB dataset per brain. At the end of 2013, approximately 1,500 terabytes of data (or 1.5 petabytes) will have been generated, all mapped onto a common 3D reference space of high spatial fidelity that allows for identification of the neural circuitry that governs behavior and brain function.

Mapping the connectome of the human brain is one of the great scientific challenges of the twenty-first century. The Human Connectome
Building Atlases of the Brain

Project (HCP, http://www.humanconnectome.org) is tackling a key aspect of this challenge by elucidating some of the main neural pathways that underlie brain function and behavior. Due to the immense complexity and comparatively large size of the human brain, the HCP (see chapter by Sporns, this volume) is taking a more macro approach to mapping large-scale circuitry, comprehensively mapping human brain circuitry in a target number of 1,200 healthy adults using a combination of noninvasive neuroimaging techniques such as MRI, EEG, and fMRI.

Accurate parcellation of fMRI imaging activity into component areas of the brain is an important consideration in deciphering its connectivity, and it takes us back to our original discussion of anatomy. Modern imaging techniques have enabled parcellation of localized areas of cortex and have been accomplished by using diffusion tractography and functional imaging to measure connectivity patterns and define cortical areas based on these different connectivity patterns. Such analyses may best be done on a whole brain scale and by integrating types of noninvasive imaging. It is hoped that more accurate whole brain parcellation may lead to more accurate macroscale connectomes for the normal brain, which can then be compared to disease states. The HCP images and their parcellations are being made available to the public through a public interface called the ConnectomeDB at http://www.humanconnectome.org, mentioned above.

The current noninvasive imaging techniques cannot capture the brain’s activity at a neuronal level, and mapping the connectome at a cellular level in vertebrates currently requires postmortem microscopic analysis of limited portions of brain tissue. The challenge of doing this on a grand scale is quite major, as the number of neurons comprising the brain easily ranges into the billions in more highly evolved organisms, with the human cerebral cortex alone contains at least $10^{10}$ neurons and linked by $10^{14}$ synaptic connections. A few of the main challenges of building a microscale mammalian connectome today include: the data collection would take years given current technology; annotation tools are insufficient to fully delineate and extract information at a neuronal scale; and, not least, the algorithms necessary to map relevant connections and build the connectivity graphs are not yet fully developed. To address these machine-vision and image-processing issues, the Open
Connectome Project (openconnectome.org) is a crowd-sourcing initiative to meet this challenge. Finally, statistical graph theory is an emerging discipline that is developing sophisticated pattern recognition and inference tools to parse these brain graphs.

The Future Brain

Development of large-scale brain atlases is now a major undertaking in neuroscience. While it may not be possible to systematically map each of the one hundred billion neurons any time soon in any given individual brain, modern mapping techniques are providing atlases of remarkable resolution and functionality.

Several recent advances in neuroimaging support the possibility of deep and large-scale mapping, and this goal may be less audacious than seems at first. For example, using a combinatorial color labeling method, Brainbow, which is based on the random expression of several types of fluorescent proteins, Josh Sanes and Jeff Lichtman at Harvard are able to mark individual neurons with one of over one hundred distinct colors. The labeling of individual neurons with a distinguishable hue then allows the tracing and reconstruction of their cellular structure, including long processes within a block of tissue. Labeling techniques such as these allow for classification and visualization of microscopic neurons. Another approach aimed at classifying diversity in the synaptic code, called array tomography, has been developed by Stephen Smith at Stanford, and can also achieve combinatorial labeling of synaptic connections using electron microscopy.

Recently, in a processing tour de force, nearly 7,500 sections of an individual human brain were sliced and scanned and mapped onto a 3D reconstructed brain at 20-micron isotropic resolution, that is, in all three spatial dimensions. This project is the culmination of years of work from the Katrin Amunts and Karl Zilles laboratory at Jülich, Germany, with semiautomated informatics reconstruction by Evans in Montreal. The atlas called BigBrain is a thin-sliced histology project that offers nearly cellular resolution, that is, detail close to the level of the cell. Because of the nearly continuously collected sections and the 3D
image reconstruction, BigBrain is a dataset 125,000 times bigger than a typical MRI! Atlases based on MRIs do not allow for the visualization of information at the level of cortical cells and layers, although this atlas will allow that. However, to make BigBrain into a full-fledged atlas it will need to be annotated, that is, it will need to provide the anatomic structural delineations that outline the fine structure of the brain.

The BigBrain effort indicates that high-resolution 3D microscopy is still not at a level of resolution to map the finest structures in the brain. However, advances are being made in 3D imaging as well. In 2013, in a highly publicized article in *Nature*, a method was developed to subject the brain to a three-dimensional network of hydrophilic polymers and then to remove the lipids from the brain by electrophoresis. The brain remains fully intact but optically transparent and macromolecule permeable. Using mouse brains, the authors show intact-tissue imaging of long-range projections, local circuit wiring, cellular relationships, and subcellular structures. This method, called “CLARITY,” uses intact-tissue in situ hybridization and immunohistochemistry with multiple rounds of staining and de-staining in nonsectioned tissue to visualize gene expression or protein binding. The method is still being refined but may be useful for human postmortem imaging as well.

Alternative computational processing techniques will also be necessary to deal with the massive data these new atlases generate. In 2012, a Citizen Science project called EyeWire, launched by Sebastian Seung of MIT, began attempting to crowd source the mapping of the connectome through an interactive game in which contributors try to map the retinal connectome (Zador’s chapter herein outlines another possible approach to this problem).

Large-scale atlases of the brain are providing content to the neuroscience community through molecular, cellular, functional, and connectomic data. The transition from print to digital atlases has been revolutionary, as it has allowed navigation, 3D reconstruction, and visualization from the smallest nuclei to macroscale regions. Digital atlases have also transformed clinical neuroscience, and all stages from pre- to postoperation of surgery in some way use digital atlases. It is likely that in the near future we will have annotated 3D microscale atlases of the structure of the human brain. In several years it should be
possible to achieve near complete axon and synaptic connectivity in a substantial segment of the human cortex, thereby elucidating the detailed complexity of its cortical circuitry. Atlases will continue to be more integrated into scientific and clinical workflows, thus aiding in discovery science and providing novel ways of diagnosing, monitoring, and treating disease.
INDEX

action potentials, 182, 231f, 244
Ahrens, Misha B., 17–24, 106
algorithms, 42; connectivity, 119; reverse engineering, 135–36
Allen, Jody, 39
Allen, Paul, 7, 28, 39, 113
Allen Brain Atlas, 8
Allen Institute for Brain Science, 7, 33, 113, 115, 120, 124, 262
Allen Mouse and Human Brain Atlases, 27
Allen Mouse Brain Connectivity Atlas, 12, 29, 33, 35f
Allen Reference Atlas, 29, 34
Aniston, Jennifer, 211
Apache Spark: open-source project, 103–4; Spark Streaming, 104
APIs (application programming interfaces), 104
Aplysia (sea slug), 259
artificial intelligence, 40, 41, 134, 258, 269
artificial neural networks, 97
astronomy, 95
autism, 11, 48, 194, 219, 235–37, 241, 256
automated data processing, 34
Bacterial Artificial Chromosomes (BAC), 9
bag-of-tricks hypothesis: algorithms, 42–43
bar-codes: DNA, 46–48, 59; neurons, 53
Bargmann, Cornelia, 182, 265
Bayesian methods, 37
BGEM, 9
BigBrain, 14–15
Big Science, 175, 258–63
binding computation: syntactic theory, 144
binocular rivalry, 174
bioinformaticians, 262
biological intelligence, 42, 44
*Biophysics of Computation* (Koch), 181
bioterrorism, 256
Birthday Problem, 56
Block, Ned, 159, 161–75
Blue Brain Project, 117, 118, 119, 120, 126, 183
Bohland, Jason, 11
BOINC (Barcoding Of Individual Neuronal Connections), 46–49
*The Book of GENESIS*, 183
border cell, 75
bottom-up modeling, 85f, 112–13, 267
brain: activity of, 17–18, 210; building a physical, 135–36; building virtual, 97–99; comparison to computer systems, 84–88, 85f, 177–79, 209–10; complexity of, 261–62; connected, 11–14; dataset of, 52–53; death, 203–4; funding for map of, 199–200; future, 14–16, 22–24, 210–11; genetic, 6–14; humans and mice, 26–27; imaging consciousness, 172–73; injury, 163–64; mapping,
brain (cont’d)
51–52, 159, 194, 197–99; measuring activity from large numbers of neurons, 78–79, 82; multilevel complexity of, 50–51; neocortex, 25–26, 211–12, 214; patenting information, 198; practical value of map, 201–2; reverse engineering, 125–26; standard or normal, 9–11; studying organization of, 190–91. See also brain models; simulation; whole-brain neuroimaging; whole-brain simulation

Brain Architecture Management System (BAMS), 12
brain atlases: history of, 3–6; next generation, 115–17
brainbot, 266, 267
Brainbow, 14
brain computer interfaces (BCIs), 228–30
BrainGate, 229
BRAIN initiative (Brain Research Through Advancing Innovative Neurotechnologies), 177, 182, 194–95
brain-machine interface (BMI) technology, 243; control and dexterity of prosthetic devices, 243–244; subsystems of intracortical BMI system, 244
brain models: bottom-up modeling, 85f; 112–13, 267; building virtual brains, 97–99; comprehensive brain mapping and modeling, 51–52; integrating data and theory, 35–38; top-down modeling, 85f, 112, 162, 171f; unifying, 120–21; whole brain simulation, 111
Brain Simulation Platform, 118–19
Brenner, Sydney, 12
Broca, Paul, 139, 257
Broca’s area, 139, 140, 147
Brodmann, Korbinian, 4, 6f
Brun, Vegard, 70
Bullock, Ted, 187
Burge, Tyler, 170, 171f
Caenorhabditis elegans, 12, 43, 45, 182, 261, 265
calcium imaging experiment, 100–101, 103, 106; larval zebrafish, 106, 107
cancer, 234, 256, 266
canonical neural computations: discovery and characterization, 181–82; divisive normalization, 180; filtering, 180; sensory systems, 179–80
Capp, Arthur, 159, 194–204
Carandini, Matteo, 159, 177–84
Carmena, Jose M., 243
Celera Genomics, 196
cell types: diversity of, 112; in situ sequencing to determine, 59; mapping out, and connectivity, 28–31
Center for Neural Circuits and Behavior, 177
central processing unit (CPU): comparison to brain, 84–88, 85f; Graphics Processing Units (GPUs) and CPUs, 208–10
Centre for Neural Circuits and Behaviour, 177
Centre Hospitalier Universitaire Vaudois (CHUV), 122
cetaceans: neocortex, 186
Chalmers, David, 162
Champagne, Frances, 189
Changeux, Jean-Pierre, 165
channelrhodopsin, 24, 32
chemical dyes, 256
chicken and egg problem, 51
children: language and learning, 150
Chomsky, Noam, 212
Church, George, 45, 50–63
Churchill, Winston, 263
Church–Turing thesis, 257
circuits, 11, 245; architectures, 43; neurons, 92 circularity, 170
CLARITY, 15
Chomsky, Noam, 212
Church, George, 45, 50–63
Churchill, Winston, 263
Church–Turing thesis, 257
circuits, 11, 245; architectures, 43; neurons, 92 circularity, 170
CLARITY, 15
Colbert Report, 92
Cold War, 255
colon cancer, 234
complementary metal oxide semiconductor technology (CMOS), 246, 250–51. See also neural dust complexity brake, 36
computation: brain as organ of, 65; computational neuroscience, 23, 143, 182; percepts and concepts, 171–72; principles, 40–42, 44, 76, 85f, 88, 119, 144–46, 159; role of models in neuroscience, 98; speech perception and
cortical oscillations, 144–46; speech production, 146, 187, 190
computational brain, 205–14; challenges, 212–14; central processing units (CPUs) and Graphics Processing Units (GPUs), 208–10; neural networks, 205–7; Parallel Distributed Processing (PDP) networks, 41, 205, 206; random organization assumption, 207–8
computer algorithms, 101, 105, 178, 229
computer science, 86, 142, 143, 224
computer systems: analogy to brain, 177–79, 209–10; comparison to brain, 84–88, 85f; Marr’s approach to circuits and behavior, 178f; mind-as-computer metaphors, 205–6. See also computational brain
cognition: percepts and, 171–72
cognitive clarity: consciousness, 170–71, 175
concepts: mapping synaptic, of brain, 94; neuronal, 92
connectivity, 210; algorithms, 119; core theme of, 90–91; human right, 90; in situ sequencing to determine, 59–60; mapping out cell types and, 28–31
connectivity map, 29–31, 182
cortex: grid cell generation, 74; grid cells and grid maps, 71–73; mammalian space circuit, 69–71; of men and mice, 26–27; modular structure of, 43; spatial cell types in entorhinal network, 74–76; teachings from grid cells, 76; understanding the, 67–69
cortical microcircuit: morphoelectric types, 119
cortical oscillations: speech perception and, 144–46
counting, 53, 54, 55, 56
Cre driver lines, 29
Crick, Francis, 172, 269
Crohn’s disease, 234
Dang, Chinh, 3, 25
DARPA (Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency), 195, 199
Darwin, Charles, 191
deCODE, 198
deep brain stimulation (DBS), 195, 227
deep learning, 211
default network, 208
Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (DARPA), 125. See also SynAPSE project (IBM)
deficit-lesion-correlation approach, 139
degen inerative diseases, 229
Dehaene, Stanislas, 165, 167, 172, 173, 174
De humani corporis fabrica (On the Fabric of the Human Body) (Vesalius), 3, 4f
deletion syndromes, 238
dementia, 256
Dennett, Daniel, 166
Department of Energy, 196
depression, 122, 219, 227, 256
Descartes, René, 258, 269
de Sitter, Willem, 95
developmental language disorder, 154
Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 261
diffusion magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), 5
digital atlases, 15–16
digital atlasing, 5
dimensionality reduction, 82, 102
diversity: human brain, 214
divisive normalization: canonical neural computation, 180
DNA: bar-coding of, 46–48; encoding neural electrical activities into, 61–62; methylation,
event related potentials (ERPs): consciousness, 172–73
evolution: brain organization, 190–91;
epigenetic mechanisms, 189–90; neocortex
during course of, 188–89; quest for species
differences, 191–92; science dictating pro-
cess, 191; studying various species, 186–87;
understanding history of brain, 192–93;
unusual mammals, 187–88
exome: humans, 152, 153–54
EyeWire, 15
Facebook, 103
feature detectors: neocortex, 211–12, 214
feedback pathways: thalamus, 37
Felleman, Daniel, 12
Feynman, Richard, 111
filtering: canonical neural computation, 180
Fisher, Simon E., 137, 149–57
flexible coordination: Spaun model, 132–33
Fluorescent In Situ Sequencing (FISSEQ), 58, 58f
FMRP (fragile X mental retardation protein), 240–41
force fields, 180
format: percepts and concepts, 171
Forschungszentrum Jülich, 116
FORTRAN, 44
foundation grants: funding for brain map,
199–200
FOXP2 gene: human and chimpanzee dif-
fferences, 156; mutations of, 151–52, 155;
songbirds, 155–56
fragile X mental retardation protein (FMRP),
240–41
Fragile X syndrome, 240–42
Freeman, Jeremy, 23, 65, 100–107
Freud, Sigmund, 259
Freud's psychodynamic theory, 206
Fried, Itzhak, 211
functional brain map, 161
functional dissociations, 140
functional localization: concept, 139
functional magnetic resonance imaging
(fMRI), 4–5, 244, 260
functional modeling: neural responses, 102
Fyhn, Marianne, 71

DNA (cont’d)
189; neuroimaging genomics, 156; poly-
merase, 57–58, 61, 62f; sequencing, 55–57,
149, 150
Donald, Merlin, 133
Donoghue, John, 217, 219–232
Dostrovsky, John, 69
Dravet syndrome, 242
duck-billed platypus: brain construction, 187;
neocortex, 188
Duke University, 115
dynamical systems approach, 82, 83
dyslexia, 11, 139
Eccles, John, 257
echolocating bat, 187
École Polytechnique Fédérale de Lausanne
(EPFL), 116, 122
Edinburgh Mouse Atlas Project (EMAP), 9
Eichele, Gregor, 7
Einhäuser, Wolfgang, 174
Einstein, Albert, 95
electrical recorders, 249
electrical recording, 38, 224, 245, 250, 257
electrical stimulation: neurotechnology, 225–
26, 228, 260
electrodes: computational steps, 80f, 81; mea-
suring electrical activity, 79, 80f
electroencephalograph (EEG), 5, 244, 260
electromagnetic (EM) fields or waves, 248–249
electron microscopy (EM), 45, 60, 257
electrophoresis, 7, 15, 272
electrophysiology, 32, 35, 154
Eliasmith, Chris, 109, 125–36
EM Connectomics, 60
emergence: concept, 92–93
emergent phenomena, 93
encoding schemes, 214
Engert, Florian, 18
entorhinal cortex: grid cells in, of rat brain, 71,
72f; spatial cell types in, 74–76
epigenetic mechanisms: brain and behavior,
189, 190
epigenetics, 189
epilepsy, 194, 219, 230, 236, 240, 242, 266
ethics: human brain simulations, 268–69;
whole brain simulation, 123
EurExpress, 9
European Commission, 111, 195
European Community, 94
Evans, Alan, 5, 10, 14

For general queries, contact info@press.princeton.edu
Genbank (public database), 196
genealyzers, 203
gene expression, 6–9, 8f, 54
GenePaint, 9
GENESIS neural simulator, 183
genetic brain, 6–14
genetics: psychiatric patients, 235–37
genome: humans, 149, 152; neuroimaging
genomics, 156–57. See also human genome
GENSAT project: Rockefeller University, 9
global broadcasting: consciousness, 165, 168, 174
global collaboration: neuroscience, 111, 123–24
global neuronal workspace, 165f, 165–66
Global Science Forum: OECD, 115
Golgi, Camillo, 53
Golgi's staining method, 256
Google, 42, 103, 200
Google Glass, 56
Gopnik, Alison, 169
Götz, Karl, 18
Graphics Processing Units (GPUs), 208–10
grid cells: cortex, 71–73; generation of, 74; teaching from, 76
grid maps: cortex, 71–73
GRS–SIM, 118
Hadoop, 103
Hafting, Torkel, 71
Hagmann, Patrick, 11
halorhodopsin, 24
Hawrylycz, Mike, 3–16, 25
head direction cells, 75
hearing: restoration, 230
Heintz, Nathaniel, 9
Heisenberg, Martin, 18
Herpes virus, 47
Hill, Sean, 109, 111–24
Hinton, Geoff, 206
hippocampus: grid map, 73
Hodgkin, Alan, 182, 257
Hodgkin–Huxley equations, 257
Homo sapiens, 149, 265
Hood, Leroy, 256
Hubble, Edwin, 95
Hubel, David, 68, 105, 211, 257
human brain: mapping language, 150–51; mapping the connectome of, 12–13; understanding, 264–65
Human Brain Project (HBP), 111, 124, 126, 183; global collaboration, 123; goal of, 111–13; nature of, 195; supercomputer facilities of, 263; unifying brain models, 120–21
human cognition: Spaun model, 129
Human Connectome Project (HCP), 12–13
human genome: challenges in mapping, 195–97; deciding whose brain to map, 202–3; defining progress, 200–201; translating new knowledge, 203–4
Human Genome Project, 194, 202–3, 256
humans: cortex of, 26–27
Huxley, Andrew, 182, 257
IBM. See SyNAPSE project (IBM)
imaging technology, 244
implants: mechanisms for powering and communicating with, 247–48
industry grants: funding for brain map, 199–200
information technology: platforms, 111; World Wide Web, 114
in situ hybridization (ISH), 7
in situ immune microscopy: of synaptic proteins, 60–61
in situ sequencing: cell type, connectivity and lineage, 59–60; Rosetta Brain, 57–58
integration: data, 114
intellectual disability, 236, 241
intelligent artificial systems, 134
International Consortium for Human Brain Mapping, 10
International Neuroinformatics Coordinating Facility (INCF), 10, 115
Internet, 90; accessing neuroscience data, 123; scams, 203
irritable bowel syndrome, 234
Jeopardy!, 134
Johnson and Johnson, 200
Jones, Allan, 7, 25
Kalhor, Reza, 50
Kandel, Eric, 259
Kant, Immanuel, 175
Karolinska Institute, 116
Keller, Philipp, 18
Koch, Christof, 3, 25–39, 168, 169, 172, 211, 255–69
Koch, Robert, 171
Körding, Konrad, 45
Kouider, Sid, 166

For general queries, contact info@press.princeton.edu
Krubitzer, Leah, 159, 186–93
Kubie, John, 71
Kunzler, Nathan, 194

labeling, 53
laboratory information management system (LIMS), 34
Lamme, Victor, 166, 167f
language, 137; brain function, 148; brain maps, 150–51; challenges for new neuroscience of, 140–43; DNA sequencing, 149, 150, 156; imaging genomics, 157; variable binding, 212, 213–14. See also neurobiology of language
language deficit, 139
larval zebrafish, 18, 19, 106; whole-brain calcium imaging, 106, 107; whole-brain neuron imaging, 20–21
Latour, Bruno, 171
Lau, Hakwan, 166
LeCun, Yann, 206
levels of abstraction: comparing brain and computer systems, 84–88, 85f; language, 143
lexical access, 141
Lichtman, Jeff, 14
light: optical recordings, 225
light-sheet microscopy, 20
lineage: in situ sequencing to determine, 59–60
linguistics, 142–43
localization hypothesis: brain regions, 259–60
McCulloch, Warren, 257, 258
McMath, Jahi, 203–4
macular degeneration, 227
magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), 4, 259–60
magnetoencephalograph (MEG), 5, 244, 260
Maharbiz, Michel M., 217, 243–51
Mainen, Zachary, 184
mammalian space circuit: high-end cortices, 69–71; rats, 69, 70f
MapReduce: Google, 103
Marblestone, Adam, 50
Marcus, Gary, 42, 159, 205–14, 255–69
Marder, Eve, 183, 265
Marr, David, 84, 178f, 181, 182, 183, 184
marsupials: neocortex, 187
mathematical models. See Spaun (Semantic Pointer Architecture Unified Network)
The Matrix (movie), 19
Max Planck Institute, 7
Meaney, Michael, 189
measurement problem: consciousness, 161–64; nonconceptual representations and, 170–72
Medical Informatics Platform, 122
Medtronic, 200
Melloni, Lucia, 163
memory, 67–69, 259, 262; declarative, 73; rebalancing circuits for, 227–28
mental illness. See psychiatric disorders
mesoscale neural decoding, 230, 231f
MGI, 9
mice: cortex of, 26–27; DNA bar coding of cells, 56–57; MindScope, 28; mutations of genome, 154; transgenic mice and optogenetic switch, 168–70; two-proton imaging of cortex, 107; understanding brain of, 264, 265
microcircuits: brain, 36, 113, 118, 119
microelectrode, 69, 91, 220, 224, 225, 247, 257
Microsoft, 7
Mihalas, Stefan, 25
mind-reading techniques, 37
MindScope, 27–28; recording activity of large ensemble of neurons, 31–33; sociology of neuroscience, 39
minimalism: syntactic theory, 144
Mitchell, Kevin J., 217, 234–42
models. See animal; brain models; Spaun (Semantic Pointer Architecture Unified Network)
Molden, Sturla, 71
molecular biology, 256
Molnár, Zoltan, 207
mutations: animal models, 240; gene encoding fragile X mental retardation protein (FMRP), 240–41; genes, 236; genotype and phenotype, 237
Moser, Edvard I., 65, 67–76
Moser, May-Britt, 65, 67–76
mood: rebalancing circuits for, 227–228
Moore’s law, 268
movement: rebalancing circuits for, 227–28; restoration, 230; spiking patterns, 229–30
Muller, Bob, 71
Mus musculus, 26–27, 265

For general queries, contact info@press.princeton.edu
nanobotic neural implants, 266
nanobotics, 268
National Institutes of Health (NIH), 10, 114, 196, 199
National Science Foundation (NSF), 199
Nature (magazine), 15
Nature Neuroscience (magazine), 184n
neocortex: brain, 25–26; comparing different species, 186–87; feature detectors, 211–12; modification during evolution, 188–89
network neuroscience, 91, 99; building virtual brains, 97–99; challenge of "big data", 93–97; from circuits to networks, 91–93
network science: modern approach, 92–93; organizing and interpreting big brain data, 95–96
neural activity: encoding into DNA, 61–62; future prospects for, 22–24; understanding whole-brain data, 21–22
neural computations. See canonical neural computations
neural decoding, 230, 231f
neural dust: delivery to cortex, 251; electromagnetic (EM) fields or waves, 248–49; mechanisms for powering and communicating with implants, 247–48; paradigm, 246–50; recording electronics, 250; size of electrical recorders, 249; systems diagram, 247f; ultrasonic waves, 249, 250
Neural Engineering Framework (NEF), 136
Neural Information Processing Systems (NIPS), 42
neural networks: scope of, 206–7
neural responses: higher levels of analysis, 101–2
neuroanatomy: computational, of speech production, 146
neurobiology of language: building meaning from smaller parts, 147–48; challenges for new, 140–43; computational, 148; computational principles, 144–46; linguistics, 142–43; maps problem, 141, 142; origin and transformation of research on, 139–40; parsing and chunking stages, 144–45; principled challenge, 141, 142; speech perception and cortical oscillations, 144–46; syntactic primitives, 143–44
neurodegenerative conditions, 96
neuroimaging genomics, 156–57
neuroimaging techniques, 4–5
neuroinformatics, 10; brain atlases, 115–17
Neuroinformatics Platform, 115, 116
neuromarketing: emergence of companies, 198–99
neuromodulation therapy, 227
neuromorphic technology, 135
neuronal activity: modeling the brain, 35–38
neuron doctrine, 91
neurons: bar-coding, 46–48; brain complexity, 50–51; imaging of whole-brain, 20–21; tracking electrical activity of, 260–61
neurons, large number of: interpreting activity from, 82–83, 219–24; levels of abstraction, 83–88; measuring activity, 78–79, 82; recording activity of, 31–33
Neurorobotics Platform, 121
neuroscience, 25, 38–39; advances in, 258–59; "big data" revolution, 94; challenges for new, of language, 140–43; data collection and analysis, 106–7; digital brain atlases, 5–6; genetics, 235–37; growth of cognitive theories, 260; large-scale, 100–107; light-sheet microscopy, 20–21; measuring electrical and chemical activity, 79; network, 90–99; predictive, 117–18; quantitative and high-throughput tools from industry to, 33–34; terminology, 116; translating the genome in human, 149–57
Neuroscience Information Framework (NIF), 115
neuroscience review: Big Science (2014), 258–63; modern era (2064), 263–69; romantic era of (1964), 256–58
neurotechnology: behavior from neural activity, 219–24; brain computer interfaces (BCIs), 228–30; as clinical tool, 226–30; cochlear implants, 226–27; electrical stimulation, 225–26; illustration of a network of networks, 221, 222f; limits of being human, 231–32; optical recordings, 225; reading out information, 228–30; rebalancing circuits, 227–28; sensing and stimulating circuits, 224–26; wireless transmission, 224–25; writing in missing patterns, 226–27
Nissl, Franz, 3
Nixon, Richard, 266
nonhuman primates: neocortex, 186
noninvasive imaging techniques, 13
nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), 259
nucleus reticularis, 116
Obama, Barack, 194
O’Keefe, John, 69
olfactory receptors, 67
one-hundred electrode array, 79, 80f
One Mind for Research, 124

On the Fabric of the Human Body (Vesalius), 3, 4f
Open Connectome Project, 13–14
optical microscope, 256
optical recordings: neurotechnology, 225
optogenetics, xviii, 20, 23–24, 79, 154, 226, 227, 266, 273: advanced, 264; methods, 244–45, 260; transgenic mice and, switch, 168–70
orientation selectivity: discovery of, 105
Origins of Objectivity (Burge), 170

PageRank algorithm, 42
Parallel Distributed Processing (PDP), 41, 205, 206
parcellation: fMRI activity, 13
Parkinson's disease, 122, 133, 227, 228, 266
patent: brain information, 198
Penfield, Wilder, 257
Pentium chip, 178f, 183
perception: conscious and unconscious, 163
percepts: concepts and, 171–72
perceptual cognition, 162
perceptual task: consciousness, 166, 167f
perigeniculate nucleus, 116
PerkinElmer, 196
pharmacogenetics, 260
Philips, John, 25
phonological processing, 141
photoreceptors, 31, 67, 227
physics, 94–95, 122, 123, 179, 192, 262, 269: astrophysics, 98, biophysics, 97, 180–81, 257–59, 263–64; psychophysics, 131
piezoelectricity, 246, 250. See also neural dust
Pinker, Steven, 7, 92, 206
Pitts, Michael, 173
Pitts, Walter, 257, 258
platypus. See duck-billed platypus
PLOS Computational Biology, 11
Poeppe1, David, 137, 139–48
politics: human brain simulations, 268–69
positron emission tomography (PET), 5, 244
post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), 195
predictive neuroscience, 117–18
primates: neocortex, 186; visual system, 104–5
Prinz, Jesse, 166
projectome, 29, 32–33
prose, 139
prosthetic devices: control and dexterity of, 243–44
proteins: amino acids, 179
Pseudorabies virus (PRV), 47
psychiatric disorders: brain development, 238, 240; diagnoses, 234–35; from genes to biology, 238–42; genetics, 235–37; genotype-first approach, 238, 239f
Ptolemy V, King, 52
Putnam, Hilary, 161
Python, 104
quality control (QC), 33, 34, 117
Rabaey, Jan M., 243
Radboud Universiteit Nijmegen, 116
Ramachandran, V.S., 42
Ramón y Cajal, Santiago, 3, 53, 191, 256
Ranck, Jim, 75
rat: grid cells in entorhinal cortex of brain, 71, 72f
rats: mammalian space circuit, 69, 70f
Raven's Progressive Matrices (RPM) test, 134
Reagan, Ronald, 195
receptive fields, 180
recombinase sites, 46, 47
Rees, Geraint, 164
Regolin, Lucia, 207
Reid, Clay, 25
resting state networks, 96, 97, 208
reticular nucleus of thalamus, 116
retina, 264
retinitis pigmentosa, 227
reverse engineering: benefits of, 133–34; brain, 125–26; building a physical brain, 135–36
Rosenblatt, Frank, 258
Rosenthal, David, 166
Rosetta Brain, 50–63; abstracting the problem, 53–55; architecture for experiment, 62–63; electrical activity histories, 54; future of, 63; in situ sequencing, 57–58; "right" dataset, 52–53; sequence space, 55–57
Rosetta Stone, 52
Roudi, Yasser, 74
Royal Institute of Technology, 118
Salk, Jonas, 191
Sanes, Josh, 14
Sargolini, Francesca, 75
Scala, 104
Scannel, J. W., 12
Schiavo, Terri, 204
schizophrenia, 11, 48, 96, 194, 219, 234, 266; genetics of, 235–37
science: dictating study, 191
Science (magazine), 188
seizures, 230, 241
Sejnowski, Terrence, 184
semantics, 147–48
senses: brain, 121–22; computational models, 122
sensing circuits: neurotechnology, 224–25
sensorimotor loop: closing the, 18–20
sensory cortices, 68
Seo, Dongjin, 243
sequence space: DNA, 55–57
serial working memory task: Spaun model, 128f, 131
Seung, Sebastian, 11–12, 15
Sharon, Ariel, 204
Shenoy, Krishna V., 65, 78–89
Siemens, 200
Simon, Herbert, 40
simulation: brain, 109, 123, 268–69. See also
Human Brain Project (HBP); SyNAPSE project (IBM); whole-brain simulation
simulome, 183
Skinner’s behaviorism, 206
Sligte, Ilja, 166
Smith, Stephen, 14
Society for Neuroscience, 258
Stensola, Hanne, 72
Stensola, Tor, 72
spinal cord injury, 229
Sporns, Olaf, 11, 65, 90–99
standard operating procedures (SOP), 33
star-nosed mole, 187
style computing, 213
subjective feelings, 269
Südhof, Thomas, 207
supercomputer: human brain as, 94
supervised learning, 206
SyNAPSE project (IBM): brain simulation, 125–26
synaptic connections: brain, 50
synaptic plasticity, 119, 221, 241
synaptic proteins: in situ immune microscopy of, 60–61
synchronization: neuronal interactions, 93
syntactic theory: language computations, 143–44; minimalism, 144
syntax, 140, 141, 147–48
Talairach, Jean, 5
Talairach Atlas, 10
Tank David, 19
touch receptors, 67
Tournoux, P., 5
transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS), 228
transcriptome, 48
transducer, 246, 250
transistor, 82, 84, 85f, 86–88, 135, 177, 181, 183, 210, 221, 245, 250
traumatic brain injury, 194, 266
trilevel hypothesis: brain, 84–85
Tsuchiya, Nao, 168, 169
tuberculosis, 171
tuberous sclerosis, 241
tumors, 266
Turing machine, 26
23andMe, 198
Twitter, 103
two-photon imaging: mouse cortex, 107
two-photon microscopy, 32
two-photon tomography, 34
ulcerative colitis, 234
ultrasonic frequencies, 246
ultrasonic waves, 249
ultrasound, 250
Universidad Politécnica de Madrid, 116
University College London, 122, 177
University of California–San Diego, 177
University of Edinburgh, 115
University of Oslo, 115, 116
US BRAIN Initiative, 113, 124
US Human Connectome Project, 113

Vallortigara, Giorgio, 207
Vandenbroucke, Annelinde, 166
Van Essen, David, 12

variable binding: brain, 213–14; language, 212
Venter, Craig, 256
Vesalius, Andreas, 3, 4

vestibular system, 22
virtual brains: building, 97–99
virtual reality: whole brain neuroimaging and, 17–24

vision: restoration, 227, 230
Vision (Marr), 181

visual processing: stimuli, 163
visual responses: brute-force data collection, 105

visual-spatial extinction, 163–64
visual system: primates, 104–5
visual thalamus, 264

Vogt, Karl, 91
Vogt, Marthe, 4
von Economo, Constantin, 4
von Neumann, John, 208, 212–13

V2 neurons: hypothesis, 105–6

Waddington, Conrad, 189
Watson, James, 7, 46
Waxholm Space, 115

Werbos, Paul, 41
White, John, 12
whole-brain neuroimaging, 20–21, 17–24
whole-brain neuroscience: behavior as brain output, 121–22; building the brain, 118–19; ethics, 123; global collaboration, 123–24; global effort to understand brain, 124; modeling brain disorders and diseases, 122; unifying brain models, 120–21; validity of model, 119–20
whole-brain simulation: creating to understand, 111–13; neuroinformatics for computing, 113–15; next generation brain atlases, 115–17; ongoing debate, 267–68; predictive neuroscience, 117–18. See also simulation

Wiesel, Torsten, 68, 105, 211, 257
Williams syndrome, 236
wireless transmission: advances, 224, 230
Witter, Menno, 71, 74
working memory. See serial working memory task

World Wide Web, 114
www.neurolex.org, 115

Ye, Jing, 75

Zador, Anthony, 40–49, 53
zebrafish. See larval zebrafish
Zeki, Semir, 166, 167
Zeng, Hongkui, 3, 25
Zhang, Sheng-Jia, 75
Zilles, Karl, 14