

Neuroscience in Prevention Science: **Neuroimaging**

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Overview

I. Background

(What is neuroimaging?)

II. Utility of neuroimaging

(Why use neuroimaging?)

III. Regions of interest

(Where to look?)

IV. Neuroimaging methods

(How is it done?)

I. Background

Introduction to common types of neuroimaging

What is neuroimaging?

Neuroimaging: a variety of techniques used to visualize brain structure and function *in vivo*



What is neuroimaging?

Neuroimaging examines links between *behavior* and *brain structure and function*

Common methods:

Structural

- Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)
- Computerized Tomography (CT)

Functional

- Functional MRI (fMRI)
- Positron Emission Tomography (PET)
- Electroencephalography (EEG)

What is neuroimaging?

Neuroimaging examines links between *behavior* and *brain structure and function*

Common methods:

Structural

- Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)

Unprecedented spatial resolution

Functional

- Functional MRI (fMRI)

Good balance between spatial and temporal resolution that is needed to study cognitive functions in the timeframe that they occur

Common MRI Methods

Structural MRI

Brain morphometry

- e.g., regional gray matter volume, thickness, area

Functional MRI (fMRI)

Task-based fMRI

Brain's functional response to targeted challenges

Resting state functional connectivity

Correlations over time between brain networks at rest, without specific task demands

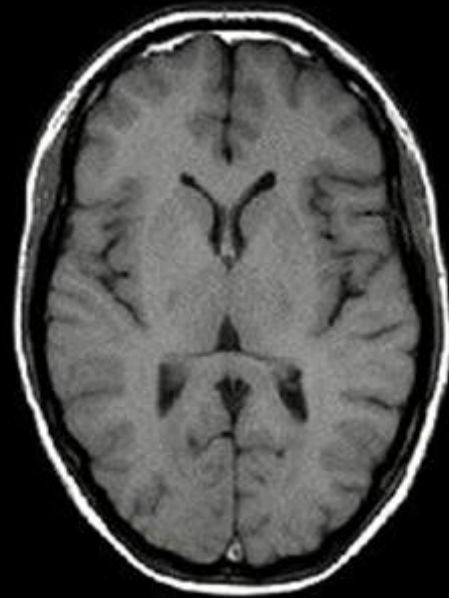
Structural MRI

Best method to produce high-resolution images of brain anatomy *in vivo*



CT

versus



MRI

Structural MRI

Common research applications

Lesion quantification (Multiple Sclerosis example below)

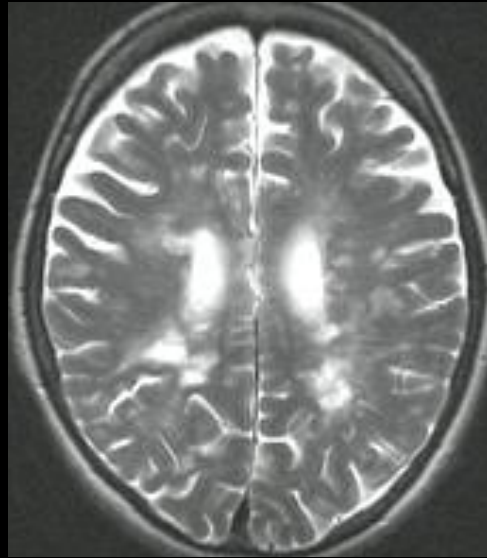
Whole brain & regional *morphometry* (size, shape)

- Usually volume and cortical thickness

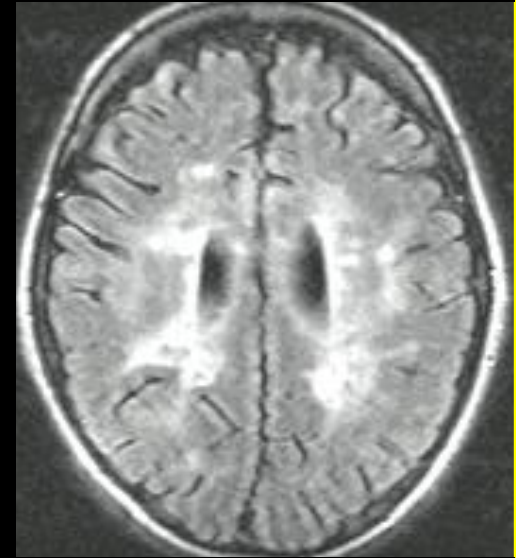
T1-weighted



T2-weighted



FLAIR



Structural MRI:

Morphometry in prevention science

Types of questions that might be addressed:

Does cortical thickness in cognitive control networks predict risk behaviors?

Do brain nuclei linked to emotional processing vary in size as a function of stress exposure?

Can the effects of prevention programs be monitored using such structural markers?

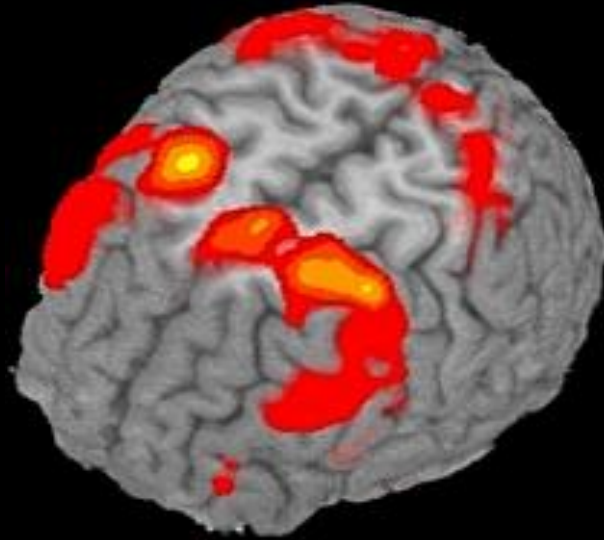
Functional MRI (fMRI)

Two common types of fMRI:

Task-based: brain response quantified during specific challenges in the MRI scanner

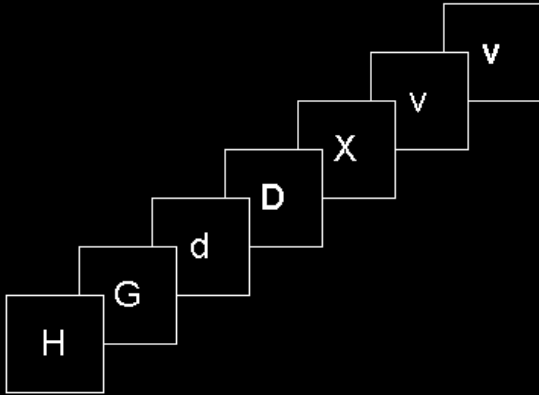
Resting state: synchronization of brain network nodes measured without specific task demands

Task-Based FMRI



Task-based FMRI: is used to quantify activity during
cognitive, affective, or behavioral challenges

Task-Based fMRI



cognitive, affective, or behavioral challenges

e.g., memory, craving provocation, distress tolerance

Task-based FMRI

Challenges of potential interest in prevention

➤ Working memory

- (e.g., n-Back, Paced Auditory Serial Addition Test (PASAT))

➤ Distress tolerance

- (e.g., PASAT, n-Back, cold pressor challenge)

➤ Cue reactivity

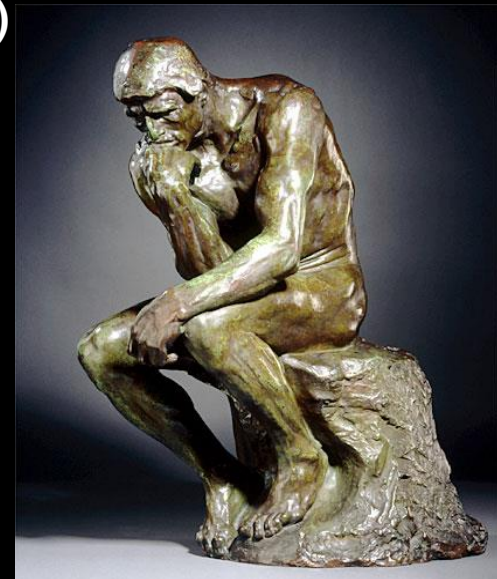
- (e.g., cigarette, food, emotion provocation)

➤ Decisions about reward

- (e.g., delay discounting)

➤ Inhibitory control

- (e.g., Stroop, Go/No-go)



Task-Based fMRI in prevention science

Types of questions that might be addressed:

Does brain response in cognitive control networks predict risk behaviors?

Does reactivity in networks associated with emotion vary as a function of stress exposure?

Can the outcomes of prevention programs be evaluated using brain response to stressors?

Resting State fMRI Functional Connectivity

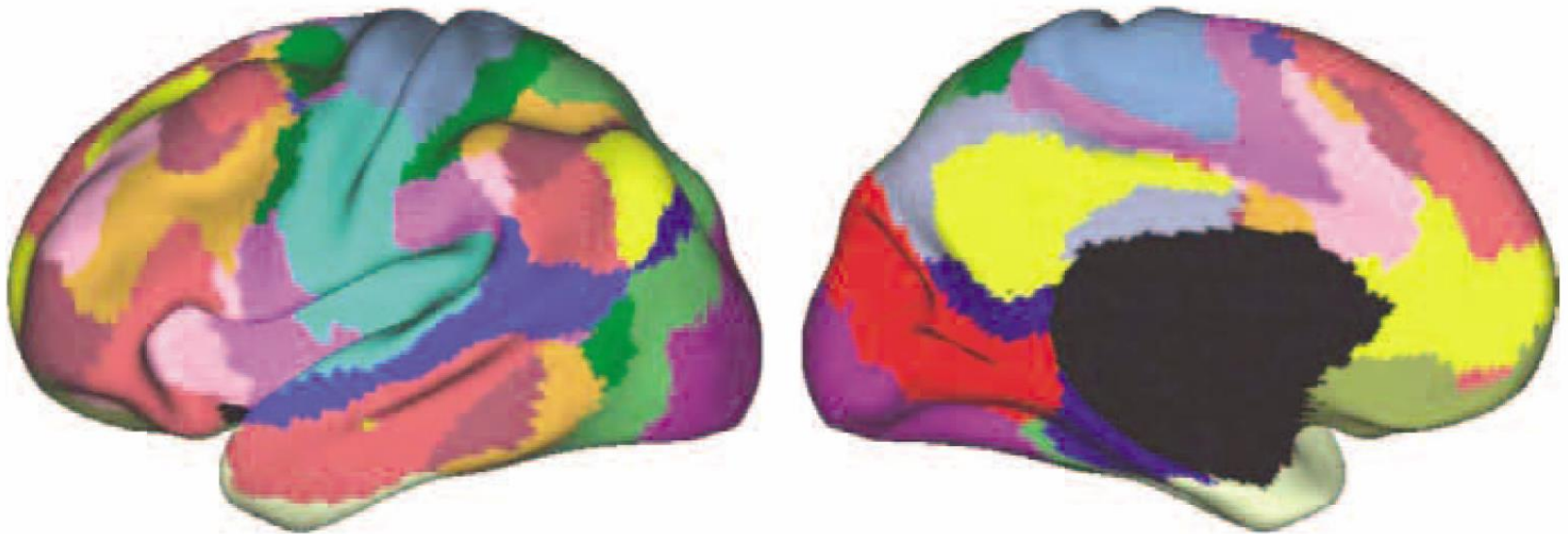
Used to examine fMRI signal for covariance among nodes of brain networks over time

No specific task demands

- No particular network is challenged
- But any network can be examined

Resting State Functional Connectivity

Reveals the brain's intrinsic functional networks



Synchronous regions have same color

(Original sample size 500; replicated in another sample of 500)

Functional connectivity in prevention science

Types of questions that might be addressed:

Does synchronization of cognitive control networks predict risk behaviors?

Does the the strength connectivity between cognitive control and emotion networks vary as a function of stress exposure?

Do prevention programs alter interactions between these networks?

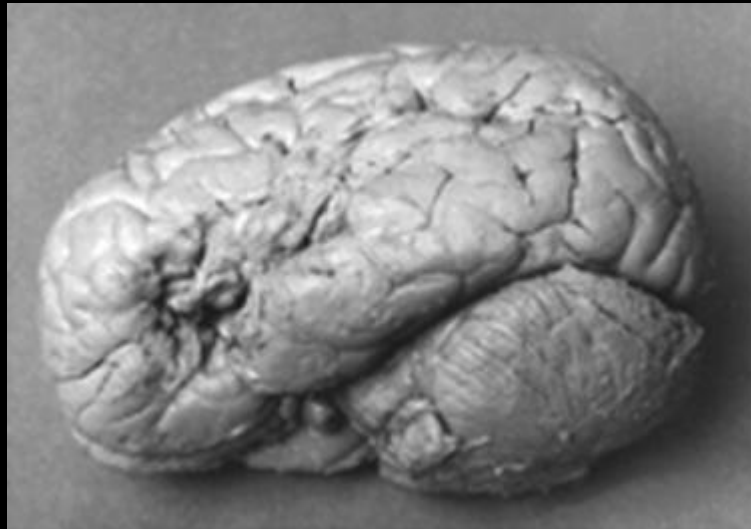
II. Utility of Neuroimaging

Why use neuroimaging?

Visualize brain structure and function *in vivo*

Before neuroimaging, understanding of brain function relied on cases of dysfunction (e.g., stroke, brain injury)

- 1) Abnormal behavior was noted
- 2) Brain structure was examined post-mortem



Preserved brain of Paul Broca's famous patient Louis Leborgne

Advantages of MRI and fMRI over other neuroimaging techniques

- Non-invasive
- No radioactive tracers or contrast agents
- High spatial and temporal resolution
- Multi-sequence protocols are possible
 - functional and structural available in one session
- Whole-brain scans
- Availability of MRI

Why use MRI in Prevention Science?

Improved assessment

Improved

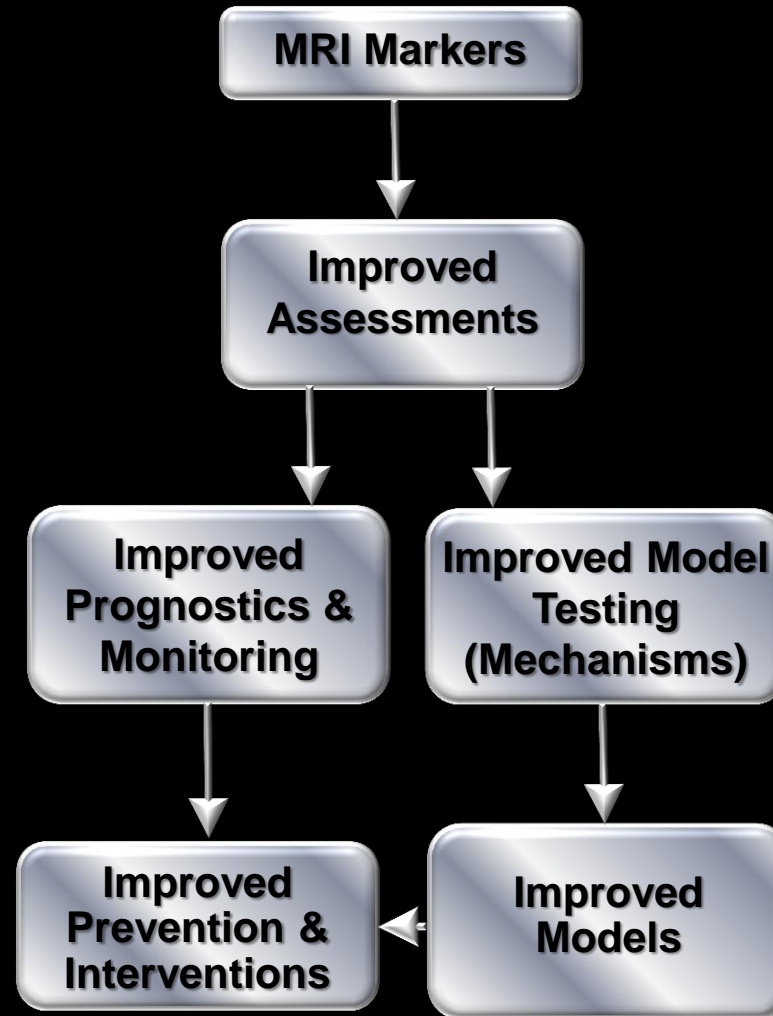
- Testing of brain-behavior models

- Risk assessment (diagnostics / prognostics)

- Monitoring of course

- Outcome evaluation

Why use MRI in Prevention Science?



How are assessments improved?

Improved sensitivity

Direct and objective quantification of difficult to measure states

e.g., effort, fatigue, mood, craving, hunger, withdrawal, malingering

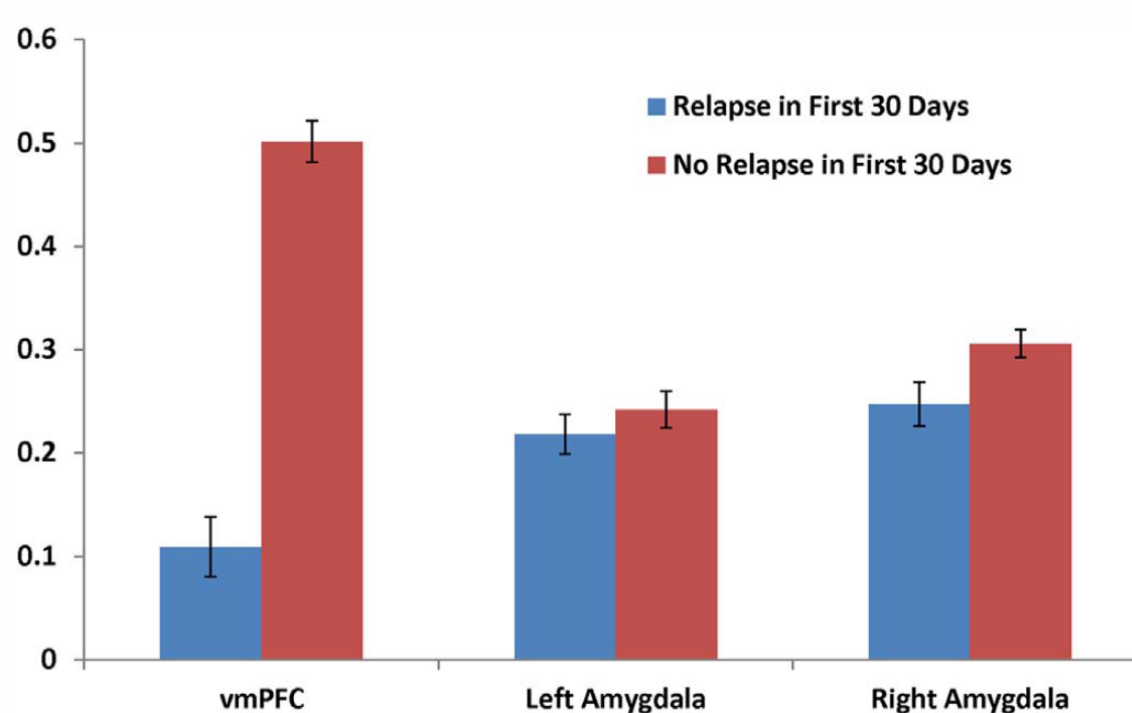
Complementary information

Brain markers may provide previously unavailable information

Complements best outcome predictor

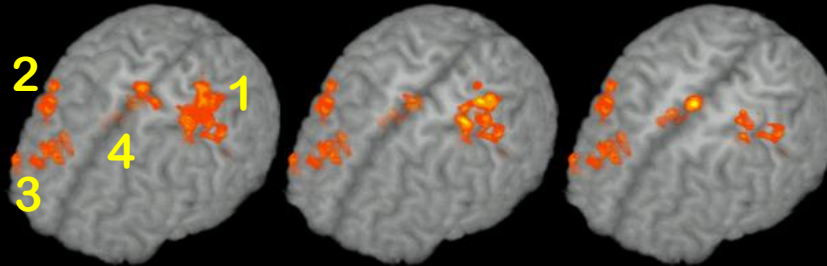
Response to warning labels in the VMPFC adds to predictive utility of dependence severity alone

- Improved predictive validity
- Localization of effect

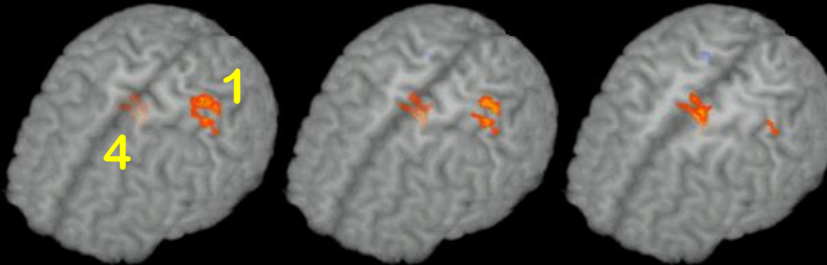


Overactivation: group contrasts of n-Back

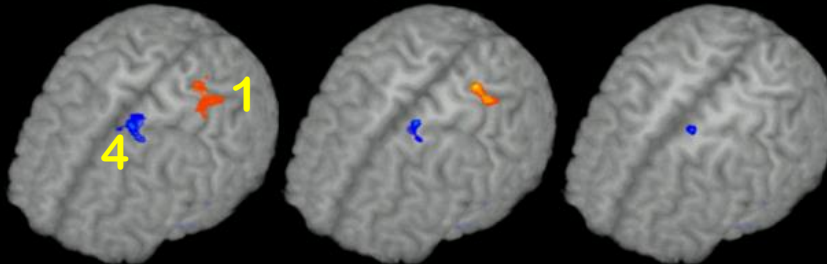
1-Back



2-Back



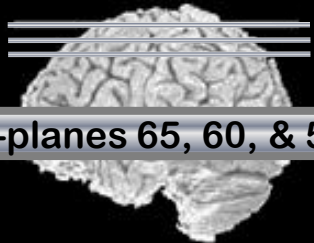
3-Back



**Red = Greater activity
in the Multiple
Sclerosis group**

**Blue = Greater activity
in the control group**

**Performance accuracy
did not differ**



z-planes 65, 60, & 55

<u>Region</u>
1 Postcentral gyrus
2 Caudal middle frontal gyrus
3 Rostral middle/superior frontal gyrus
4 Medial/superior frontal gyrus (caudal)

**Center
Coordinates**

<u>x</u>	<u>y</u>	<u>z</u>
-42	25	57
48	22	39
23	40	43
05	05	55

III. Regions of Interest

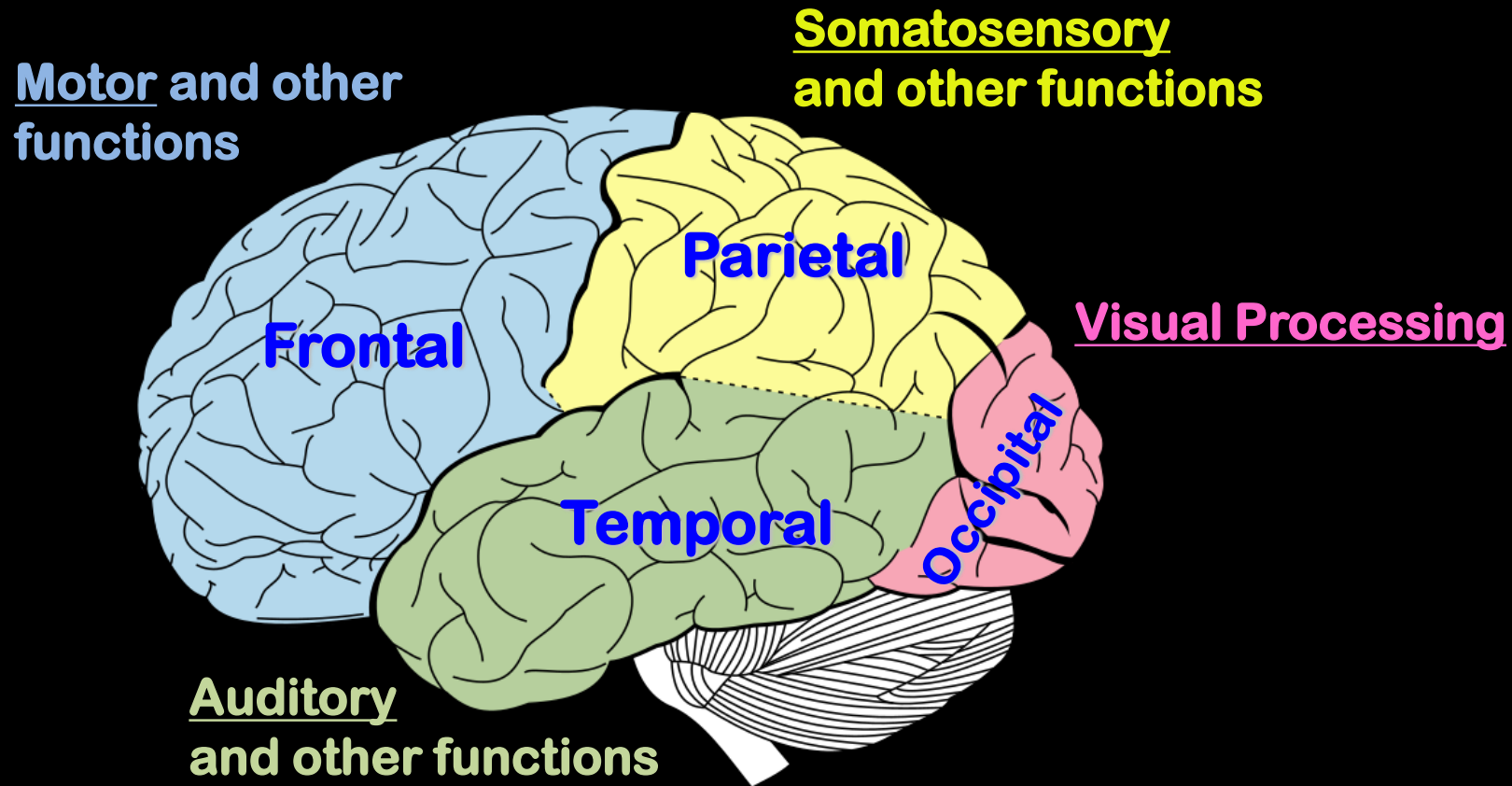
Where to look for neural correlates in prevention research?

The gray matter, where the cell bodies of neurons are located

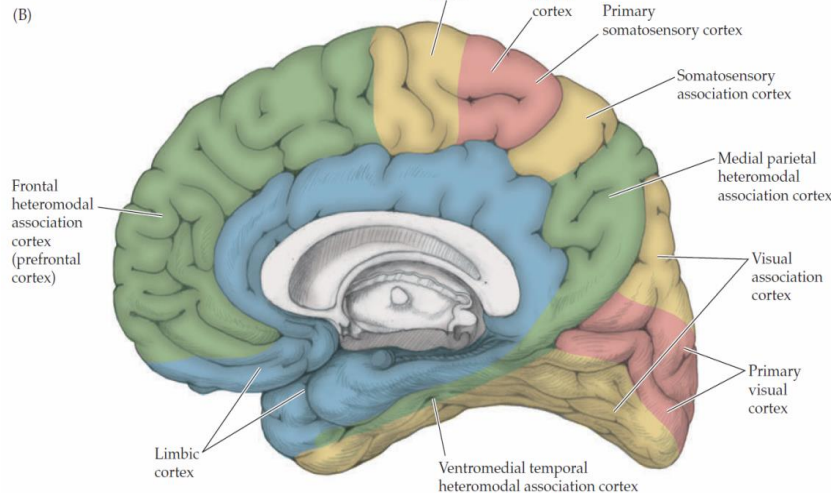
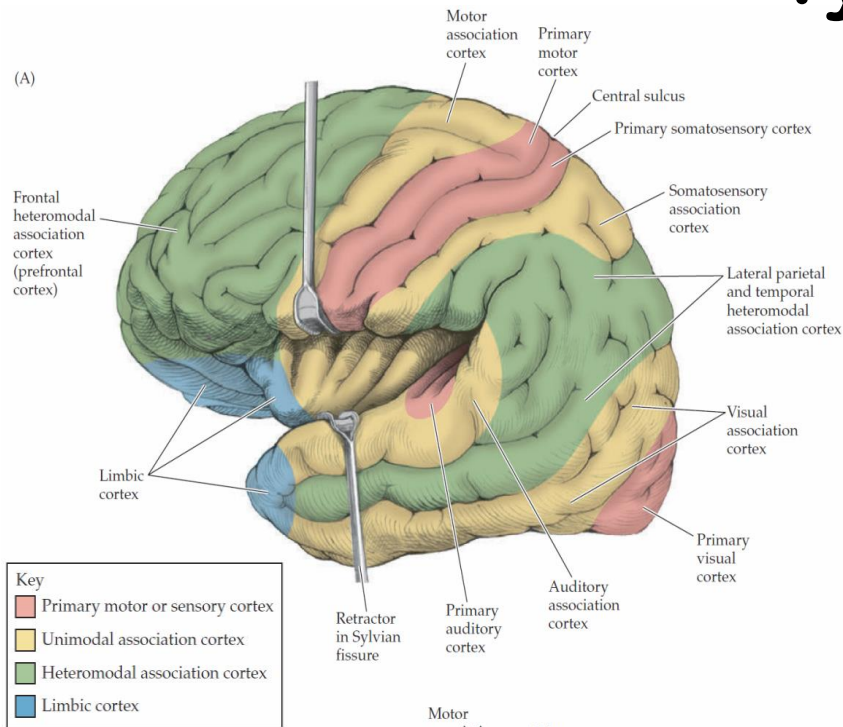
Two types of gray matter

- 1) Cortical regions (brain surface)
- 2) Subcortical nuclei (below the surface)

1) Cortical Function: Simplified Localization by Lobe



Types of Cortical Regions



Primary (motor and sensory)
Unimodal (motor or one sense)
Heteromodal
Limbic

Most relevant in prevention

Limbic cortex

Emotional and motivational
processing

Heteromodal association
areas

Higher order cognitive functions

Some Prefrontal Functions

Executive functions

- Working memory

- Planning

- Divergent thinking / Abstraction

- Inhibitory control / Regulation

- Multi-tasking

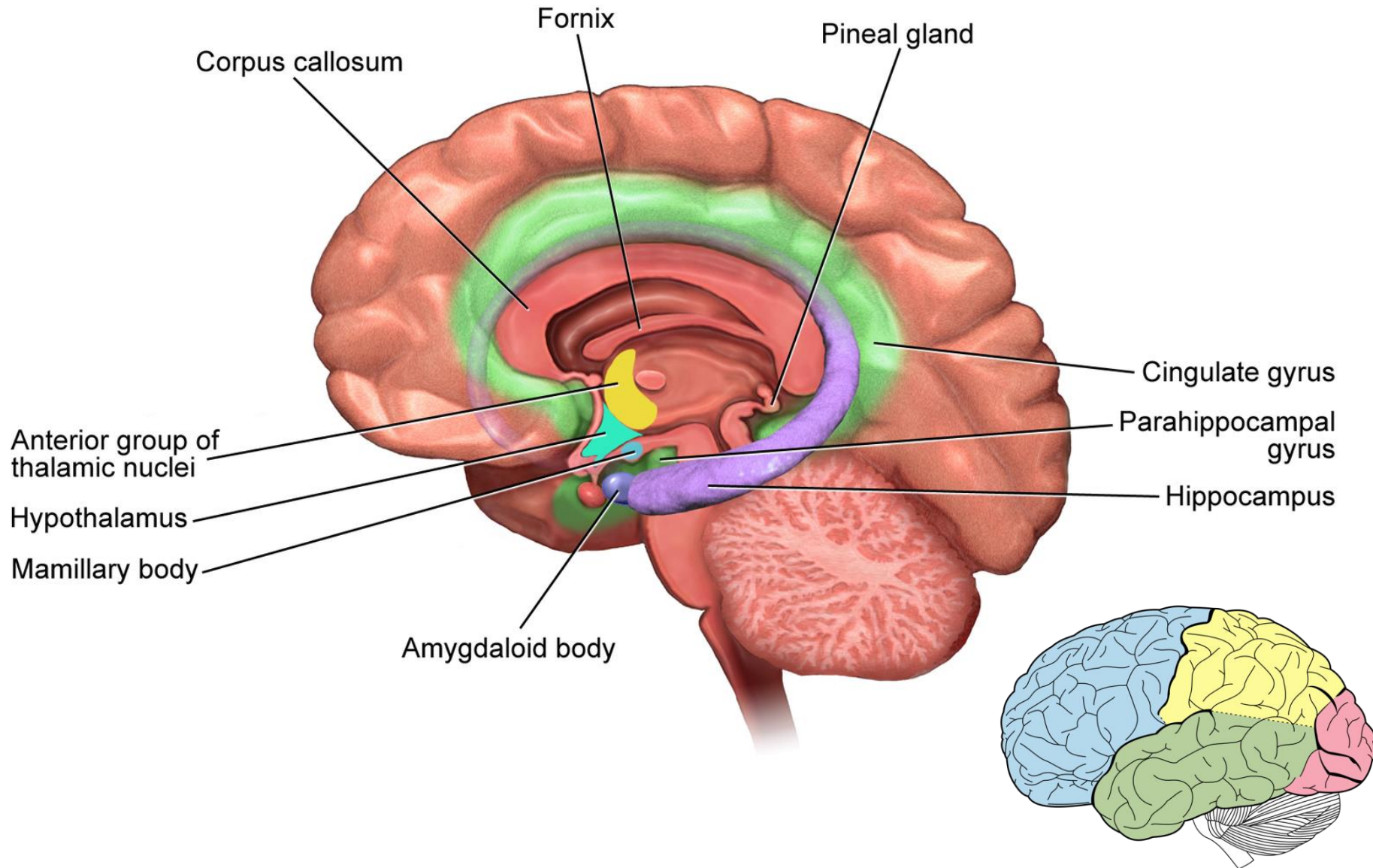
- Decision-making

- Selective and sustained attention

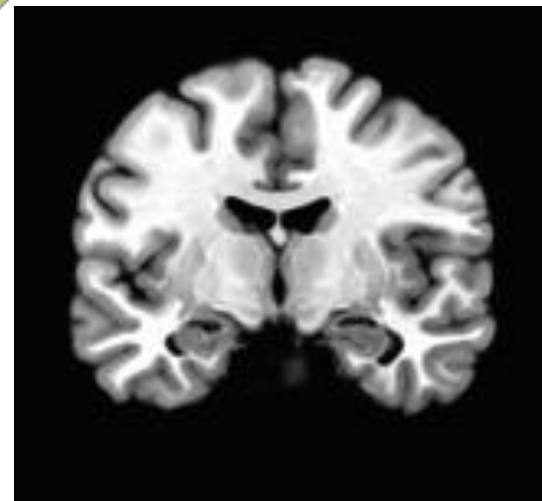
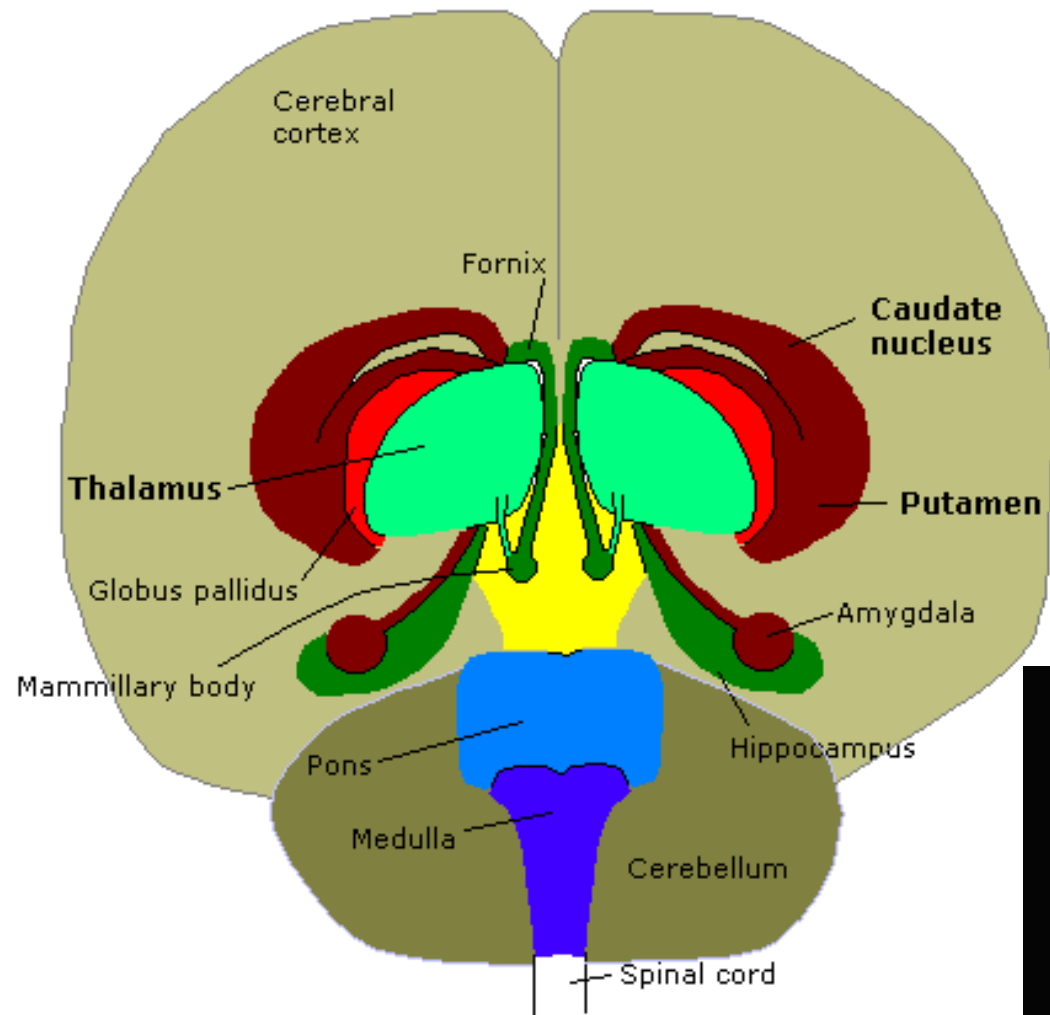
Social functions

Emotional functions

2) Subcortical Nuclei



Subcortical Nuclei



Subcortical Nuclei

Amygdala (emotion and reward)

Basal forebrain (reward and motivation)

Ventral striatum

Septal nuclei

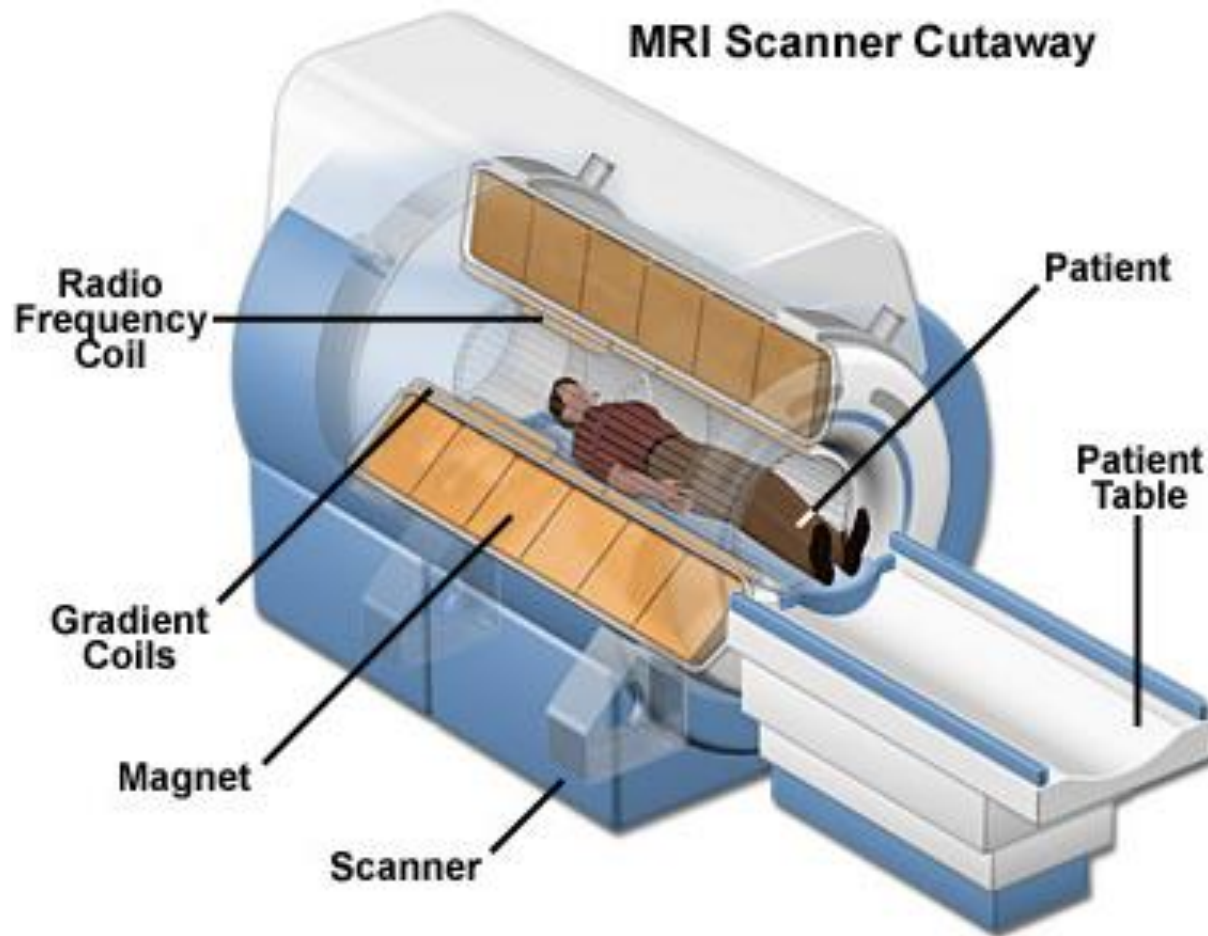
Basal Ganglia (starting, stopping, switching)

Hippocampus (memory)

IV. Neuroimaging Methods

How is it done?

MRI and fMRI use a large magnetic field, radio wave pulses, and sensitive antennas to quantify brain structure and function



MRI signal

Hydrogen protons are abundant in H_2O in humans

1) H protons spin generate magnetic field

- Act like little magnets
- Orientations are normally random

2) Protons align in the strong magnetic field



3) A radio wave pulse perturbs alignment

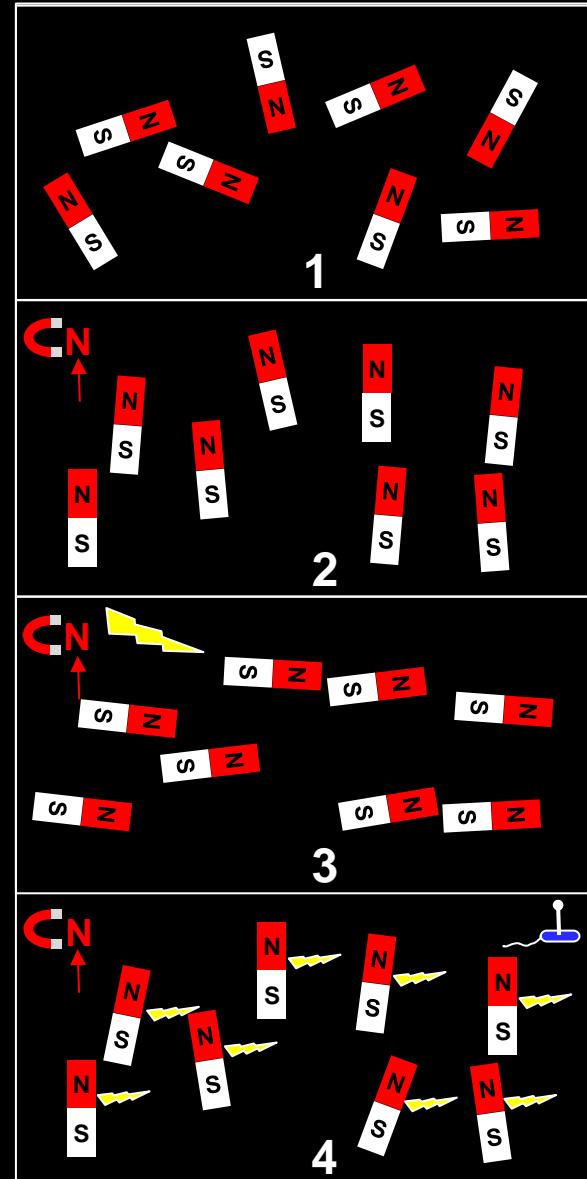


- Energy is absorbed (higher energy state)
- Proton orientation and spins synchronize

4) Relaxation: protons emit radio signal as they return to lower energy states



- Antenna measures rates of realignment
- Rates differ by tissue type, providing contrast



FMRI Signal

FMRI detects changes in capillary blood over time

Oxyhemoglobin (with O₂) produces signal normally

Deoxyhemoglobin (without O₂) is magnetic and suppresses signal

As the ratio of oxyhemoglobin to deoxyhemoglobin increases, FMRI signal is stronger

- Oxyhemoglobin is delivered in excess of neural demand where the brain is most active
- Task-based FMRI is always a contrast of this ratio during challenge compared to this ratio during a control condition (i.e., always relative)

MRI Data

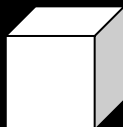
Summed per voxel, a 3-dimensional pixel

MRI:
FMRI:

Voxel

1 mm³

3 mm³



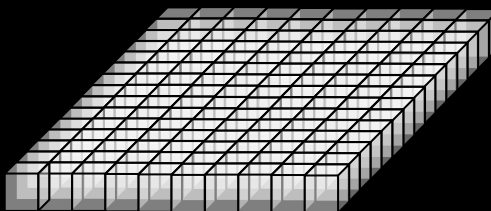
Basic unit of data
acquisition and
analysis

Spatial resolution is
the voxel size

Plane

256 x 256 voxels

64 x 64 voxels

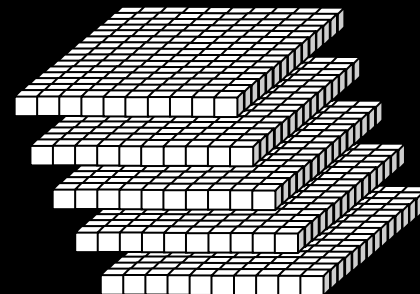


Acquired in slices
comprised of voxels

Volume

10 million voxels

200, 000 voxels



Slices are stacked to
create a volume

In FMRI multiple
volumes are acquired

Temporal resolution
is the time required to
acquire a volume

FMRI Data Analysis

Data preprocessing

- Prepare data for analyses
e.g., quality control, stereotaxic standardization

Individual level analyses

- Each voxel is examined over time for response to the FMRI challenge (e.g., memory test, smoking cues)

Group level analyses

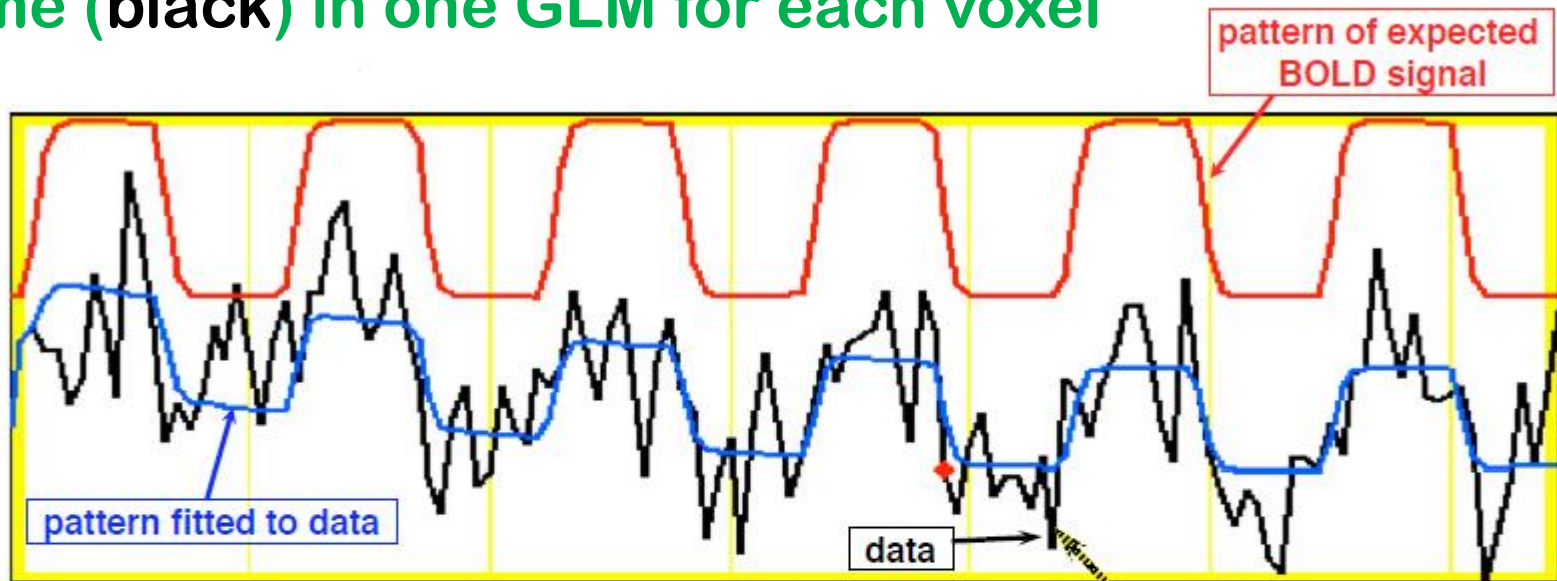
- Voxel by voxel comparisons of individual effects
- Region of interest (summed voxel effects by region)

FMRI Data Analysis

Individual level analyses

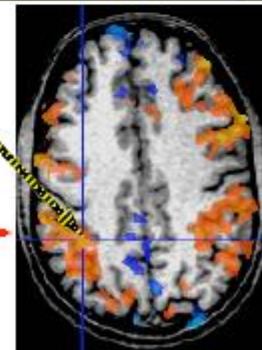
General Linear Modeling (GLM)

The time courses of conditions in the fMRI paradigm are used as predictors (red and blue) of BOLD signal over time (black) in one GLM for each voxel



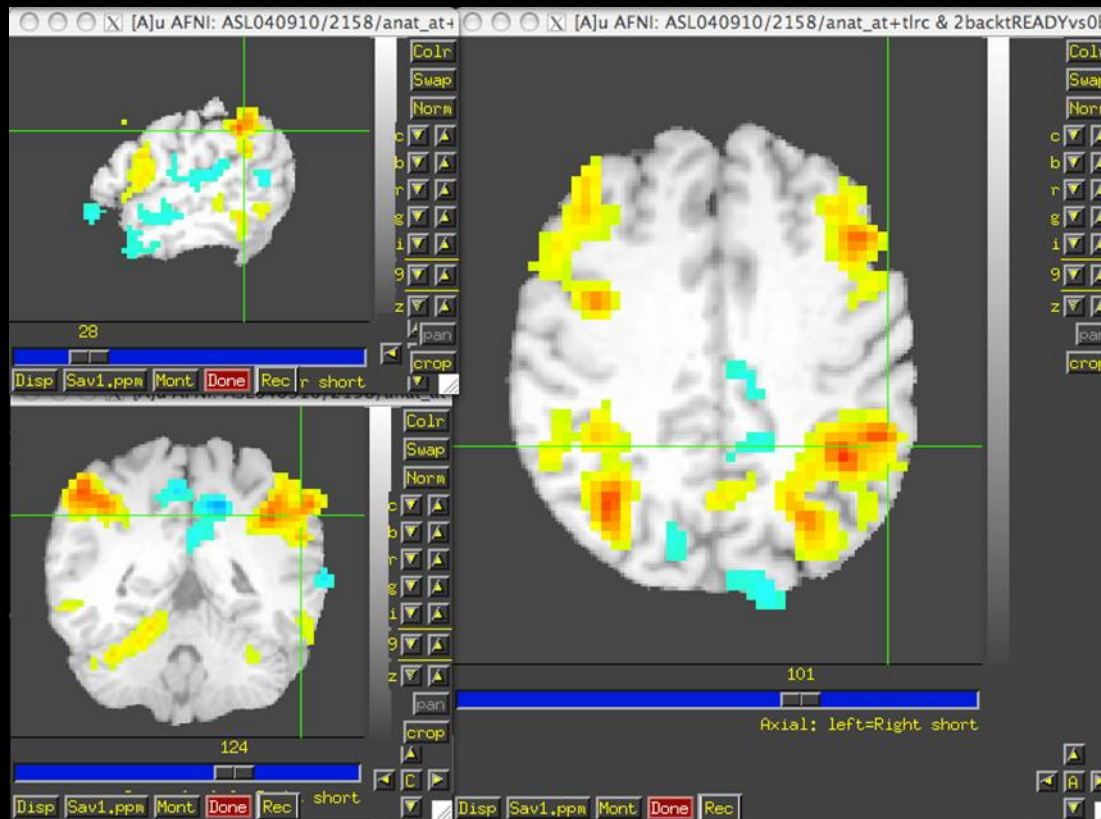
One fMRI volume

A structural MRI volume
voxels matching temporal
pattern in a color overlay



GLM output provides a partial β coefficient for each condition modeled for each voxel

An example of a β coefficient map representing the 2-Back effect in one person



FMRI Data Analysis

Group level analyses

Major approaches to group level analyses

Voxel-wise analyses

Region of interest analyses

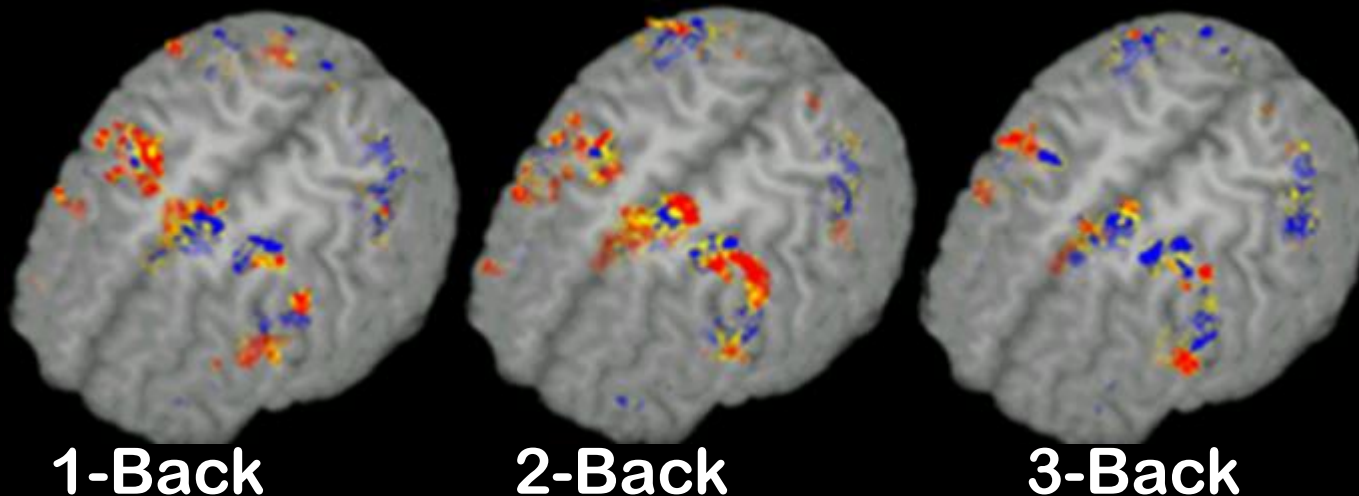
Group Level: Voxel-wise Analyses

Two major types of group level voxelwise analysis

1) Summary maps: combine data by group or condition to get group-level effects

Evaluate whether fMRI challenge elicits valid response

Example of Voxel-wise Group Summary activity



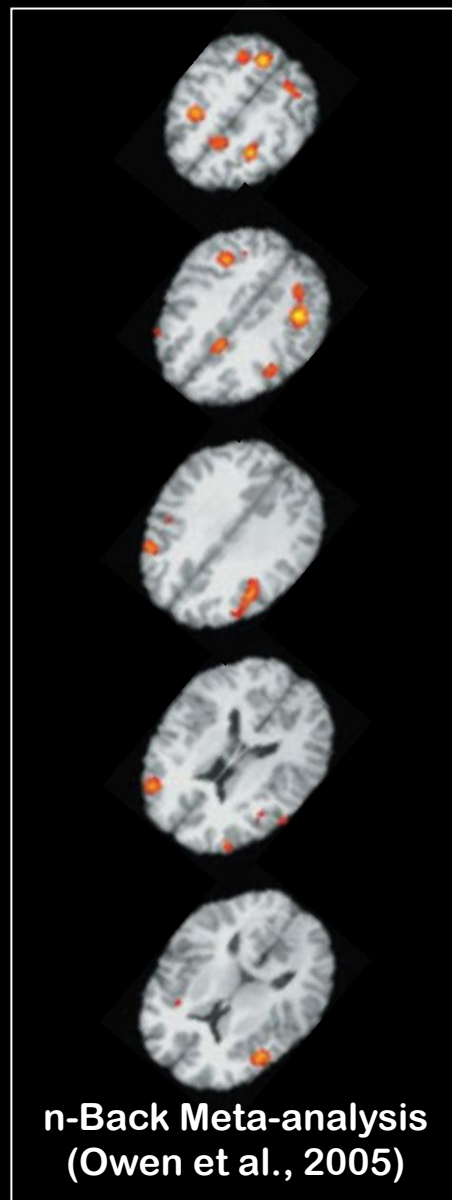
Red = Unique to the MS group

Blue = Unique to the control group

Yellow = Common to both groups

Sample: 15 Multiple Sclerosis Patients
15 Matched Healthy Controls

Results: Each group exhibits brain response to a working memory Challenge that is consistent with prior literature



Group Level: Voxel-wise Analyses

Two major types of group level voxelwise analysis

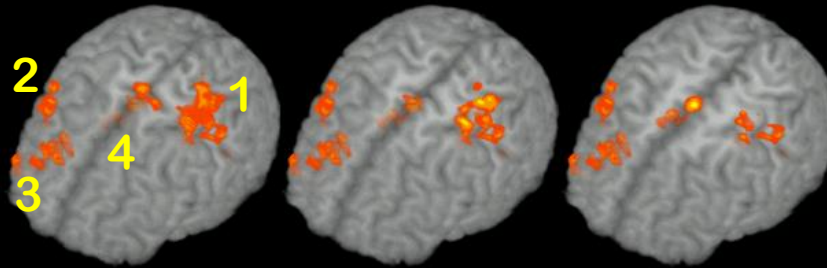
2) Contrast maps: contrast groups or conditions to identify which voxels show the greatest differences

Exploratory and descriptive

- *a priori* hypotheses not likely at voxel level
(not functionally meaningful units)
- Useful to localize strongest effects

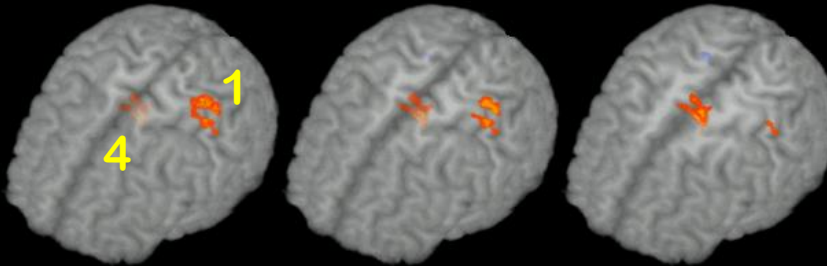
Example of Voxel-wise Group Contrasts

1-Back



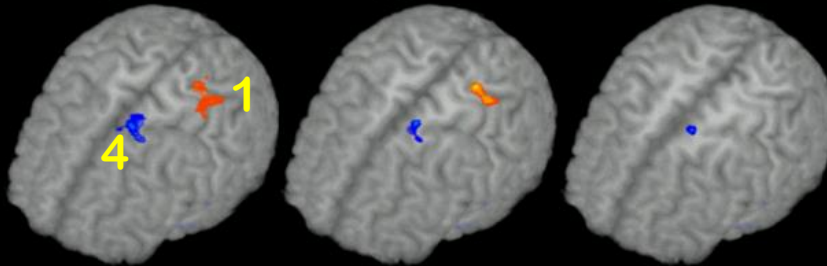
**Red = Greater activity
in the Multiple
Sclerosis group**

2-Back



**Blue = Greater activity
in the control group**

3-Back



**Performance accuracy
did not differ**

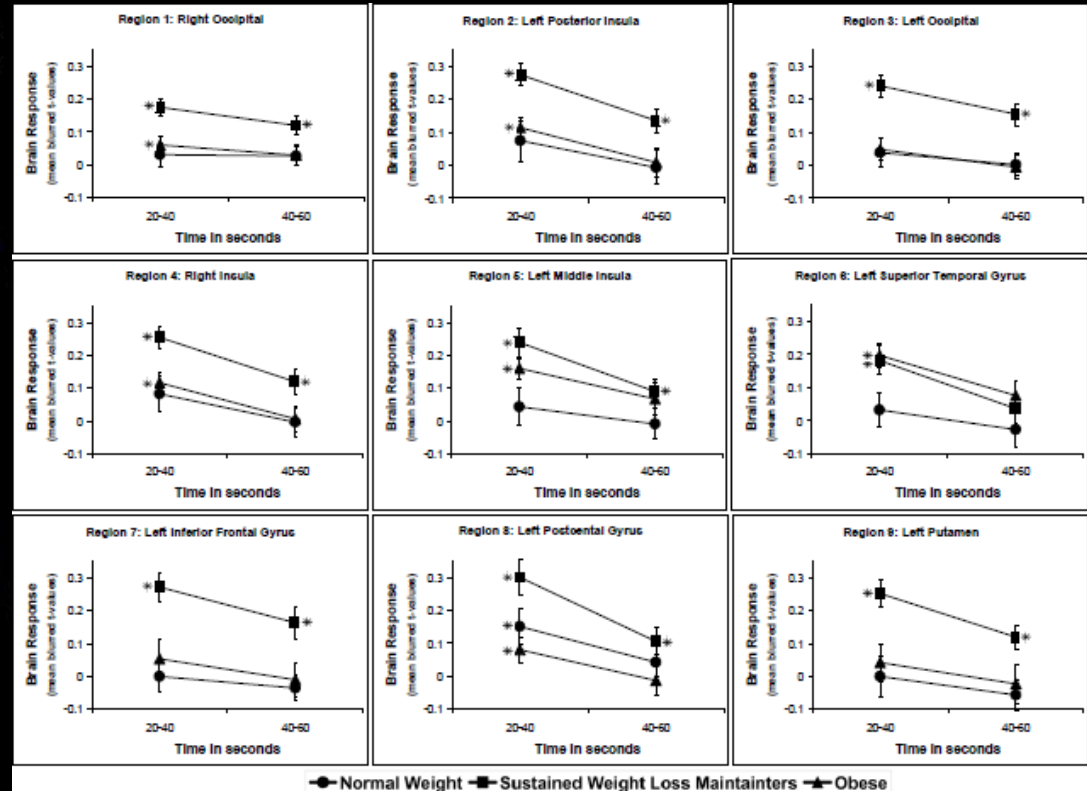
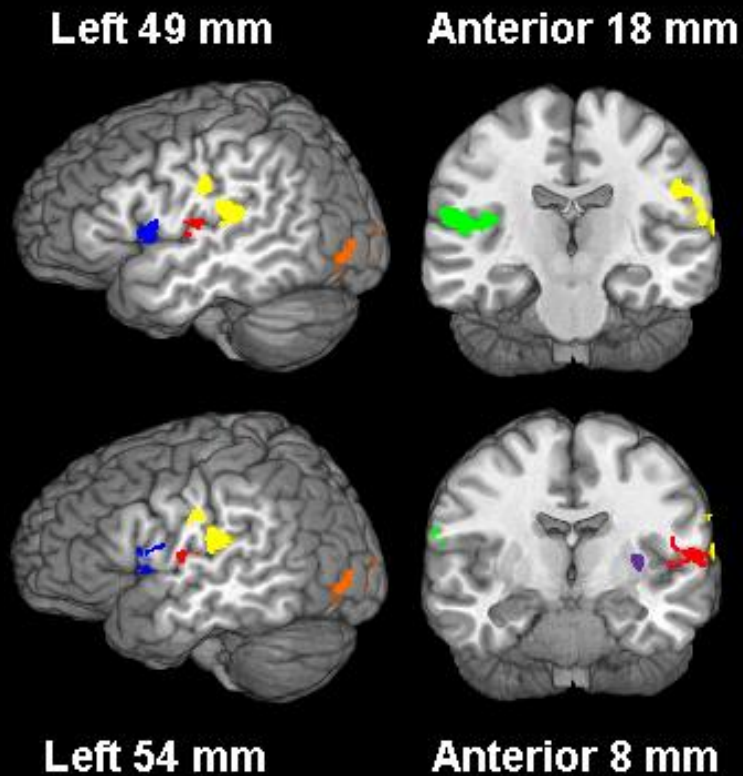
Sample: 15 Multiple Sclerosis Patients
15 Matched Healthy Controls

Results: MS patients exhibit greater brain response during working memory despite normal performance accuracy

Group Level Region of Interest Analyses

Summarize voxel effects across functionally meaningful brain regions

Example of ROI Analyses: Cue reactivity “Lollipop paradigm”



Sample: 17 Successful Weight-loss Maintainers (SWLM)
16 Obese Controls
17 Normal Weight Controls

Results: SWLM group exhibited greater reactivity and scored higher on dietary restraint