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Fornix deep brain stimulation circuit effect is dependent on major excitatory transmission via the nucleus accumbens

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ABSTRACT

Introduction: Deep brain stimulation (DBS) is a circuit-based treatment shown to relieve symptoms from multipleneurologic and neuropsychiatric disorders. In order to treat the memory deficit associated with Alzheimer's dis-18ease (AD), several clinical trials have tested the efficacy of DBS near the fornix. Early results from these studies19indicated that patients who received fornix DBS experienced an improvement in memory and quality of life,20yet the mechanisms behind this effect remain controversial. It is known that transmission between the medial21limbic and corticolimbic circuits plays an integral role in declarative memory, and dysfunction at the circuit22level results in various forms of dementia, including AD. Here, we aimed to determine the potential underlying23mechanism of fornix DBS by examining the functional circuitry and brain structures engaged by fornix DBS.24Methods: A multimodal approach was employed to examine global functional activity were measured by functional MRI26(fMRI), and local neurochemical changes were monitored by fast scan cyclic voltammetry (FSCV) during electri-27cal stimulation of the fornix. Additionally, intracranial microinfusions into the nucleus accumbens (NAc) were28performed to investigate the global activity changes that occur with dopamine and glutamate receptor-specific29antagonism.30

Results: Hemodynamic responses in both medial limbic and corticolimbic circuits measured by fMRI were in- 31 duced by fornix DBS. Additionally, fornix DBS resulted in increases in dopamine oxidation current (correspond- 32 ing to dopamine efflux) monitored by FSCV in the NAc. Finally, fornix DBS-evoked hemodynamic responses in 33 the amygdala and hippocampus decreased following dopamine and glutamate receptor antagonism in the NAc. 34 *Conclusions:* The present findings suggest that fornix DBS modulates dopamine release on presynaptic dopami- 35 nergic terminals in the NAc, involving excitatory glutamatergic input, and that the medial limbic and 36 corticolimbic circuits interact in a functional loop. 37

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50 Introduction

51 Deep brain stimulation (DBS) is a neurosurgical treatment for vari-52 ous neurologic and neuropsychiatric disorders, including Parkinson's 53 disease, dystonia, major depression, and obsessive-compulsive disorder 54 (Benabid, 2003; Benabid et al., 1991; Greene, 2005; Lozano et al., 2012). 55 Recently, DBS has been applied within the medial limbic circuit (Papez 56 circuit), to address memory deficits associated with dementia (Laxton 57 et al., 2010; Ponce et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2012; Suthana et al.,

http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2015.12.056 1053-8119/© 2016 Published by Elsevier Inc. 2012). These early clinical studies indicated patient improvement in 58 cognition, memory, and quality of life, and suggested that neural activity 59 in memory-related circuitry might underlie this effect (Hardenacke 60 et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2013). 61

The medial limbic circuit is one of the major pathways primarily in- 62 volved in the cortical control of emotions and memory function 63 (Rajmohan and Mohandas, 2007). This circuit includes the hippocam- 64 pus (HP), fornix, mammillary body, anterior nucleus of the thalamus, 65 cingulate cortex, parahippocampal gyrus, and entorhinal cortex 66 (Mesulam, 2000). Within this circuit, the fornix is a major candidate 67 brain target for DBS to treat memory impairment (Hescham et al., 68 2013; Laxton and Lozano, 2013). Specifically, in Alzheimer's disease 69 (AD), it is proposed that fornix DBS influences memory recall by en- 70 hancing activity across distinct nodes involved in memory retrieval 71

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(Lee et al., 2013). One possible issue with fornix DBS arises from the di-7273 verse axons that travel through the fornix and terminate in distinct structures, including medial limbic and corticolimbic circuit compo-74 75nents. The fornix has major input and output pathways from the HP and medial temporal lobe as well as the HP to the nucleus accumbens 76 (NAc) that have known involvement in an array of cognitive processes 77 78(Kahn and Shohamy, 2013; Saint Marie et al., 2010). Although fornix 79DBS likely involves a wide range of axonal fiber effects, characterizing 80 the electrical stimulation-induced response on neuronal communica-81 tion beyond a few synapses is extremely challenging.

82 In place of a modular paradigm that views brain areas as independent processors, it is now accepted that dynamic functional connec-83 tivity among distributed neural nodes underlies many of the more 84 85 complex neural functions (Bressler and Menon, 2010; McIntosh, 1999; Sporns, 2014). Communication between regions of the medial 86 limbic and corticolimbic circuits, including the HP, NAc, amygdala 87 (AM), and prefrontal cortex (PFC), are known to be critical for mem-88 ory consolidation and retrieval (Badre et al., 2014; Carr et al., 2011; 89 Hamann et al., 1999; Horner et al., 2015; Lisman and Grace, 2005; 90 Schedlbauer et al., 2014). The ventral striatum in particular, which in-91 cludes the NAc, is involved in cognitive control during memory re-9293 trieval (Scimeca and Badre, 2012; Speer et al., 2014). Moreover, 94functional MRI (fMRI) studies have shown that AD patients show decreased resting state activity in HP, PFC, and increased ventral stria-95tum activity compared to age-matched controls (Buckner et al., 96 2005; Greicius et al., 2004; Zhou and Seeley, 2014). Together, these 97 observations suggest that the inter-connected circuits play a distinct 98 99 role in memory consolidation and retrieval, and are affected during memory dysfunction in AD. 100

In order to investigate the global circuit involvement during DBS, we 101 102 have developed a technique that combines DBS and functional MRI 103(fMRI), as a means of tracing brain circuitry and testing the modulatory 104 effects of electrical stimulation on a neuronal network (Knight et al., 2015; Min et al., 2014, 2012). Using this setup, we aimed to trace fornix 105DBS-induced global neural activity. Here, we measured the global blood 106 oxygen level-dependent (BOLD) changes following different pharmaco-107 logical manipulations and local dopaminergic neurotransmission in the 108 109 NAc to determine the functional connectivity between the medial limbic and corticolimbic circuits following fornix DBS. 110

Experimental procedures 111

Experimental overview 112

Global and local changes associated with fornix stimulation were 113 114 measured using three distinct experimental paradigms: (1) global hemodynamic changes using fMRI during fornix stimulation, (2) local 115neurochemical changes with fornix stimulation, and (3) global chang-116 es using fMRI pre- and post-NAc intracranial drug microinfusion. All 117 experiments began with stimulating lead implantation in the fornix, 118 119 followed by fMRI and intracranial drug microinfusions or carbon 120fiber microelectrode implantation and FSCV (Fig. 1A). In order to accurately and consistently implant the DBS electrode lead while mini-121mizing inter-subject variability, high-resolution image-based targeting 122was performed as previously described (Min et al., 2012; Kim et al., 1231242013). The DBS electrode was implanted anterior and parallel to the medial portion of the fornix, in order to avoid penetrating the tract, 125as damage to these fibers is known to cause memory deficits 126 (Laxton et al., 2010; Tsivilis et al., 2008; Vann et al., 2009; Wilson 127et al., 2008). To confirm that the target matched the final location 128of the electrode, post-surgical CT scans were co-registered with the 129pre-surgical magnetization prepared rapid acquisition gradient echo 130(MPRAGE) scan (Fig. 1C). For each subject, DBS lead contacts one 131 and two were marked on the sagittal plane of the swine brain atlas 132133 (Fig. 1C) (Felix et al., 1999).

Subjects

All study procedures were performed in accordance with the Na- 135 tional Institutes of Health Guidelines for Animal Research and approved 136 by Mayo Clinic Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. The sub- 137 ject group consisted of 17 normal healthy domestic swine (30 \pm 138 3 kg). For all experiments, subjects received high-frequency electrical 139 stimulation utilizing the parameters: biphasic 3, 5, or 7 V pulses at 140 130 Hz and pulse width of 150 µs (A-M System optical-isolated pulse 141 stimulator Model 12,100, Seguim, WA, USA). 142

Stereotactic surgery

DBS electrode targeting and implantation was performed with an 144 MR image-guided Leksell stereotactic targeting system (Elekta Inc., 145 Stockholm, Sweden) modified for large animals (Min et al., 2012; Kim 146 et al., 2013). A 3 Tesla MR scanner (General Electric Healthcare, 147 Wakasha, WI; Signa HDx, $16 \times$ software) with a custom four-channel 148 transmit-receive radiofrequency coil was used for preoperative ana- 149 tomical imaging. 3D MPRAGE images were used for MR image-based 150 targeting with swine brain atlas and COMPASS navigational software 151 (modified for large animals) to determine the Leksell coordinates for 152 stimulation target (Felix et al., 1999; Saikali et al., 2010; Shon et al., 153 2010) 154

Sedation was maintained with 1.5%–3% isoflurane during surgery 155 and 1.5%-1.75% isoflurane during the fMRI and NAc dopamine record- 156 ing experiments. Vital signs were continuously monitored throughout 157 the procedures. Upon sedation, subjects were implanted with a 158 quadripolar (contacts labeled 0, 1, 2, and 3) DBS electrode (Model 159 3389, Medtronic, Inc.). The electrode was positioned 2 mm anterior 160 and parallel to the fornix unilaterally based on the brain atlas and ana- 161 tomical landmarks (e.g., optic chiasm and mammillary bodies) to 162 avoid a lesion in the white matter fibers of the fornix (Fig. 1B) (Laxton 163 et al., 2010). The location of the electrode was confirmed through a 164 post-surgical computer tomography (CT) (dual source Somatom defini- 165 tion, Siemens AG) scan (image resolution 0.6 \times 0.6 \times 0.6 mm) which $_{166}$ was co-registered using a 6-parameter rigid-body transformation with 167 the pre-surgical MPRAGE scan (Fig. 1C) (FSL, FM-RIB Analysis group) 168 (Cho et al., 2010; Smith et al., 2004; Starr et al., 2002). 169

fMRI acquisition

no

Functional imaging was acquired with a custom six-channel trans- 171 mit-receive radiofrequency coil using gradient echo-echo planar imag- 172 ing (GRE-EPI): repetition time (TR) = 3000 ms; echo time = 34.1 ms; 173 flip angle = 90°; frequency direction, R/L; field of view = 17415 cm \times 15 cm; matrix size = 64 \times 64; axial slices 2.4 mm thick with 175 slice number = 32; spatial resolution gap: = 176 $2.34 \times 2.34 \times 2.4$ mm; scan duration = 390 s; 130 scans; integrated spa- 177 tial spectral pulse was used for fat suppression. For anatomical registra-178 tion, an additional single scan (GRE-EPI) was acquired in the identical 179 orientation as the fMRI. After 5 volumes of discarded acquisitions to 180 allow for scanner equilibrium, electrical stimulation was applied in a 181 block paradigm with five six-sec-stimulation epochs interspersed with 182 1 min of rest, with 10 min of rest between scans. 183

fMRI post-processing and general linear model (GLM) analysis 184

A standard pre-processing sequence, including slice scan time cor- 185 rection, three-dimensional motion correction, temporal filtering 186 (high-pass: Fourier basis set = 5 cycles, and low-pass: Gaussian filter, 187 full-width at half-maximum = 3.1 s), and spatial smoothing (Gaussian 188 filter with full-width at half-maximum = 1.1 pixels) was applied to 189 each data set (Brain Innovation, BrainVoyager QX, Netherlands). 190 Double-gamma hemodynamic response function (onset = 6 s, time to 191 response peak = 11 s, time to undershoot peak = 21 s, response 192

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