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Age-related increase of resting metabolic rate in the human brain

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ABSTRACT

With age, many aspects of the brain structure undergo a pronounced decline, yet individuals generally function 23 well until advanced old age. There appear to be several compensatory mechanisms in brain aging, but their 24 precise nature is not well characterized. Here we provide evidence that the brain of older adults expends more 25 energy when compared to younger adults, as manifested by an age-related increase (P = 0.03) in cerebral met- 26 abolic rate of oxygen (CMRO₂) (N = 118, men = 56, ages 18 to 74). We further showed that, before the mean 27 menopausal age of 51 years old, female and male groups have similar rates of CMRO₂ increase (P = 0.015) 28 and there was no interaction between age and sex effects (P = 0.85). However, when using data from the entire 29 age range, women have a slower rate of CMRO₂ change when compared to men (P < 0.001 for age \times sex interac- 30 tion term). Thus, menopause and estrogen level may have played a role in this sex difference. Our data also re- 31 vealed a possible circadian rhythm of CMRO₂ in that brain metabolic rate is greater at noon than in the 32 morning (P = 0.02). This study reveals a potential neurobiological mechanism for age-related compensation 33 in brain function and also suggests a sex-difference in its temporal pattern. 34

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Introduction

The human brain consumes about 20% of the total energy, although it 41 42 only accounts for 2% of the total body weight (Attwell and Laughlin, 2001). In addition, most of the oxygen that brain consumes is used for 43neural activity (Buxton, 2002). Thus, the rate of oxygen consumption 44 by the brain, referred to as cerebral metabolic rate of oxygen (CMRO₂), 4546 is an important index for neural activity. Regulation of brain metabolism is critical for the maintenance of normal cognitive function. In the con-47 text of brain aging, earlier studies showed that resting CMRO₂ were 48 49 lower in older subjects (Aanerud et al., 2012; Eustache et al., 1995; Ibaraki et al., 2010; Yamaguchi et al., 1986), whereas activation data 50usually show that task-evoked fMRI signal (presumably reflecting 5152task-evoked CMRO₂ changes) increases with age (Cabeza et al., 2004; 53Cappell et al., 2010; Daselaar et al., 2003; Park et al., 2003). Therefore,

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the exact relationship between CMRO2 and age requires further 54 examination.

Most of the prior studies on resting CMRO₂ were conducted using 56 Positron Emission Tomography (PET) (Aanerud et al., 2012; Eustache 57 et al., 1995; Ibaraki et al., 2010; Yamaguchi et al., 1986), which until re- 58 cently was the only method to measure CMRO₂ in humans. Only a few 59 of these had accompanying high-resolution (e.g. 1 mm³) MRI image to 60 allow careful delineation of regions of interest (Aanerud et al., 2012), 61 and none had corrected partial volume effect at high-resolution. A poten- 62 tial limitation of low-resolution images in the study of aging is that, as 63 brain atrophy occurs, cerebral spinal fluid (CSF) volume fraction in the 64 voxel increases and tissue fraction decreases, which could result in a 65 CMRO₂ reduction in the absence of any real tissue metabolic change. 66 Recently, using a novel, MRI-based CMRO₂ technique (Xu et al., 2009), 67 we presented preliminary evidence that CMRO₂ may, in fact, increase 68 in older individuals (Lu et al., 2011). A limitation of that study is that it 69 did not account for a possible age-related decline in hemoglobin concen-70 tration (Aanerud et al., 2012), which is important for accurate estimation 71 of CMRO₂. Indeed, when re-analyzing the data by including hematocrit 72 changes, the age effect on CMRO2 now becomes a trend only. Additional-73 ly, CMRO2 measured in that study was based on blood flow determined 74

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at the level of cervical spine (Lu et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2009), which is not
as accurate as that determined at a more proximal (relative to the brain)
location of foramen magnum (Liu et al., 2013).

78 Another unexplored aspect in the prior study is that sex differences in the age-pattern. Sex differences in brain metabolism have yet to be 79 characterized. Previous work by Baxter et al.(1987) showed that 80 young women (age 28-39 years) have a higher cerebral metabolic 81 82 rate of glucose (CMR_{glu}) compared to young men (Baxter et al., 1987), 83 which is consistent with animal research findings that estrogen injec-84 tion enhances brain glucose metabolism (Namba and Sokoloff, 1984). 85 On the other hand, estrogen levels in females are known to change with age, thus this enhancing effect, if present, may dissipate with age. 86 Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that the age-pattern of oxygen met-87 88 abolic rate may also be sex dependent.

In the present study, we determined global CMRO₂ in a healthy cohort 89 of 118 subjects across the adult life span. Our CMRO₂ measure accounted 90 for brain atrophy effect using a high-resolution $(1 \times 1 \times 1 \text{ mm}^3)$ ana-91 92tomic image. The dependence of CMRO₂ on age and sex as well as the sex dependence of the age effect, i.e. the interaction between the vari-93 ables, were examined. These findings were interpreted in the context of 94 age-dependence of two constituent parameters, cerebral blood flow 95 (CBF) and venous oxygenation (Y_v). Finally, potential dependence of 96 97 CMRO₂ on circadian phase and ethnicity was examined.

98 Materials and methods

99 Participants

The study population consisted of 118 healthy subjects (62 female 100 and 56 male). The age range in our inclusion criteria was 18-74 years. 101 The Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act (HIPAA) com-102 103 pliant protocol was approved by the UT Southwestern Institutional Review Board and written informed consent was obtained from all par-104 105ticipants. The participants were carefully screened and did not report neurological or psychiatric disorders according to self-completed ques-106 tionnaires. The participants did not have MR contraindications such as 107metal implants, pacemaker, neurostimulator, body piercings, or claus-108 109trophobia. Since our hypothesis involved the effect of estrogen on brain metabolism, the history of postmenopausal hormone replacement 110 therapy was also used as an exclusion criterion to avoid confounding 111 factors. Demographic information of the participants is listed in 112Table 1. There was no significant difference in age distribution between 113women and men (mean age \pm SD, 38 \pm 18 y for women; 36 \pm 16 y for 114 men; Chi-square test, P = 0.12). The ethnic makeup of the participants 115 included Caucasian (53%), Asian (32%), and African American (15%). 116

117 Experimental procedures

All experiments were conducted on a 3 T MR system (Philips Medical 118 System, Best, The Netherlands). The body coil was used for radiofrequen-119cy transmission and an eight-channel sensitivity encoding (SENSE) head 120 121 coil was used for receiving. Foam padding was used to stabilize the head 122 to minimize motion. A localizer scan was performed for slice positioning and a coil sensitivity scan was conducted for SENSE reconstruction. The 123CMRO₂ data acquisition took approximately 5 min and is detailed 124below. Additionally, a 3D T₁-weighted Magnetization-prepared-rapid-125

t1.1	Table	•

t1.2	Subject	demograph	ic inf	formation
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t1.3		Female subjects	Male subjects	All subjects
:1.4	Number of Caucasian	36	27	63
1.5	Number of Asian	19	18	37
1.6	Number of African American	7	11	18
1.7	Subtotal	62	56	118

acquisition-of-gradient-echo (MPRAGE) scan was performed for ana- 126 tomical reference and the estimation of brain volume. The MPRAGE 127 sequence used the following imaging parameters: repetition time 128 (TR)/echo time (TE)/flip angle = $8.1 \text{ ms}/3.7 \text{ ms}/12^\circ$, shot interval 129 2100 ms, inversion time (TI) = 1100 ms, voxel size = $1 \times 1 \times 1 \text{ mm}^3$, 130 number of slices 160, sagittal slice orientation, and scan duration = 131 3 min 57 s. These procedures did not use any exogenous tracers. 132

Measurement of CMRO₂

The method used to quantify global CMRO₂ followed techniques 134 originally developed by Xu et al. (Xu et al., 2009) and was recently im- 135 proved by Liu et al. (Liu et al., 2013). It is based on the Fick principle of 136 the arteriovenous differences in oxygen content (Kety and Schmidt, 137 1948): 138

133

$$tCMRO_2 = tCBF \cdot (Y_a - Y_v) \cdot C_h$$
⁽¹⁾

where tCMRO₂ and tCBF are total CMRO₂ and cerebral blood flow, respec- $\,$ 140 tively; Y_a and Y_v are oxygen saturation percentage in arterial and venous

blood, respectively; and C_h is a constant representing the capacity of 141 blood to carry O₂ and is well established in physiology literature 142 (Guyton and Hall, 2005). Here we used Ch values of 8.15 µmol O₂/ml 143 blood for young female and 8.56 µmol O₂/ml blood for young male, 144 based on assumed hematocrit of 0.40 and 0.42, respectively (Guyton 145 and Hall, 2005). A recent study suggested that hematocrit may decrease 146 with age (Aanerud et al., 2012). Thus, Ch of each individual was adjusted 147 for this decline rate of 0.0079 µmol/ml per year in our calculation 148 (Aanerud et al., 2012). Y_a is close to unity and our earlier study has 149 shown that both age and sex have a small but significant effect on this pa- 150 rameter: $Y_a = 99.77 - 0.036 \times age - 1.235 \times sex + 0.021 \times age \times sex$ 151 (Lu et al., 2011), where age is written in years and sex uses 0 and 1 for fe- 152 male and male, respectively. We therefore used this equation to estimate 153 Y_a of each individual according to their age and sex. The two parameters 154 that are most variable are tCBF and Yv, which are experimentally deter- 155 mined as described below, from which tCMRO₂ in units of µmol O₂/min 156 was calculated. 157

Global venous oxygenation, Y_v , was noninvasively assessed from the 158 superior sagittal sinus (SSS) using a validated approach T_2 -relaxation-159 under-spin-tagging (TRUST) MRI (Lu and Ge, 2008; Lu et al., 2012; Xu 160 et al., 2012). The imaging parameters were: voxel size $3.44 \times 3.44 \times 161$ 5 mm³, TR = 3000 ms, TI = 1022 ms, four effective TEs: 0, 40, 80, 162 160 ms, labeling thickness 100 mm, gap 22.5 mm, and scan duration 163 1.2 min. For processing TRUST MRI data, pairwise subtraction between 164 control and tag images was performed, the difference of which yields 165 pure venous blood signal (Fig. 1a). The venous blood signals were fitted 166 to a monoexponential function to obtain T_2 (Fig. 1b), which was in turn 167 converted to Y_v via a calibration plot (Lu et al., 2012). 168

Phase-contrast (PC) flow velocity MRI was used to measure the total 169 CBF to the entire brain. Before the flow measurements, time-of-flight 170 angiogram was performed to obtain the anatomical information of the 171 feeding arteries of the brain. Imaging parameters of the angiogram 172 were: TR/TE/flip angle = 23 ms/3.45 ms/18°, field of view (FOV) = 173 $160 \times 160 \times 70.5 \text{ mm}^3$, voxel size = $0.3 \times 0.3 \times 1.5 \text{ mm}^3$, number of 174 slices = 47, one 60-mm saturation slab positioned above the imaging 175slab, and scan duration = 1.4 min. Based on the maximum intensity 176 projection reconstruction of the angiogram, four PC MRI scans were 177 then placed on the four feeding arteries of the brain: right internal carot-178 id artery (right ICA), left internal carotid artery (left ICA), right vertebral 179 artery (right VA), and left vertebral artery (left VA) (Fig. 1c) (Liu et al., 180 2013). A region-of-interest (ROI) was then drawn on each of the 4 arter- 181 ies based on the magnitude image (Aslan et al., 2010). The ROI mask 182 was applied to the velocity map and the integration of the velocity with- 183 in the ROI (i.e., velocity \times area) yielded CBF in units of milliliters per 184 minute. Scan parameters were as follows: one slice, FOV = 200×185 $200 \times 5 \text{ mm}^3$, voxel size = $0.5 \times 0.5 \times 5 \text{ mm}^3$, 4 averages, maximum 186

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