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Voxel-based statistical analysis of thalamic glucose metabolism in traumatic brain injury: Relationship with consciousness and cognition

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Abstract

Objective: To study the relationship between thalamic glucose metabolism and neurological outcome after severe traumatic brain injury (TBI).

Methods: Forty-nine patients with severe and closed TBI and 10 healthy control subjects with ¹⁸F-FDG PET were studied. Patients were divided into three groups: MCS&VS group ($n = 17$), patients in a vegetative or a minimally conscious state; In-PTA group ($n = 12$), patients in a state of post-traumatic amnesia (PTA); and Out-PTA group ($n = 20$), patients who had emerged from PTA. SPM5 software implemented in MATLAB 7 was used to determine the quantitative differences between patients and controls. FDG-PET images were spatially normalized and an automated thalamic ROI mask was generated. Group differences were analysed with two sample voxel-wise t -tests.

Results: Thalamic hypometabolism was the most prominent in patients with low consciousness (MCS&VS group) and the thalamic hypometabolism in the In-PTA group was more prominent than that in the Out-PTA group. Healthy control subjects showed the greatest thalamic metabolism. These differences in metabolism were more pronounced in the internal regions of the thalamus.

Conclusions: The results confirm the vulnerability of the thalamus to suffer the effect of the dynamic forces generated during a TBI. Patients with thalamic hypometabolism could represent a sub-set of subjects that are highly vulnerable to neurological disability after TBI.

Keywords: Voxel-based analysis, positron emission tomography, consciousness, PET-FDG, prognosis, thalamus, traumatic brain injury

Introduction

Most traumatic brain injuries (TBI) result in widespread damage to the brain from the shearing forces exerted during rapid accelerations and decelerations during impact. This mechanism may produce both

focal and diffuse axonal injury (DAI). Focal cerebral contusions result from mechanical distortion of tissue preferentially in the ventral and polar frontal and anterior temporal areas, where the brain is confined by the bony ridges of the inner skull.

115 This focal damage is usually easily detected with
116 conventional neuroimaging techniques [1]. On the
117 other hand, diffuse axonal disruptions are caused by
118 both linear and rotational acceleration-deceleration
119 forces and exhibit a centripetal gradient such that the
120 more severe the injury, the deeper are the lesions
121 in the brain [2, 3]. The presence of DAI makes
122 TBI particularly challenging for anatomic-clinical
123 correlations because, although DAI is considered to
124 be the major determinant of outcome after TBI,
125 it is usually under-diagnosed by conventional
126 neuroimaging techniques [4, 5].

127 The unique combination of diffuse and focal
128 damage as well as the transient visibility of DAI
129 have been proposed to explain why standard neuro-
130 imaging techniques, such as computed tomography
131 (CT) or magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), which
132 are traditionally useful in other neurological diseases,
133 have failed to reveal a consistent relationship
134 between function and the site of structural lesions
135 in most cases of TBI [4, 6–8]. The advent of new
136 functional neuroimaging techniques has revealed
137 areas of cerebral dysfunction in regions that appear
138 structurally intact on CT or MRI [1, 9–13]. This
139 differential sensitivity of neuroimaging techniques
140 has special clinical relevance when functional
141 changes in the deep brain nuclei affected by DAI
142 are to be detected. In this sense, the thalamus is
143 a particularly interesting structure to study since it
144 plays a crucial role in neurocognitive processes as
145 a centrally located relay station for information
146 through the brain [14]. Thalamic functions include
147 the integration of sensorimotor functions through its
148 connections with the associative cortex, the regula-
149 tion of consciousness and arousal mechanisms
150 through the reticulothalamic system, the control of
151 emotions as a component of the limbic system, and
152 it is also involved in language and cognitive functions
153 through specific thalamo-cortico-thalamic connec-
154 tions [14–16].

155 Most previous investigations on thalamic metab-
156 olism in patients with TBI have focused on its
157 relationship with the level of consciousness through
158 its connections with the ascending reticular activat-
159 ing system [17–19]. The clinical relevance of tha-
160 lamic metabolism in non-comatose patients, as well
161 as the participation of this structure in neuronal
162 networks responsible of more complex cognitive
163 functions, has been limited by difficulties in neuro-
164 imaging data analysis that can make one understand
165 brain function in terms of a dynamic flow of
166 information across large-scale brain pathways
167 [20, 21].

168 In recent years, the development of different voxel-
169 based image analysis methods has improved the
170 accuracy and objectivity in the detection of metabolic
171 abnormalities between groups of patients with

injuries in the central nervous system [13]. 172
Specifically, studies of the functional connectivity 173
in patients with a low level of arousal have identi- 174
fied a specific metabolic impairment in a wide 175
cortico-subcortical network as an expression of 176
a disconnection syndrome encompassing cortico- 177
thalamo-cortical connections affected by DAI lesions 178
[18]. The clinical relevance of thalamic metabolisms 179
in TBI patients without disorders of consciousness, 180
such as those in a post-traumatic amnesia (PTA) 181
period or those who have emerged from PTA has 182
been poorly investigated. 183

184 Previous studies have focused on quantifying 184
neuronal volume loss in TBI and studying the 185
physiopathological mechanisms that cause this loss 186
(diffuse vs traumatic axonal injury, stretching vs 187
shearing, etc.). This neuronal damage, which is 188
more pronounced in thalamic nuclei, has been 189
associated to traumatism severity and to patients' 190
outcome [22–24]. This paper studied the relation- 191
ship between neurological outcome and thalamic 192
function, measured through glucose metabolism, 193
in a sample of patients who had sustained a severe 194
TBI. This study has compared functional and 195
structural neuroimaging data in an effort to explain 196
those mechanisms affecting thalamic metabolism 197
after a TBI. For these purposes, a slightly modified 198
version of the voxel-based morphometry technique 199
(VBM) is introduced that was originally planned 200
for the analysis of anatomical MRIs [25, 26] to 201
analyse ¹⁸F-FDG-positron emission tomography 202
(PET) images. The aim of this study is to observe 203
the differences in thalamic metabolisms by compar- 204
ing one-volume-per-subject PET scans. In that way, 205
the method is more similar in concept to the original 206
VBM [25, 26], contrasting one scan per subject, 207
than the previously referenced studies, in which the 208
tests were conducted on images obtained at various 209
time points in the same session for each patient. 210
It is hypothesized that patients with lower thalamic 211
metabolism represent a sub-set of subjects that are 212
highly vulnerable to neurological and functional 213
disability after TBI. 214

215 216 217 **Material and methods**

218 219 *Patients*

220 From February 2000 through May 2009, 158 of
221 317 consecutive head-injury patients attending an
222 Acquired Brain Injury Rehabilitation Service of a
223 large metropolitan hospital underwent an ¹⁸F-FDG
224 PET. PET imaging data of 99 patients from the total
225 pool were available or had sufficient quality for
226 quantitative statistical analysis.

227 Seventy-nine of the 99 TBI patients with a
228 Glasgow Coma Scale score (GCS) ≤ 8 , aged between

16–65 years, were initially eligible for this study. All patients underwent a structural neuroimaging examination (MRI: $n=32$ and CT: $n=17$) a mean of 47.6 (SD 46.8) days after FDG-PET. All patients with large focal thalamic lesions or penetrating brain injury were excluded from the study and the presence of DAI on both sides of the thalamus was registered. All remaining patients were classified at inclusion in three clinical groups according either to their level of awareness (vegetative state and minimally consciousness state) or their cognitive status (PTA and out-of-PTA). The clinical criteria for a vegetative state and a minimally conscious state were adapted from the American Academy of Neurology recommendations [27]. Post-traumatic amnesia was prospectively evaluated with the Galveston Orientation and Amnesia Test (GOAT) [28] in all patients admitted during the PTA period or was retrospectively calculated on the basis of information given by family members in those patients who had already recovered from PTA at the time of admission to the facility.

According to this classification, a patient's neurological status at admission was defined as: vegetative state or minimally conscious state (MCS&VS group: $n=17$), PTA (In-PTA group: $n=12$) and Out of PTA patients (Out-PTA group: $n=20$) matched in age and chronicity with the two other groups. Ten healthy adult volunteers (mean age 40.8 (SD 15.4) years, range 21–49 years; six men and four women) were recruited as normal controls. None had a history of head injury or a major neurological, physical or psychiatric disorder. All study participants gave written informed consent. In patients with a low level of consciousness, consent was obtained from a close relative. Table I summarizes the demographic data of the three groups.

Table I. Comparison of characteristics between patients. Data are mean (SD).

	MCS&VS ($n=17$)	In-PTA ($n=12$)	Out-PTA ($n=20$)	p
Age (years)	30.3 (7.7)	35.2 (15.8)	30.9 (9)	NS
Chronicity (days)	293.9 (234.3)	255 (143.9)	217 (126)	NS
Sex (male/female)	14/3	7/5	17/3	NS
Education (years)	10 (3.4)	10 (4)	9.7 (3.3)	NS
Coma (days)	–	42.9 (58.6)	19.9 (18.9)	NS
PTA (days)	–	–	78.5 (72.5)	–
TCDB (n)				
Diffuse I/II/III/IV	0/1/8/0	0/6/2/0	0/12/2/1	0.03
Focal evacuated yes/no	6/2	2/2	3/2	
CT/MRI thalamic lesion (n)				
Diffuse unilateral	1	1	2	NS
Diffuse bilateral	1	0	0	
Aetiology (n)				NS
Traffic Motor/Pedestrian	12/1	6/1	13/2	
Falls	1	2	3	
Violent injuries	3	3	2	

Acquisition of PET images

All patients underwent a PET/CT brain study after an intravenous injection of a dose of 1–10 MBq kg^{-1} of 2-fluorine-2-deoxy-18F-D-glucose (FDG), with a maximum dose of 370 MBq. All patients remained without any food ingestion for at least 4–6 hours prior to the injection of the radiotracer. Furthermore, all of them presented blood glucose levels below 150 mg dl^{-1} . Patients remained at rest and in a supine position in a quiet, dark room from several minutes prior to the administration of the radiopharmaceutical until 30 minutes afterwards.

Images were obtained using a tomograph PET/CT (GE Discovery LS4 PET/CT Scanner System) with the acquisition of a CT transmission scan, followed by a 3D PET emission study that lasted for 10 minutes obtaining 4–5 mm slices. The reconstruction of the PET images was performed using an iterative algorithm with attenuation correction from the CT. The images were reoriented in a XELERIS console following the orbitomeatal axis, allowing the presentation of the study in transverse, coronal and sagittal views.

Voxel-based PET analysis

Images were processed and analysed on a Microsoft workstation with MATLAB 7.4 software (The MathWorks, Natick, MA) and SPM software (Statistical Parametric Mapping 5, Wellcome Department of Cognitive Neurology, Institute of Neurology, London, UK). The SPM standard functional method analysis could not be applied in this study, since the image acquisition consisted of a single image volume by subject. Besides, the PET standard template that is available in SPM5 was originally built using $(^{15}\text{O})\text{-H}(2)\text{O}$ PET images.

343 These two possible confounds and the use of a
344 template not originated from the study subjects'
345 data, could lead to inconsistent interpretations of the
346 statistical analysis [29]. To avoid these confounders,
347 a custom template was generated for each pair of
348 groups to be compared. That was a reliable and near
349 to reality source of information and avoided specific
350 bias that would result from the use of a standard
351 template. In the process of creating the custom tem-
352 plate, the SPM5 PET standard template was used.

353 The image intensity between participants was
354 normalized before the creation of the template.
355 This normalization consisted of detecting the voxel
356 with maximum intensity in the image and dividing
357 the intensity in each voxel by the maximum value.
358 These intensity values, indicators of metabolism,
359 became comparable values between subjects, remov-
360 ing variations such as metabolic differences because
361 of weight, age, etc. Spatial location was manually
362 checked for each volume image. Two volumes
363 were manually reoriented, as their centres were not
364 aligned with the anterior-posterior commissure line.

365 Afterwards, an initial spatial normalization to the
366 SPM PET standard template was achieved by using
367 an affine transformation of the normalized intensity
368 images of the study. The aim of such normalization,
369 i.e. placing all the brain regions in the same space,
370 was to obtain a custom PET template. The process
371 began by transferring each one of the normalized-
372 in-intensity images of the study to the same space by
373 means of a 12° of freedom affine transformation.
374 The output images were averaged to get a volumetric
375 reference image that summed up information from
376 all the original images. Subsequently, the average
377 image was smoothed by a three-dimensional filter,
378 a Gaussian kernel with full-width-at-half-maximum
379 of 6 mm × 6 mm × 6 mm. This smoothed image
380 was the custom PET template for this study. The
381 use of the Gaussian kernel made the voxel values
382 follow a normal distribution, while individual ana-
383 tomical differences that did not come from each
384 subject's clinical status were eliminated, thus
385 increasing the validity of the subsequent statistical
386 analysis [30].

387 After the PET template creation step, the original
388 volumes were warped by means of a non-linear
389 spatial normalization procedure to take them to the
390 custom PET template space. A selection of a Region
391 of Interest (ROI) that included the thalamus was
392 then made. The thalamus was traced automatically
393 by generating a mask of the region of interest using
394 the atlas proposed by Tzourio-Mazoyer et al. [31],
395 Automated Area Labeling (AAL) with the
396 software MRICron ([http://www.sph.sc.edu/comd/
397 rorden/mricron/](http://www.sph.sc.edu/comd/rorden/mricron/)), by creating a volume of interest
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(VOI 3D) around the region classified by AAL as the
thalamus, with a morphometrical dilation of three
voxels. By checking the generated mask on the
images to be analysed, it could be observed that the
obtained mask also took regions that could hinder
the study (pallidum and putamen). The mask was
therefore manually diminished, taking out these two
regions.

Statistical analyses

Statistical analysis of the images was carried out
under the framework of the General Linear Model
(GLM) using the SPM software. A design matrix
and a model of statistical test for comparison were
defined for each pair of groups (Controls >
MCS&VS, Controls > In-PTA, Controls > Out-
PTA, Out-PTA > MCS&VS, Out-PTA > In-PTA
and In-PTA > MCS&VS and their opposites).

The model fitting consisted of estimating the
parameters to obtain the best approximation of the
data to the model. A resolution of the model was
made by means of a two-sample Student's *t*-test
that was independently applied to each voxel using
contrasts, with the aim of measuring the interactions
and, therefore, the possible differences between each
pair of groups.

The levels of statistical significance were estab-
lished by applying, in each case, a correction for
multiple comparisons using the technique of ratio
of false positives (False Discovery Rate, FDR) [32],
which controls the proportion of false positives in the
study and corrects potential problems of repeating
a linear statistical test on hundreds of thousands of
voxels. Thus, differences in the thalamic metabolism
between the three groups of patients and the healthy
control group were tested using $p < 0.05$ as a level of
statistical significance for an FDR-corrected value.

Results

There were significant differences in the thalamic
metabolism comparisons between the four groups,
compared two by two. Those differences are specified
below. The control group showed the largest differ-
ence in thalamic metabolism compared against the
other groups, achieving the greatest difference
between the healthy controls and MCS&VS group
(patients in Minimally Conscious State or Vegetative
State) (Figure 1, upper part). The second greatest
difference was observed between the healthy controls
and In-PTA group (patients in post-traumatic amne-
sia) (Figure 1, middle part) and finally the controls
and Out-PTA group (patients who have emerged
from PTA) (Figure 1, lower part). Otherwise,
no differences were detected in the opposite direction

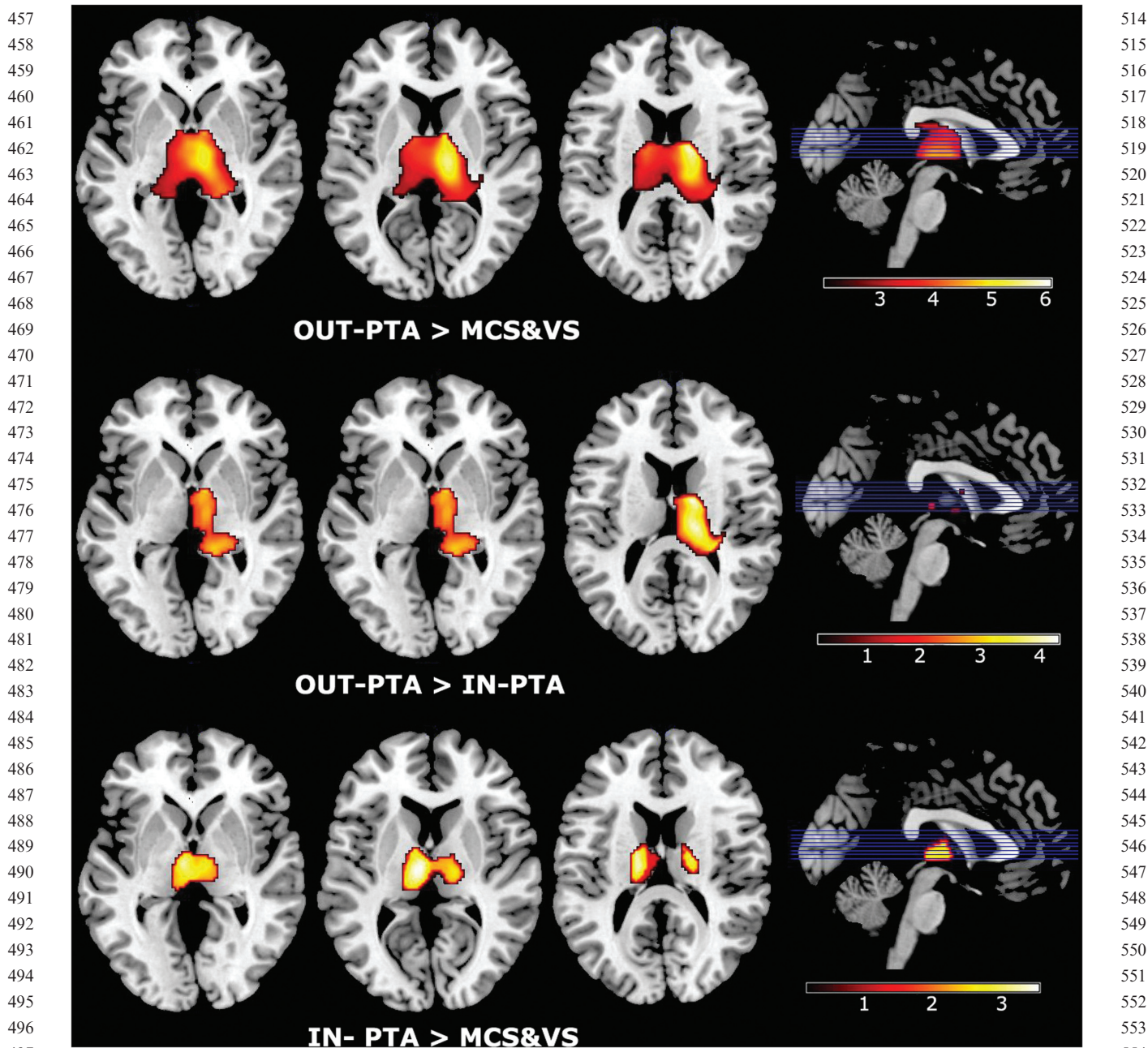


Figure 1. Metabolic differences between controls and patients. Upper part: metabolic differences between controls and patients in minimally conscious state or vegetative state (Control > MCS&VS). Middle part: metabolic differences between controls and patients in a post-traumatic amnesia state (Controls > In-PTA). Lower part: metabolic differences between controls and patients who have emerged from a post-traumatic amnesia state (Control > Out-PTA). Right part: Sagittal view of thalamus with metabolism-differences-intensity-bar with Z-values below.

(i.e. no voxel survived the comparisons: MCS&VS > Control, In-APT > Control and Out-APT > Control).

An increased thalamic metabolism was found in the Out-PTA group compared to the MCS&VS group (Figure 2, upper part). This comparison showed the higher metabolism difference between patients. Increased metabolism was also detected

in the Out-PTA group compared to the In-PTA group (Figure 2, middle part), but in this case, as is observed in Figure 2, only unilateral thalamic metabolic differences had been detected. Between-groups differences in the number and location of thalamic lesions or the existence of focal lateralized lesions in cortical areas which are connected to the thalamus, in combination

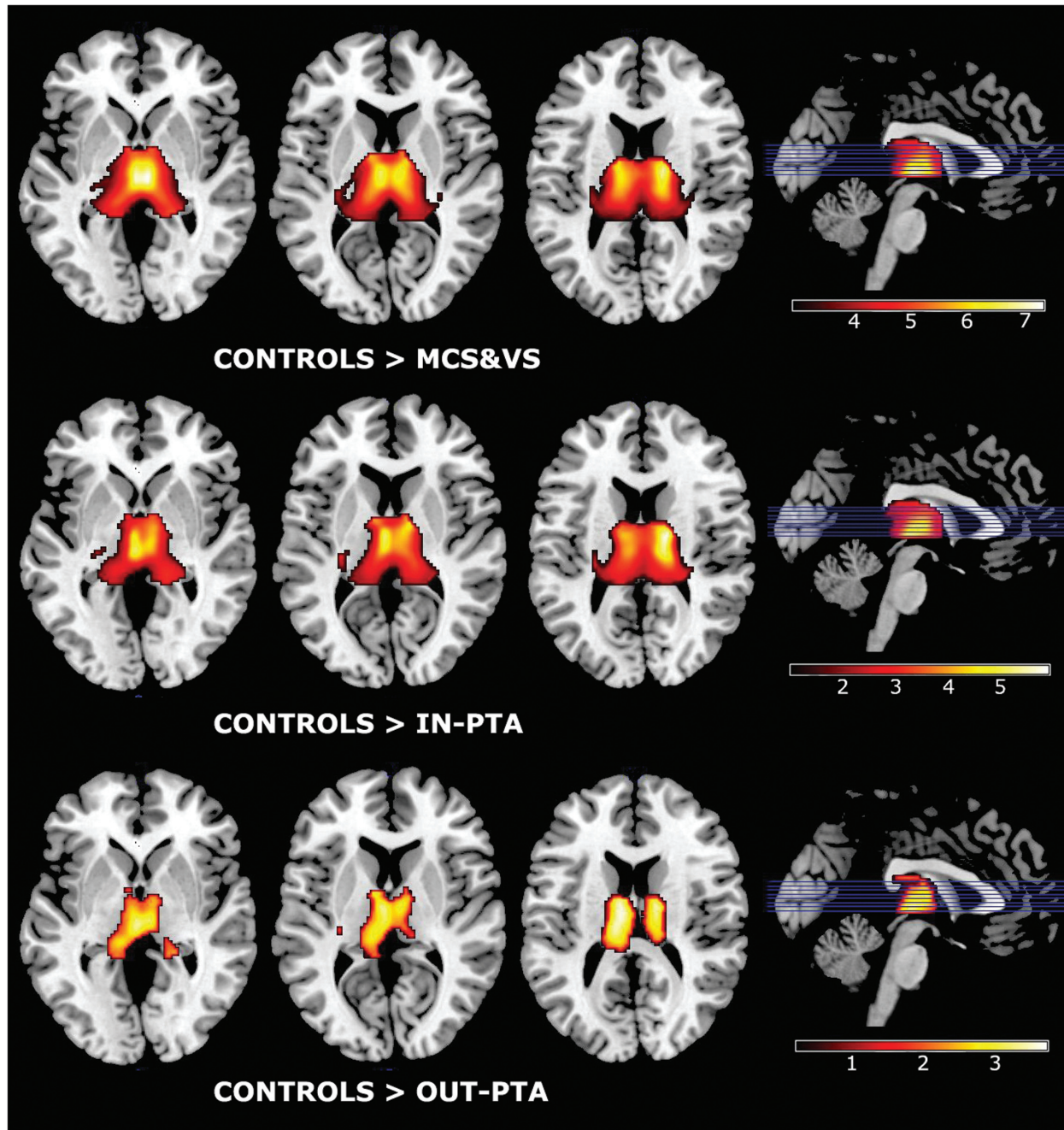
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Figure 2. Metabolic differences between patients. Upper part: metabolic differences between patients who have emerged from a PTA state and patients in minimally conscious state or vegetative state (Out-PTA > MCS&VS). Middle part: metabolic differences between patients who have emerged from a PTA state and patients in a PTA state (Out-PTA > In-PTA). Lower part: metabolic differences between patients in a PTA state and patients in a minimally conscious state or vegetative state (In-PTA > MCS&VS). Right part: Sagittal view of thalamus with metabolism-differences-intensity-bar with Z-values below.

with sample length limitations, could possibly explain the results. Specifically, six (30%) of the Out-PTA patients had unilateral focal lesions in the frontal cortex compared to three (25%) of the In-PTA patients, but between-groups hemispheric differences in the location of those lesions reached 80%. There was no increased activation in any area of the thalamus when testing in the opposite direction

(In-PTA > Out-PTA or MCS&VS > Out-PTA). Finally, significant metabolism differences were found in the comparison In-PTA > MCS&VS (Figure 1, lower part). No voxel survived the reverse test (MCS&VS > In-PTA).

The results are presented in the form of parametric probability maps where the intensity or brightness of each voxel was determined by its corresponding z statistic (Table II).

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Groups	<i>p</i> corrected	Ke	Z-values	Coordinates (mm)	Region
Controls > MCS&VS	0.008	4260	7,07	4-18 0	Right Thalamus
			6,78	16-10 16	Right Thalamus
			6,28	-12-14 18	Left Thalamus
Controls > In-PTA	0.002	3758	5,88	14-12 16	Right Thalamus
			5,75	16-20 18	Right Thalamus
			5,48	-2-12 6	Left Thalamus
Controls > Out-PTA	0.010	1942	3,87	-10-16 18	Left Thalamus
			3,75	14-12 18	Right Thalamus
			3,55	-2-20 0	Left Thalamus
Out-PTA > MCS&VS	0.032	3533	6,07	14-2 14	Right Thalamus
			5,61	12-16 8	Right Thalamus
			4,04	18-34 0	Right Thalamus
Out-PTA > In-PTA	0.025	1664	4,15	12-4 14	Right Thalamus
			3,96	14-22 16	Right Thalamus
			3,93	12-2 6	Right Thalamus
In-PTA > MCS&VS	0.022	1140	3,6	-16-14 18	Left Thalamus
			3,59	-6-12 6	Left Thalamus
			3,43	-16-6 16	Left Thalamus

Discussion

Knowledge about structural and functional brain connectivity has recently improved thanks to the development of new neuroimaging techniques and new mathematical models precise enough to detect the location and quantify the function of specific brain structures and neuronal pathways [20]. Recent functional connectivity studies based on these advances have shed some light on some of the neural structures and activity patterns that underlie specific human behaviours in normal and pathological conditions [14, 15, 17, 18]. Fragmentations by regions of interest (ROI) and especially VBM techniques have been used recently in these studies to understand some of the symptoms that occur in patients who have suffered a TBI [13, 33]. These techniques have been able to characterize quantitatively the distribution of anatomical structures [24], such as the thalamus, that appear more functionally involved in maintaining consciousness [12, 17, 18, 34, 35].

Using a VBM technique, the results agree with previous studies that have documented a selective vulnerability of the thalamus and a direct relationship between greater thalamic injury and poorer clinical outcome after a TBI, suggesting that thalamic metabolism may provide valuable information regarding long-term morbidity [3, 12, 36-38]. The greatest thalamic hypometabolism in the group of patients with the worst functional status, as well as the severity of this hypometabolism in the deepest thalamic nuclei, agree with the TBI depth of lesion model postulated by Ommaya and Gennarelli [39]. According to this theory, the distribution of lesions

after a TBI follows a centripetally directed cortical-subcortical-brainstem sequence of progression, which correlates precisely with the increasing severity of head injury. Conventional imaging studies supporting this theory have shown a clear relationship between the depth of brain lesions and the severity of impaired consciousness [3, 36, 40]. Anatomical studies confirm this assumption since it is well known that the reticular activating system, including mid-line structures in the upper pons, midbrain and thalamus, is crucial to the maintenance of wakefulness [41]. Unfortunately, limitations in the sample size did not allow one to differentiate between patients who were in a vegetative state or in a minimally conscious state. In this sense, Nakayama et al. [12] have previously shown that the gradient of thalamic hypometabolism described here can also distinguish between these two clinical situations.

Many neuropathological studies have shown that lesions in the thalamic mid-line and intralaminar nuclei that act as the apex of this 'activating system', even in the presence of a relatively intact cortex, are enough to justify a low state of awareness as described in cases of vegetative state [42]. The decreased thalamic metabolism, occurring not only in the patients in a vegetative or minimally conscious state, but also in the patients with an adequate level of awareness, might be related to many of the cognitive problems presented by these patients, especially those studied during the PTA period [43]. Data on functional neuroimaging studies including patients during the PTA period are still not available to the authors' knowledge. Furthermore, the few structural neuroimaging

799 studies previously published during this period have
800 shown a preferential involvement of the medial
801 temporal cortex, the central brain structures or the
802 connections between both [44, 45].

803 Three main possibilities have been suggested in
804 the literature to explain the diminished thalamic
805 metabolism found in this study [12, 17, 18, 34, 36].
806 First, it could be more reflective of the diminished
807 activity in thalamic regions due to focal thalamic
808 injuries; second, it could also be a disconnection
809 process caused by DAI in the white matter; or, third,
810 it could represent a downstream deafferentation
811 phenomenon caused by focal cortical contusions
812 in structures that are connected with the thalamus.
813 Prior studies show that the thalamus is protected
814 from the direct traumatic insult which is caused after
815 a TBI, so the appearing of neuropathological
816 changes in the thalamus are most probably due to
817 secondary degeneration, when other structures,
818 especially cortical, are damaged [46]. The vast
819 majority of the patients showed an absence of
820 structural lesions in the thalamus, which may suggest
821 that the thalamic hypometabolism described here
822 supports the disconnection/deafferentation theory.
823 However, it is also possible that the low sensitivity
824 of the structural neuroimaging technique used or the
825 chronicity of this sample precluded the detection
826 of focal structural damage. Future studies, including
827 data analysis of the cortical metabolism in those
828 areas anatomically connected with the thalamus,
829 are currently being carried out in the institution to
830 resolve this question.

831 Given the physiological relevance of thalamic
832 connections, not only with cortical, but also with
833 subcortical structures, thalamic hypometabolism in
834 severe TBI should be interpreted as an alarm sign
835 since it clearly represent a decrease in connectivity
836 and therefore in functionality of such networks.
837 The data are consistent with the findings of Little
838 et al. [47] using Diffusion Tensor Image, suggesting
839 that cognitive dysfunction after TBI is correlated
840 with the integrity of thalamocortical projection
841 fibres. Other clinical responses, ranging from coma
842 through better stages of recovery, could be the
843 expression of the level of functionality of these
844 neuronal connections.

845 These results suggest that functional neuroimag-
846 ing techniques offer the clinician a more accurate
847 picture of the cerebral dysfunction resulting after
848 TBI than conventional techniques. This information
849 may help to understand the pathophysiological
850 mechanisms that underlie many of the symptoms
851 that these patients present along the evolution of the
852 disease. Functional neuroimaging will never replace
853 clinical assessment, but both combined can help
854 clinical decision-making, rehabilitation planning and
855 communication with patients and their families by

showing a vision of residual brain function after the 856
injury. Bearing in mind the cross-sectional design 857
of this study and considering that PET imaging 858
was performed at rest, the challenge now is to 859
discover the conditions and mechanisms by which 860
some of these patients regain consciousness and 861
improve cognition. 862

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