Table 2 Differences in values of FA and axial/radial diffusivity in VOI between patients and healthy control subjects

			ANCOVA [†]	
FA and axial/radial diffusivity	Stroke patients ($n = 18$)	Healthy control subjects $(n = 22)$	F _{1,36}	P-value
Left anterior limb of internal capsule	1.11			
FA	0.41 ± 0.08	0.48 ± 0.03	16.4	<0.001**
Axial diffusivity (×10 ⁻³)	4.16 ± 0.32	4.37 ± 0.30	4.24	0.05*
Radial diffusivity (×10 ⁻³)	3.96 ± 0.30	4.04 ± 0.29	0.48	0.49
Right anterior limb of internal capsule				
FA	0.43 ± 0.06	0.50 ± 0.03	23	<0.001**
Axial diffusivity (×10 ⁻³)	4.14 ± 0.33	4.35 ± 0.30	4.03	0.05
Radial diffusivity (×10 ⁻³)	3.93 ± 0.31	4.01 ± 0.30	0.46	0.50
Bilateral anterior limb of internal capsule				
FA	0.42 ± 0.07	0.49 ± 0.03	20.6	<0.001**
Axial diffusivity (×10 ⁻³)	4.15 ± 0.32	4.36 ± 0.30	4.15	0.05*
Radial diffusivity (×10 ⁻³)	3.95 ± 0.30	4.02 ± 0.29	0.47	0.50

 $^{^{\}dagger}$ Age and gender are entered as covariates. Data are mean \pm SD. $^{*}P$ < 0.05, $^{**}P$ < 0.01.

Table 3 Change in psychometry scores, FA values, and axial/radial diffusivity over 6 months in patients (n = 12)

	10-28 days after stroke	6 months after first exam	Paired t-test	P-value
Patients				
mRS score	1.9 ± 0.5	1.6 ± 0.5	$t_{11} = 2.35$	0.04*
NIHSS score	2.8 ± 1.0	1.8 ± 0.7	$t_{11} = 4.00$	0.002**
MMSE score	29.0 ± 1.5	29.7 ± 0.5	$t_{11} = 1.54$	0.15
HAM-D score	3.7 ± 2.9	2.3 ± 3.0	$t_{11} = 1.13$	0.28
Anterior limb of internal capsule				
FA	0.40 ± 0.06	0.43 ± 0.06	$t_{11} = 2.26$	0.04*
Axial diffusivity (×10 ⁻³)	4.22 ± 0.30	4.13 ± 0.2	$t_{11} = 0.74$	0.48
Radial diffusivity (×10 ⁻³)	4.01 ± 0.26	3.87 ± 0.25	$t_{11} = 1.50$	0.16

Data are mean \pm sd. * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01.

FA, fractional anisotropy; HAM-D, Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression; MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination; mRS, modified Rankin scale; NIHSS, National Institutes of Health Stroke Scale.

related to the change in depression scale scores (HAM-D) after 6 months, the ratio of FA values was found to be negatively related to the change in the HAM-D scores ($\beta = -0.46$, P = 0.04).

Lymphocyte subsets and their relation to FA values in patients

Patients showed significantly decreased numbers of $T_{\rm reg}$ compared with healthy controls (Table 4, Fig. 3a). We also found a significant positive relationship between the level of circulating $T_{\rm reg}$ and the FA value in the anterior limb of the internal capsule in the patients (r=0.50, P=0.04) (Fig. 3b). There was no significant relationship between the level of circulating $T_{\rm reg}$ and the HAM-D scores.

When multiple regression analysis was used to evaluate whether the level of circulating T_{reg} was related to the FA value in the anterior limb of the

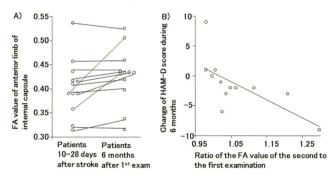


Figure 2 (a) Scatter plots of fractional anisotropy (FA) values in the region of FA reduction among stroke patients (n=12) at 10-28 days after the stroke and at the 6-month follow-up. A significant FA increase was observed in the patients at the 6-month follow-up (P<0.05). (b) Scatter plots showing the relationship between the ratio of the FA values of the second to the first examination and the change in depression scale scores among patients (n=12). Significant correlations were observed between the ratio of the FA values of the second to the first examination and the changes in depression scale scores (r=-0.67, P=0.02). HAM-D, Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression.

FA, fractional anisotropy; VOI, volume of interest.

Table 4 Differences in percentage of lymphocytes in the circulation between patients and healthy control subjects

			$ANCOVA^\dagger$	
	Stroke patients ($n = 18$)	Healthy control subjects $(n = 22)$	F _{1,36}	P-value
Helper T lymphocyte	67.2 ± 15.1	61.5 ± 12.0	1.00	0.32
Cytotoxic T lymphocyte	27.9 ± 13.5	33.2 ± 10.6	0.92	0.35
B lymphocyte	17.7 ± 8.3	12.2 ± 7.8	5.42	0.03
NK cell	21.6 ± 11.3	27.5 ± 10.4	1.78	0.19
Regulatory T lymphocyte	2.1 ± 1.6	3.8 ± 2.3	7.89	0.008*

[†]Age and sex are entered as covariates. Data are mean ± SD, *Significant after correction for multiple statistical tests to avoid type I errors (P < 0.01 (0.05/5)). NK, natural killer.

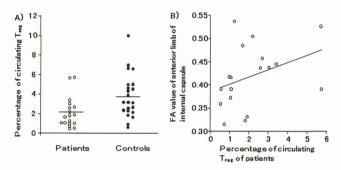


Figure 3 (a) Scatter diagrams showing the differences in circulating $T_{\rm reg}$ between patients and controls. A significant difference in the percentage of $T_{\rm reg}$ was observed between groups ($F_{1,36}=7.89$, P=0.008). (b) The relationship between the percentage of circulating $T_{\rm reg}$ and FA values of the anterior limb of the internal capsule in patients. A significant correlation was observed between the percentage of $T_{\rm reg}$ and FA values (r=0.50, P=0.04). FA, fractional anisotropy; $T_{\rm reg}$, regulatory T lymphocytes.

internal capsule, the T_{reg} level was found to be positively related to the FA values ($\beta = 0.59$, P = 0.02).

DISCUSSION

Our findings showed that stroke patients had lower FA in the bilateral anterior limb of the internal capsule relative to healthy control subjects. Six months after initial assessment, a significant increase in FA was noted, and it revealed an association with a reduction in depression scale scores. Our findings are not the result of direct neuronal damage caused by the infarction located on the internal capsule, as no patients had a lesion in this location. Also, there was no direct relationship between the FA value in this region and the volume of infarcts or the severity of stroke.

Reduced FA level was associated with decreased axial diffusivity. Axonal damage leads to a marked decrease in axial diffusivity, while demyelination leads to an increase in radial diffusivity. ¹³ Therefore, our finding was not a result of demyelination but of gross

reduction in axonal number and/or size, possibly reflecting Wallerian degeneration secondary to neuronal loss due to stroke.¹⁴ From an anatomical perspective, the anterior limb of the internal capsule represents the intercept point in the course of the frontal-subcortical circuits,¹⁵ and it has extensive connectivity with the cortical and subcortical areas. Its reduced FA may reflect the conjunctive focus of degeneration due to stroke in the spatially different sites of cortical and subcortical areas.

The frontal-striatal-thalamic-cortical circuits, connected by the anterior limb of the internal capsule, play an important role in behavioural regulation, ¹⁶ and based on MRI, microstructural change of the anterior limb of the internal capsule is related to the severity of depressive symptoms in adults with major depressive disorder.¹⁷ Degeneration in this region may relate to a loss of white matter integrity of these neural circuits, ¹⁸ and this abnormality might trigger the onset of negative mood change. Our findings on the association between the change in FA values of the internal capsule and depression scale scores might reflect an association between axonal damage of the internal capsule and depressive mood in stroke patients.

Our findings demonstrate that patients had reduced amounts of circulating T_{reg} , with the degree of reduction being related to the decrease in FA value in the internal capsule. This may indicate that a decrease in T_{reg} is related to the axonal damage of the internal capsule in stroke patients. Our findings showed no direct relationship between T_{reg} level and depression scale scores, but T_{reg} may indirectly affect post-stroke depressive symptoms via its effect on the cerebral damage.

An ischemic stroke caused T lymphocytes to become activated, infiltrate the brain, and then function as sources of pro-inflammatory cytokines and cytotoxic substances.¹⁹⁻²¹ However, not all T-cell

subtypes are detrimental to acute stroke outcome, and recent evidence indicates a novel role of T cells in promoting brain tissue repair and regeneration. Treg cell is an important T-cell subtype, and it supports brain tissue repair and regeneration.²² T_{req} cells act to limit the immune response by releasing transforming growth factor-β and interleukin-10,23 and they have also been reported to be required for neurogenesis.24 Infarct volume and neuronal dysfunction were significantly increased in mice treated with an anti-CD25 monoclonal antibody to neutralize Treg compared with controls.23 Furthermore, this protection was observed only 7 days after a modest ischemic insult.23 These findings of the brain-protecting and outcomeimproving effects of T_{reg} were also confirmed by Li et al. using post-stroke T_{reg} cell therapy.²⁵

One possible explanation for our results of T_{reg} is that people with lower circulated Treg are more likely to develop stroke and tend to have severe axonal damage after stroke. Another possibility is that the reduction in circulated Trea after stroke might be induced by the consumption of T_{reg} to repair cerebral neuronal injuries, including axonal damage. Our findings of lower circulated Treg are based on crosssectional data, which provide limited ability to infer which explanation is right. In any case, our results are consistent with previous reports of the brainprotecting and outcome-improving effects of Trea. In principle, our findings showed the possibility of improving stroke outcome by targeting the role of Treg in protecting brain tissue damage after a stroke.

Ren *et al.* and Kleinschnitz *et al.* respectively demonstrated no role or an opposite role for T_{reg} in exacerbating brain injury early after transient ischemia. 26,27 The animal model they used was different from that of the Liesz study in several aspects, including the duration of ischemia and methods for T_{reg} depletion. Furthermore, the late stage effect of T_{reg} depletion was not addressed in their studies. In our study, stroke patients were predominantly of modest ischemic insult, and their circulating lymphocytes were studied after 10–28 days. There is a possibility that the differences in the severity and stage of the ischemic insult caused different results regarding the role of T_{reg} in their studies and ours.

Our study has some limitations. First, patients with significant comprehension deficits were excluded because clinical verbal interviews could not be conducted. Second, all of the patients took anticoagulant or anti-platelet medicine. Specifically, 13 patients took acetylsalicylic acid, which has an anti-inflammatory effect, and this may have affected our results. However, the extent to which our findings relate to medication remain uncertain. Further analysis, inclusive of considerations of these points, is needed to confirm our present findings.

In conclusion, the present study suggests that FA reduction in the bilateral anterior limb of the internal capsule is evident in stroke patients. This regional damage relates to abnormality of neuroanatomical pathways in frontal-subcortical circuits and renders a biological vulnerability, which then gives rise to the onset of depressive symptoms. Our findings also demonstrate that patients have reduced amounts of circulating T_{reg} , with the degree of reduction being related to the decrease in FA value in the internal capsule. T_{reg} cells might have a role in improving poststroke white matter tissue damage by limiting the immune response and promoting neurogenesis.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research was supported by the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science, Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research (C), 24591740.

REFERENCES

- 1 Donnan GA, Fisher M, Macleod M, Davis SM. Stroke. *Lancet* 2008; **371**: 1612–1623.
- 2 Whyte EM, Mulsant BH. Post stroke depression: epidemiology, pathophysiology, and biological treatment. *Biol Psychiatry* 2002; **52**: 253–264.
- 3 Magnus T, Wiendl H, Kleinschnitz C. Immune mechanisms of stroke. Curr Opin Neurol 2012; 25: 334–340.
- 4 ladecola C, Anrather J. The immunology of stroke: from mechanisms to translation. *Nat Med* 2011; 17: 796–808.
- 5 Macrez R, Ali C, Toutirais O *et al.* Stroke and the immune system: from pathophysiology to new therapeutic strategies. *Lancet Neurol* 2011; **10**: 471–480.
- 6 Craft TK, DeVries AC. Role of IL-1 in poststroke depressive-like behavior in mice. *Biol Psychiatry* 2006; **60**: 812–818.
- 7 Brait VH, Arumugam TV, Drummond GR, Sobey CG. Importance of T lymphocytes in brain injury, immunodeficiency, and recovery after cerebral ischemia. *J Cereb Blood Flow Metab* 2012: 32: 598–611.
- 8 Brott T, Adams HPJ, Olinger CP et al. Measurements of acute cerebral infarction: a clinical examination scale. Stroke 1989; 20: 864–870.
- 9 Goldstein LB, Samsa GP. Reliability of the National Institutes of Health Stroke Scale. Extension to non-neurologists in the context of a clinical trial. Stroke 1997; 28: 307–310.
- 10 Folstein MF, Folstein SE, McHugh PR. 'Mini-mental state'. A practical method for grading the cognitive state of patients for the clinician. J Psychiatr Res 1975; 12: 189–198.

© 2014 The Authors

- 11 Hamilton M. A rating scale for depression. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 1960; 23: 56–62.
- 12 Kim DH, Adalsteinsson E, Glover GH, Spielman DM. Regularized higher-order in vivo shimming. Magn Reson Med 2002; 48: 715–722.
- 13 Song SK, Yoshino J, Le TQ et al. Demyelination increases radial diffusivity in corpus callosum of mouse brain. *Neuroimage* 2005; 26: 132–140.
- 14 Thomalla G, Glauche V, Koch MA et al. Diffusion tensor imaging detects early Wallerian degeneration of the pyramidal tract after ischemic stroke. Neuroimage 2004; 22: 1767–1774.
- 15 Axer H, Keyserlingk DG. Mapping of fiber orientation in human internal capsule by means of polarized light and confocal scanning laser microscopy. J Neurosci Methods 2000; 94: 165–175.
- 16 Duran FL, Hoexter MQ, Valente AAJ et al. Association between symptom severity and internal capsule volume in obsessivecompulsive disorder. Neurosci Lett 2009; 452: 68–71.
- 17 Zou K, Huang X, Li T et al. Alterations of white matter integrity in adults with major depressive disorder: a magnetic resonance imaging study. J Psychiatry Neurosci 2008; 33: 525–530.
- 18 Budde MD, Kim JH, Liang HF et al. Toward accurate diagnosis of white matter pathology using diffusion tensor imaging. *Magn Reson Med* 2007; **57**: 688–695.
- 19 Jander S, Kraemer M, Schroeter M et al. Lymphocytic infiltration and expression of intercellular adhesion molecule-1 in photochemically induced ischemia of the rat cortex. J Cereb Blood Flow Metab 1995; 15: 42–51.

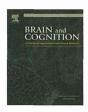
- 20 Yilmaz G, Arumugam TV, Stokes KY, Granger DN. Role of T lymphocytes and interferon-gamma in ischemic stroke. Circulation 2006; 113: 2105–2112.
- 21 Brait VH, Jackman KA, Walduck AK et al. Mechanisms contributing to cerebral infarct size after stroke: gender, reperfusion, T lymphocytes, and Nox2-derived superoxide. J Cereb Blood Flow Metab 2010; 30: 1306–1317.
- 22 Zouggari Y, Ait-Oufella H, Waeckel L et al. Regulatory T cells modulate postischemic neovascularization. *Circulation* 2009; 120: 1415–1425.
- 23 Liesz A, Suri-Payer E, Veltkamp C et al. Regulatory T cells are key cerebroprotective immunomodulators in acute experimental stroke. Nat Med 2009; 15: 192–199.
- 24 Saino O, Taguchi A, Nakagomi T et al. Immunodeficiency reduces neural stem/progenitor cell apoptosis and enhances neurogenesis in the cerebral cortex after stroke. J Neurosci Res 2010; 88: 2385–2397.
- 25 Li P, Gan Y, Sun BL et al. Adoptive regulatory T-cell therapy protects against cerebral ischemia. Ann Neurol 2013; 74: 458– 471.
- 26 Ren X, Akiyoshi K, Vandenbark AA et al. CD4+FoxP3+ regulatory T-cells in cerebral ischemic stroke. Metab Brain Dis 2011; 26: 87–90.
- 27 Kleinschnitz C, Kraft P, Dreykluft A et al. Regulatory T cells are strong promoters of acute ischemic stroke in mice by inducing dysfunction of the cerebral microvasculature. Blood 2013; 121: 679–691.



Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Brain and Cognition

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/b&c



Decision-making deficit of a patient with axonal damage after traumatic brain injury



Fumihiko Yasuno ^{a,*}, Kiwamu Matsuoka ^a, Soichiro Kitamura ^a, Kuniaki Kiuchi ^a, Jun Kosaka ^a, Koji Okada ^a, Syohei Tanaka ^a, Takayuki Shinkai ^b, Toshiaki Taoka ^c, Toshifumi Kishimoto ^a

- ^a Department of Psychiatry, Nara Medical University, Kashihara, Japan
- ^b Department of Radiation Oncology, Nara Medical University, Kashihara, Japan
- ^c Department of Radiology, Nara Medical University, Kashihara, Japan

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Accepted 13 November 2013 Available online 5 December 2013

Keywords: Traumatic Brain Injury (TBI) Decision-maiking process Somatic-marker hypothesis Diffusion tensor imaging (DTI) Voxel-based morphometry (VBM)

ABSTRACT

Patients with traumatic brain injury (TBI) were reported to have difficulty making advantageous decisions, but the underlying deficits of the network of brain areas involved in this process were not directly examined. We report a patient with TBI who demonstrated problematic behavior in situations of risk and complexity after cerebral injury from a traffic accident. The Iowa gambling task (IGT) was used to reveal his deficits in the decision-making process. To examine underlying deficits of the network of brain areas, we examined T1-weighted structural MRI, diffusion tensor imaging (DTI) and Tc-ECD SPECT in this patient. The patient showed abnormality in IGT. DTI-MRI results showed a significant decrease in fractional anisotropy (FA) in the fasciculus between the brain stem and cortical regions via the thalamus. He showed significant decrease in gray matter volumes in the bilateral insular cortex, hypothalamus, and posterior cingulate cortex, possibly reflecting Wallerian degeneration secondary to the fasciculus abnormalities. SPECT showed significant blood flow decrease in the broad cortical areas including the ventromedial prefrontal cortex (VM). Our study showed that the patient had dysfunctional decision-making process. Microstructural abnormality in the fasciculus, likely from the traffic accident, caused reduced afferent feedback to the brain, resulting in less efficient decision-making. Our findings support the somatic-marker hypothesis (SMH), where somatic feedback to the brain influences the decision-making process.

© 2013 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Traumatic brain injury (TBI) is a major public health problem. Although medical disabilities usually stabilize after onset, neuropsychological consequences can cause chronic handicaps that often do not receive appropriate attention and treatment (Dombovy & Olek, 1997). In particular, they show significant deficits in tasks relying on focused and divided attention (Stuss et al., 1989), on verbal memory (Crosson, Novack, Trenerry, & Craig, 1988) and on executive functions (Stuss & Gow, 1992). Executive impairments are related to planning, inhibitory control, monitoring, and mental flexibility.

Patients with TBI also have difficulties in making deliberate and advantageous decisions (Levine et al., 2005; Santoro & Spiers, 1994; Yody et al., 2000). As, after TBI, patients are often confronted with a completely new and difficult living situation, important decisions have to be made by them and their relatives. Spontaneous wrong decisions may have disastrous long-lasting

consequences, such as unemployment, alienation from family and friends and legal problems, which are often linked to the disability to make adequate and advantageous choices (Warriner & Velikonja, 2006).

Damasio has proposed an influential model of human decision-making — the somatic-marker hypothesis (SMH), where he argues that somatic feedback to the brain influences decision-making in man (Damasio, 1994). It is proposed that when choosing between options that differ in relative risk, a somatic marker (e.g. a 'gut feeling') feeds back to the brain and influences decision-making. In line with this hypothesis, the reduced afferent feedback of a somatic marker to the brain would result in abnormal decision-making.

In the present study we report a patient with TBI who demonstrated problematic behaviors in situations of risk and complexity after cerebral injury due to a traffic accident. The Iowa gambling task (IGT) was used to test and confirm his deficits of the decision-making process (Bechara, Damasio, Damasio, & Anderson, 1994). To examine underlying deficits of the network of brain areas involved in his decision-making process, we compared the diffusion tensor and gray matter images of MRI between the patient and healthy control subjects. We expected that the patient would show microstructural abnormality in the fasciculus as a result of

^{*} Corresponding author. Address: Department of Psychiatry, Nara Medical University, 840 Shijocho, Kashihara, Nara 634-8522, Japan. Fax: +81 744 22 3854. E-mail address: ejm86rp@yahoo.co.jp (F. Yasuno).

the traffic accident, causing reduced afferent feedback to the brain that would lead to less efficient decision-making.

2. Methods

2.1. Case report

The patient was a 30-year-old right-handed man. He had no history of alcohol or illicit drug abuse. His parents reported no family history of any major mental illness. His early childhood development was reportedly unremarkable. Before the accident, he had no significant medical problems or past psychiatric history. His personality before the accident was described by his homeroom teacher at high-school as humorous, popular, and cooperative.

At the age of 17, the patient sustained a TBI in a motorcycle accident. He was transported to a local hospital. There is no record of the Glasgow Coma Scale score, but his family reported that he fell into a coma for 6 h. The initial CT scans of the head revealed no particular change. After awakening, he was discharged to his home. According to the family, after the accident, he began to show outbursts of anger and physically aggressive behavior. He came to act recklessly and unexpectedly. He repeatedly changed his job at short intervals. He was deeply in debt and often had girl troubles.

To investigate whether traumatic brain dysfunction existed and was related to the problematic behaviors, he was referred to the outpatient psychiatry unit at our hospital for judicial psychiatric evidence. A physical examination revealed no abnormalities. He was alert, attentive and oriented. Spontaneous speech, comprehension, repetition, and naming were normal, as were calculation, mapping, praxis, right-left orientation, and finger naming. He did not have a history or present diagnosis of any axis I disorders of Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-IV-TR) or any neurological illness. Electroencephalography showed no relevant abnormalities.

2.2. Neuropsychological evaluation

2.2.1. General cognitive testing (see Table 1)

A more extensive neuropsychological evaluation was performed. The patient was alert, attentive, socially appropriate, and had normal digit span performances, seven digits forward and four backward.

Intellectual functioning as assessed by Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale-III (WAIS-III) (Wechsler, 1981) and Raven's Coloured Progressive Matrices (RCPM) (Raven, 1958) was adequate. Word fluency (Borkowski, Benton, & Spreen, 1967) was normal, and all language and language-related functions were intact. The patient had no memory deficits. Results with the Rey Auditory Verbal Learning Test-Revised (RAVLT-R) (Spreen & Strauss, 1991) and performance on the Wechsler Memory Scale-Revised (WMS-R) (Wechsler, 1987) were also excellent.

In the assessment of frontal function, the results of Frontal Assessment Battery (FAB) (Dubois, Slachevsky, Litvan, & Pillon, 2000), Wisconsin Card Sorting Test (WCST) (Berg, 1948), and Stroop test (Stroop, 1935) were normal. The Behavioral Assessment of Dysexecutive Syndrome (BADS) (Wilson, Alderman, Burgess, Emslie, & Evans, 1996) showed excellent scores. The total scores of the Dysexecutive Questionnaire (DEX) rated by the patient and his family were within normal range. However, his family rated high scores in the questionnaire of impulsiveness and aggressiveness.

2.2.2. Iowa gambling task (Bechara et al., 1994)

From the patient's reports of problematic behavior after the motorcycle accident, we suspected that he had difficulty with the decision-making process due to his TBI. IGT was used to test his ability of decision-making. It consists of a computerized card game

Table 1Neuropsychological test results.

	Patient's scores
General intelligence MMSE RCPM WAIS-R (vIQ, pIQ, fIQ)	30/30 35/36 91, 90, 89
Memory RAVLT-R Trials 1–5 Post-interference Delayed recognition	7, 11, 14, 14, 14 13 13
WMS-R (Index) General memory index Verbal memory index Visual memory index Attention/concentration Delayed index	101 95 116 97 104
Frontal function Trail making A Trail making B Frontal assessment battery (FAB) WCST (category achieved) Stroop test: word, color, word-color BADS (index) DEX (self-version, family-version)	25 s 70 s 17/18 6 98, 82, 59 118 19, 18

MMSE = mini-mental state examination; RCPM = Raven's colored progressive matrices; WAIS-R = Wechsler adult intelligence scale revised; RAVLT-R = Rey auditory verbal learning test revise; WMS-R = Wechsler memory scale revised; WCST = Wisconsin card sorting test; BADS = Behavioral Assessment of Dysexecutive Syndrome; DEX = Dysexecutive Questionnaire.

where the player is instructed to try to win as much money as possible with 100 selections from any one of four decks. The rules are not disclosed, and the player gradually learns that two of the decks are 'high risk' (A and B), i.e., intermittently produce large rewards but in the long term lead to significant financial losses, whereas two decks (C and D) lead to modest but consistent gains. Healthy individuals have previously been shown to learn to avoid the risky decks, whereas patients with decision-making difficulty process select an excessive number from the risky decks, and consequently lose money. Data analysis examined the quality of the decision-making as measured by the net score [choice of advantageous decks (C and D) – disadvantageous decks (A and B)] across five 20-trial blocks. The patient's result was compared to those of healthy male controls (n = 12, age: 31.9 ± 10.5).

2.3. Data acquisition of MRI

All MRI examinations were performed by 3.0-T scanner (Magnetom Verio, Siemens AG, Erlangen, Germany). DT images were acquired with echo-planar imaging (EPI) sequence (TR = 14,000 ms, TE = 84 ms, $b = 1000 \, \text{s/mm}^2$, FOV = 256 mm, matrix = 128 × 128, slice spacing = 2 mm, slice thickness = 2 mm, averaging = 3). The reconstruction matrix was 256 × 256 matrix by interpolation, and 2 mm × 2 mm × 2 mm voxel data were obtained. Motion probing gradient (MPG) was applied in 12 directions. High-resolution three-dimensional T1-weighted images were acquired using a magnetization prepared rapid gradient echo (MPRAGE) sequence (TR = 1800 ms, TE = 2.4 ms, TI = 800 ms, flip angle = 10°, FOV × 256 mm, slice thickness = 1 mm; 208 sections in the sagittal plane; acquisition matrix, 256 × 256; acquired resolution, $1 \times 1 \times 1$ mm). The patient's result was compared to those of healthy controls (n = 13, 7 males and 6 females, age: 30.0 ± 9.5).

2.4. Imaging processing of MRI

Fractional anisotropy (FA) maps were generated from each individual using "dTV II" software (Masutani, Aoki, Abe, Hayashi,

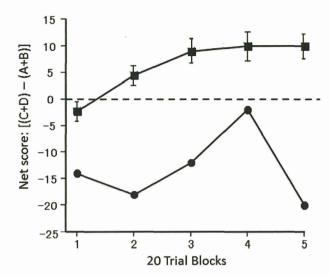


Fig. 1. Decision-making performance on the lowa gambling task (IGT) of the patient (circles) and control subjects (squares). The figures shows the net score (choice of advantageous decks-disadvantageous decks) across 100 test trials, divided into five 20-trial blocks.

& Otomo, 2003). Image preprocessing and statistical analysis were carried out using SPM8 (Wellcome Department of Imaging Neuroscience, London, England). Each subject's image was spatially normalized to the Montreal Neurological Institute image template using parameters determined from the normalization of the image with a b value of 0 s/mm^2 and the echo planar image template in SPM8. Images were resampled with a final voxel size of $2 \times 2 \times 2 \text{ mm}^3$. Normalized gray matter image maps were generated from each individual using the VBM8 toolbox with SPM8 software.

Normalized maps were spatially smoothed using an isotropic Gaussian filter (8-mm full-width at half-maximum). Normalized and smoothed FA and gray matter image maps were compared with voxel-based analysis between the patient and healthy controls with Jack-knife analysis. Statistical inferences were made with a voxel-level threshold of p < 0.001, uncorrected, with a minimum cluster size of 50 voxels.

2.5. Data acquisition and analysis of SPECT

Tc-ECD SPECT studies were performed using a dual-headed γ -camera (TOSHIBA SYMBIA E, Toshiba, Japan). Tc-ECD SPECT imaging with a fan-beam collimator was started 10 min after an intravenous bolus injection of 600 MBq Tc-99 m ECD. Tomographic data with a slice thickness of 5.39 mm were obtained continuously for 24 min. Static data were acquired in 128×128 matrices. The data were prefiltered using a Ramp filter with a high cut-off value. Stereotactic statistical imaging analysis of the brain using the easy Z-score imaging system was performed, and decrease in regional cerebral blood flow of the patient was investigated (Mizumura & Kumita, 2006).

3. Results

The patient produced normal performance on a variety of neuropsychological tests (Table 1), but showed abnormality in IGT. As shown in Fig. 1, beginning at approximately the 20th trial, control subjects shifted their preference toward advantageous decks, whereas the patient preferred disadvantageous decks and his net scores were less than zero over the 100 trials.

DTI-MRI results showed that the patient had a significant decrease of FA. As shown in Fig. 2 and Table 2, the patient had

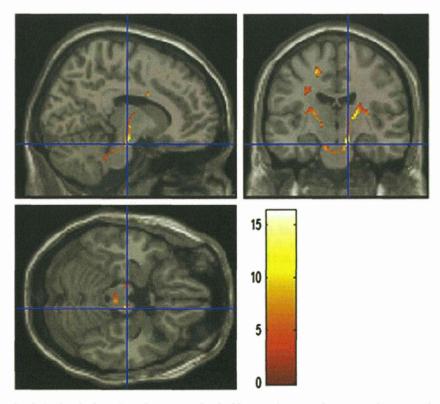


Fig. 2. Significant decrease of regional FA values in the patient when compared to healthy controls. Detected areas exceed uncorrected p value of 0.001 with 50 or more contiguous voxels. These statistical parametric mapping projections were then superimposed on representative transaxial (z = -23), sagittal (x = 12), and coronal (y = -14) magnetic resonance images.

Table 2Brain areas manifesting significant decrease of FA and gray matter volumes in the patient.

Region	MNI(x,y,z)	Voxels	Z score
FA			
Left superior longitudinal fasciculus	-20, -36, 48	335	6.23
Left thalamic radiation	-18, -10, 14	189	5.42
Right thalamic radiation	16, -18, 4	816	5.88
Gray matter volume			
Middle cingulate cortex	10, -20, 46	158	5.50
Right inferior parietal cortex	56, -38, 50	96	4.77
Medial occipital cortex	2, -90, -8	133	4.74
Hypothalamus	0, 10, -6	97	4.66
Left insular cortex	-50, -4, 4	67	4.58
	-36, -22, 12	182	4.45
Right insular cortex	42, -10, 12	64	4.49

significantly smaller FA values in the left superior longitudinal fasciculus and bilateral thalamic radiation including the fasciculus between the brain stem and the cortical regions via the thalamus.

From the voxel-based morphometry results, we found regional decrease of gray matter volumes in the patient. The patient showed significantly smaller gray matter volumes in the bilateral insular cortex, posterior cingulate cortex, hypothalamus, right parietal cortex and medial occipital cortex (Fig. 3, Table 2).

As shown in Fig. 4, in the patient, a significant decrease in regional cerebral blood flow, in broad cortical areas including the ventromedial prefrontal cortex (VM), was revealed by Tc-ECD SPECT.

4. Discussion

The patient showed behavioral problems following cerebral injury from a traffic accident. The patient performed normally on

a variety of neuropsychological tests, but had an abnormal outcome on IGT, which assesses the decision-making process. The patient's problem may stem from insensitivity to future consequences, positive or negative, as a result being primarily guided by immediate prospects. This 'myopia for the future' of the patient may persist in the face of a problematic behavior pattern that should result in severe adverse consequences.

DTI-MRI results showed that the patient had a significant decrease of FA in the fasciculus between the brain stem and insula via the thalamus. To the extent that FA is related to axonal integrity, density, caliber and myelination, our findings of a subnormal level of FA suggest the presence of microstructural abnormalities in the fasciculus of the patient. Damasio et al. proposed that somatic feedback helps guide the decision-making process in humans—the somatic-marker hypothesis (SMH) (Damasio, 1994). Evidence in favor of this hypothesis was provided by a study demonstrating that cerebrally intact individuals with peripheral neuropathy showed abnormal decision-making in IGT, suggesting that the peripheral neuropathy resulted in reduced afferent feedback to the brain (Bechara et al., 1998). In terms of SMH, microstructural abnormalities in the fasciculus of the patient resulted in reduced afferent feedback to the brain, resulting in less efficient decision-making.

When we focused on the cortical gray matter changes, we found significant decrease in gray matter volumes in the bilateral insular cortex, hypothalamus, posterior cingulate cortex, medial occipital and right parietal cortex, possibly reflecting Wallerian degeneration secondary to the microstructural abnormalities in the fasciculus. These atrophic regions may be a part of neural networks connected with the brain stem by the damaged fasciculus, which is related to the decision-making process.

Recently, Damasio et al. proposed the hypothesis that feelings first emerge from the integrated operation of structures in the brain stem and hypothalamus. The activity patterns present in

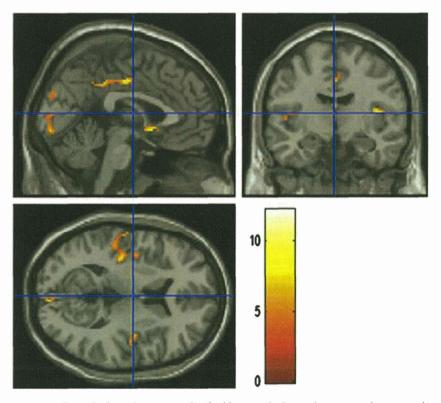


Fig. 3. Significant decrease of gray matter volumes in the patient compared to healthy controls. Detected areas exceed uncorrected p value of 0.001 with 50 or more contiguous voxels. These statistical parametric mapping projections were then superimposed on representative transaxial (z = 10), sagittal (x = 0), and coronal (y = -11) magnetic resonance images.

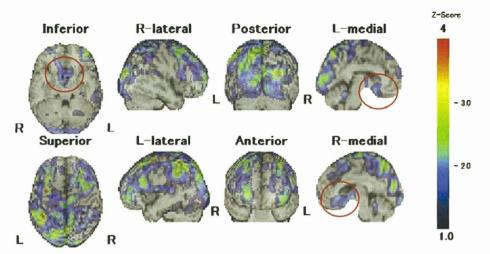


Fig. 4. Tc-99m ECD-SPECT results statistically analyzed by comparing with standard SPECT images obtained from easy *Z*-score imaging system; eZIS. Hypoperfusioned areas showing more than 2SD deviation from the standard SPECT images were 3D-rendered on brain template. The area shown in the red circle is the ventromedial prefrontal cortex (VM).

the insular cortex during feeling states would constitute a second-order mapping of activity patterns first assembled subcortically. The information contained in insular maps would be suitable for interaction with information in cortical systems involved in sensory processing (including visuo-perceptual processing in parieto-occipital cortex) and in higher-order functions such as decision-making (Damasio, Damasio, & Tranel, 2012). The posterior cingulate cortex is related to emotional processing via its connection with the insular cortex (Immordino-Yang, McColl, Damasio, & Damasio, 2009; Parvizi, Van Hoesen, Buckwalter, & Damasio, 2006). The atrophic change of cortical and subcortical regions and their disconnection with the brain stem may disturb the efficient generation of feelings accompanying anticipation, which is necessary for the final decision.

By SPECT, there was a significant blood flow decrease in the broad cortical areas. There is a possibility that the presence of microstructural abnormalities in the fasciculus, which projects to these areas, caused the inactivity of cortical function. In these areas, a significant decrease of blood flow in VM should be regarded as important, although there was no significant cortical change according to MRI. VM has been widely recognized as playing a critical role in successful decision-making, fueled in part by well-studied single cases (Cato, Delis, Abildskov, & Bigler, 2004; Dimitrov, Phipps, Zahn, & Grafman, 1999; Eslinger & Damasio, 1985).

The insular cortex has extensive reciprocal connectivity with VM (Augustine, 1996; Ongür & Price, 2000), and inactivity of the insular cortex may also decrease the activity of the VM region. SMH proposed that during decision-making, bodily states that were previously associated with choice options, were retrieved by VM, and it guides the decision-making process in humans in situations of risk and complexity (Damasio, 1994). Patients with VM lesions are known to have "myopia" for the future in that they are oblivious to the consequences of their actions and are guided only by immediate prospects (Bechara et al., 1994). These behaviors are similar to those of our patient after cerebral damage.

While our findings seemed to support SMH, where somatic feedback to the brain influences the decision-making process, a note of caution must be expressed as to the role of VM for decision-making process in IGT. There is another explanation of the failure of patients with VM lesions to perform well in the IGT. It was suggested that the difficulties of the patient with VM lesions might be due to a deficit in reversal learning – the ability to adjust their responses when the reinforcement values of stimuli are re-

versed (Maia & McClelland, 2005). It was argued that the difficulties of patients with VM lesions in IGT performance can be explained by an inability to reverse a learned contingency (Clark, Cools, & Robbins, 2004; Fellows & Farah, 2005; Maia & McClelland, 2004, 2005). We require additional empirical support to clarify the role of VM in the SMH.

In conclusion, we can postulate that the patient had a dysfunction of the decision-making process. Inefficiency of the decision-making process is likely to be related to the patient's problematic behavior after the traffic accident. The microstructural abnormality in the fasciculus, which may have resulted from the traffic accident, caused reduced afferent feedback to the brain, resulting in less efficient decision-making. Our findings seem to support SMH, where somatic feedback to the brain influences the decision-making process. Dysfunction of cortical and subcortical regions disconnected from the brain stem may also disturb the efficient generation of the feelings from somatic feedback, which is necessary for the final decision.

References

Augustine, J. R. (1996). Circuitry and functional aspects of the insular lobe in primates including humans. *Brain Research. Brain Research Reviews*, 22, 229–244.

Bechara, A., Damasio, A. R., Damasio, H., & Anderson, S. W. (1994). Insensitivity to future consequences following damage to human prefrontal cortex. *Cognition*, 50, 7–15.

Bechara, A., Tranel, D., Wilson, J., Heberlein, A. S., Ross, M., & Damasio, A. R. (1998). Impaired decision-making in peripheral neuroopathy. Society for Neuroscience Abstracts, 24, 1176.

Berg, E. A. (1948). A simple objective test for measuring flexibility in thinking. *The Journal of General Psychology*, 39, 15–22.

Borkowski, J. G., Benton, A. L., & Spreen, O. (1967). Word fluency and brain damage. Neuropsychologia, 5, 135–140.

Cato, M. A., Delis, D. C., Abildskov, T. J., & Bigler, E. (2004). Assessing the elusive cognitive deficits associated with ventromedial prefrontal damage: A case of a modern-day Phineas Gage. Journal of the International Neuropsychological Society, 10, 453–465.

Clark, L., Cools, R., & Robbins, T. W. (2004). The neuropsychology of ventral prefrontal cortex: Decision-making and reversal learning. *Brain and Cognition*, 55, 41–53.

Crosson, B., Novack, T. A., Trenerry, M. R., & Craig, P. L. (1988). California Verbal Learning Test (CVLT) performance in severely head-injured and neurologically normal adult males. *Journal of Clinical and Experimental Neuropsychology*, 10, 754-768.

Damasio, A. R. (1994). Descartes' Error. London: Papermac/Macmillan.

Damasio, A. R., Damasio, H., & Tranel, D. (2012). Persistence of feelings and sentience after bilateral damage of the insula. Cerebral Cortex, 23, 833–846.
 Dimitrov, M., Phipps, M., Zahn, T. P., & Grafman, J. (1999). A thoroughly modern Gage

Neurocase, 5, 345–354.

- Dombovy, M. L., & Olek, A. C. (1997). Recovery and rehabilitation following traumatic brain injury. Brain Injury, 11, 305-318.
- Dubois, B., Slachevsky, A., Litvan, I., & Pillon, B. (2000). The FAB: A frontal assessment battery at bedside. *Neurology*, 55, 1621–1626.
 Eslinger, P. J., & Damasio, A. R. (1985). Severe disturbance of higher cognition after bilateral frontal lobe ablation: Patient EVR. *Neurology*, 35, 1731–1741.
- Fellows, L. K., & Farah, M. J. (2005). Different underlying impairments in decisionmaking following ventromedial and dorsolateral frontal lobe damage in humans. Cerebral Cortex, 15, 58-63.
- Immordino-Yang, M. H., McColl, A., Damasio, H., & Damasio, A. (2009). Neural correlates of admiration and compassion. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 106, 8021–8026.
 Levine, B., Black, S. E., Cheung, G., Campbell, A., O'Toole, C., & Schwartz, M. L. (2005).
- Gambling task performance in traumatic brain injury: Relationships to injury severity, atrophy, lesion location, and cognitive and psychosocial outcome. Cognitive and Behavioral Neurology, 18, 45-54.
- Maia, T. V., & McClelland, J. L. (2004). A reexamination of the evidence for the somatic marker hypothesis: What participants really know in the Iowa somatic market hypoticists. What participants really know in the lowargambling task. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 101, 16075–16080.
- Maia, T. V., & McClelland, J. L. (2005). The somatic marker hypothesis: Still many questions but no answers. Trends in Cognitive Science, 9, 162-164.
- Masutani, Y., Aoki, S., Abe, O., Hayashi, N., & Otomo, K. (2003). MR diffusion tensor imaging: Recent advance and new techniques for diffusion tensor visualization. European Journal of Radiology, 46, 53–66.

 Mizumura, S., & Kumita, S. (2006). Stereotactic statistical imaging analysis of the
- brain using the easy Z-score imaging system for sharing a normal database. Radiation Medicine, 24, 545-552.
- Ongür, D., & Price, J. L. (2000). The organization of networks within the orbital and medial prefrontal cortex of rats, monkeys and humans. Cerebral Cortex, 10, 206-219.

- Parvizi, J., Van Hoesen, G. W., Buckwalter, J., & Damasio, A. (2006). Neural connections of the posteromedial cortex in the macaque. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 103, 1563-1568.
- Raven, J. C. (1958). *Guide to the standard progressive matrices*. London: HK Lewis. Santoro, J., & Spiers, M. (1994). Social cognitive factors in brain injury-associated
- personality change. Brain Injury, 8, 265–276.
- Spreen, O., & Strauss, E. (1991). A conpendium of neuropsychological tests. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Stroop, J. (1935). Studies of interference in serial verbal reactions. Journal of
- Experimental Psychology, 18, 643–662.
 Stuss, D. T., & Gow, C. A. (1992). "Frontal dysfunction" after traumatic brain injury.
- Neuropsychiatry, Neuropsychology and Behavior Neurology, 5, 272–282.

 Stuss, D. T., Stethem, L. L., Hugenholtz, H., Picton, T., Pivik, J., & Richard, M. T. (1989). Reaction time after head injury: Fatigue, divided and focused attention, and consistency of performance. Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery and Psychiatry, 52, 742-748.
- Warriner, E. M., & Velikonja, D. (2006). Psychiatric disturbances after traumatic brain injury: Neurobehavioral and personality changes. Current Psychiatry Reports. 8, 73–80.
- Wechsler, D. (1981). WAIS-R manual. New York: Psychological Corporation.
- Wechsler, D. (1987). Wechsler memory scale-revised. San Antonio: Harcourt Brace
- Wilson, B. A., Alderman, N., Burgess, P. W., Emslie, H. C., & Evans, J. J. (1996). The behavioural assessment of the dysexecutive syndrome. Flempton: Thames Valley Test Company.
- Yody, B. B., Schaub, C., Conway, L. Peters, S., Strauss, D., & Helsinger, S. (2000). Applied behavior management and acquired brain injury: Approaches and assessment. The Journal of Head Trauma Rehabilitation, 15, 1041–1060.