

Resting GABA and glutamate concentrations do not predict visual gamma frequency or amplitude

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Gamma band oscillations arise in neuronal networks of interconnected GABAergic interneurons and excitatory pyramidal cells. A previous study found a correlation between visual gamma peak frequency, as measured with magnetoencephalography, and resting GABA levels, as measured with magnetic resonance spectroscopy (MRS), in 12 healthy volunteers. If true, this would allow studies in clinical populations testing modulation of this relationship, but this finding has not been replicated. We addressed this important question by measuring gamma oscillations and GABA, as well as glutamate, in 50 healthy volunteers. Visual gamma activity was evoked using an established gratings paradigm, and we applied a beamformer spatial filtering technique to extract source-reconstructed gamma peak frequency and amplitude from the occipital lobe. We determined gamma peak frequency and amplitude from the location with maximal activation and from the location of the MRS voxel to assess the relationship of GABA with gamma. Gamma peak frequency was estimated from the highest value of the raw spectra and by a Gaussian fit to the spectra. MRS data were acquired from occipital cortex. We did not replicate the previously found correlation between gamma peak frequency and GABA concentration. Calculation of a Bayes factor provided strong evidence in favor of the null hypothesis. We also did not find a correlation between gamma activity and glutamate or between gamma and the ratio of GABA/glutamate. Our results suggest that cortical gamma oscillations do not have a consistent, demonstrable relationship to excitatory/inhibitory network activity as proxied by MRS measurements of GABA and glutamate.

Gamma band oscillations (30–90 Hz) are found in many cortical areas and are thought to play an important role in cognitive processing (1). Both experimental and modeling studies have shown that the gamma rhythm is inextricably linked to synaptic inhibition (2–4). GABA-mediated inhibition is both necessary and sufficient for the generation of gamma oscillations, and mutually connected inhibitory interneuron networks are major generators of gamma oscillations (4–6). In addition, fast recurrent excitation followed by slower feedback inhibitions can give rise to gamma oscillations (3, 7). Most likely, excitation–inhibition and inhibition–inhibition hybrid gamma networks work together to generate gamma frequency oscillations (2, 8).

In vitro and modeling studies have clearly shown the importance of GABA for the generation of gamma oscillations, but the relationship between GABA and gamma is not easily assessed in the human brain. Muthukumaraswamy and colleagues (9) attempted to assess this relationship by correlating resting GABA concentrations as measured by magnetic resonance spectroscopy (MRS) with visual gamma oscillations as measured by magnetoencephalography (MEG). MRS provides a noninvasive method of quantifying metabolite concentrations in discrete regions of the human brain, but it can only detect the total concentration of a neurochemical and cannot distinguish between separate functional pools (10). In their study, Muthukumaraswamy and colleagues (9) found a correlation between resting GABA levels and visual gamma peak

frequency in 12 participants. GABA levels in individuals correlated with the frequency level displaying the greatest power within the gamma band (gamma peak frequency). The correlation was speculated to reflect a dependence of gamma oscillations on GABA concentrations, as measured by MRS, with these GABA concentrations providing a window into pyramidal-interneuron network properties. If true, such a correlation would make gamma peak frequency a useful surrogate marker of cortical excitability for studies investigating clinical populations and/or the effects of pharmacological agents. Furthermore, this finding would have implications for the interpretation of MEG experiments because differences in gamma oscillations might actually be explained by differences in GABA, independent of the paradigm used. The same group later reported a similar correlation in a sample of 13 participants, seven of whom participated in both studies (11). Gaetz and colleagues (12) observed a correlation between GABA and gamma frequency in the motor cortex of nine healthy adults. However, no independent replications of these important results in the visual system have been published to date.

In this study, we addressed the question of whether resting GABA concentrations as measured by MRS correlate with the peak frequency of visual gamma oscillations in a much larger sample than hitherto. In 50 healthy volunteers, we measured concentrations of endogenous resting GABA from a voxel in the occipital cortex, using MRS, and stimulus-induced gamma

Significance

In vitro and modeling studies have indicated that GABAergic signaling underlies gamma oscillations. It would be valuable to measure this correlation between GABA and gamma oscillations in the human brain, and a recent study [Muthukumaraswamy SD, et al. (2009) *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 106(20):8356–8361] indicated that this is possible, using magnetoencephalography and magnetic resonance spectroscopy. If true, such a correlation would make the gamma peak frequency a useful surrogate marker of cortical excitability for studies investigating clinical populations and/or the effects of pharmacological agents. However, magnetic resonance spectroscopy does not measure synaptic GABA specifically, and the results from the current study ($n = 50$) indicate that GABA, as measured with magnetic resonance spectroscopy, does not correlate with gamma peak frequency.

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oscillations in the occipital cortex, using MEG. Because of the proposed interplay between inhibition and excitation in the generation of gamma oscillations, we also measured glutamate concentrations and correlated these as well as the ratio of GABA/glutamate with gamma frequency and amplitude.

Results

For MR data acquisition, a 3T Siemens scanner was used. Sagittal and axial T1 scout images were acquired and used to place a $2 \times 2 \times 2 \text{ cm}^3$ voxel of interest manually in the occipital cortex (Fig. 1). The spin-echo full-intensity acquired localized (SPECIAL) sequence, originally developed by Mlynárik and colleagues (13) and adapted for humans by Mekle and coworkers (14), was used for single-voxel spectroscopy measurements. The spectra were quantitatively analyzed, using a linear combination model. This model analyzes the in vivo spectrum as a linear combination of a basis set of simulated metabolite spectra (15) (Fig. 1). This way, GABA and glutamate estimates were obtained for all participants.

Gamma oscillations in the occipital cortex were induced by presenting vertical, stationary gratings of 3 cycles per degree at maximum contrast. Sensor space analysis showed a clear increase in visual gamma power (40–80 Hz) in posterior regions in response to these gratings (cluster-based randomization test $P < 0.05$; Fig. 2A). This increase in gamma band power was sustained for the duration of the stimulus (Fig. 2B). We applied a beamformer spatial filtering technique to extract source-reconstructed gamma peak frequency and amplitude from the occipital lobe. Individual participants showed clear gamma responses in visual regions (Fig. 2C), with the source space time–frequency representations also showing sustained gamma for the duration of the stimulus presentation (Fig. 2D). Fig. S1 shows the localization of the gamma peak for all participants. Fig. 3 indicates that responses to left gratings were lateralized to the right hemisphere, with responses to right gratings being lateralized to the left hemisphere.

For each individual participant, Fourier spectra for the gamma range (40–80 Hz) were obtained with fast Fourier transform (FFT), using Slepian multitapers (± 5 Hz spectral smoothing) applied to 1-s data segments for the baseline time window (–1.0 to 0 s) and the time window of interest (0.5–1.5 s and 1.0–2.0 s stimulus presentation). We extracted the gamma peak frequency and amplitude from the voxel in occipital cortex where the power of gamma was largest, from the voxels in right/left occipital cortex where the power of gamma was largest (based on left gratings only and on right gratings only, respectively), and from the location of the MRS voxel. Spectra were plotted relative to baseline, and peak frequency and amplitude information was extracted. In addition to taking the highest value from the “raw” spectra, we also fitted Gaussian curves to the spectra to establish the existence of unambiguous peaks for all individual subjects. Representative spectra for individual participants can be seen in Fig. 2E.

Gamma peak frequency based on the raw spectra and gamma peak frequency based on the Gaussian fit showed a strong correlation of $r = 0.892$ ($P < 0.001$). To confirm the quality of the data and the reliability of the estimates, we estimated gamma peak frequencies for independent data from the left and right gratings, which were strongly correlated ($r = 0.714$; $P < 0.001$; Fig. 3), as were our estimates based on the peak activity region of interest and the MRS voxel region of interest ($r = 0.812$; $P < 0.001$). Having confirmed the quality of our measurements, we tested for the reported correlation between GABA and gamma peak frequency. We found no correlation between GABA and any of our gamma peak frequency measures [GABA – gamma based on peak activation: $r = -0.114$ ($P = 0.473$); GABA – gamma based on MRS voxel: $r = -0.064$ ($P = 0.687$); GABA – gamma based on

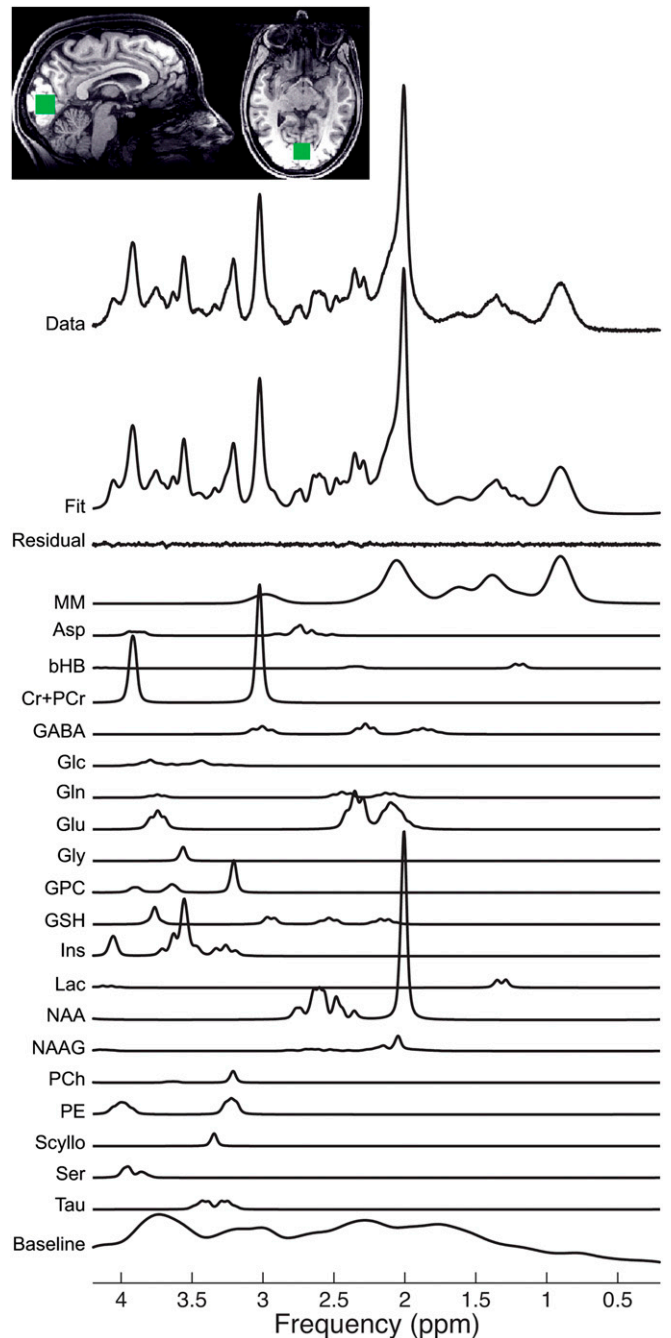


Fig. 1. A typical spectrum from the occipital voxel (placement depicted), acquired using the SPECIAL sequence. The original MRS data are shown in the top row. The next row is the model fit produced from a linear combination model (15). The high quality of the fit is demonstrated by the small residual remaining after fitting, shown by the row labeled “residual.” Below, individual fits for all neurochemicals are demonstrated. Each neurochemical has multiple fitted peaks that reflect the individual protons within the molecule. Asp, aspartate; bHB, beta-hydroxybutyrate; Cr+PCr, total creatine; GABA, gamma-aminobutyric acid; Glc, glucose; Gln, glutamine; Glu, glutamate; Gly, glycine; GPC, glycerophosphocholine; GSH, glutathione; Ins, myo-inositol; Lac, lactate; MM, macromolecules; NAA, n-acetylaspartate; NAAG, n-acetylaspartylglutamate; PCh, phosphocholine; PE, phosphorylethanolamine; Scyllo, scyllo-inositol; Ser, serine; Tau, taurine. GABA is found at a low concentration in the brain, as reflected by the relatively low-amplitude peaks. Despite this low concentration, the high quality of the fit for GABA is demonstrated by Cramer-Rao bands $< 20\%$.

contamination (18), whereas the SPECIAL sequence is less susceptible to macromolecule contamination (19). Although MEGA-PRESS is more commonly used, SPECIAL has been successfully used in several studies (20, 21), and it has been shown that short-TE measurements of GABA have good reproducibility and correspond well with measurements made using spectral editing techniques (19). We therefore feel that the different MRS methods used are unlikely to explain the discrepant findings.

Gamma oscillations are generated within complex networks of inhibitory GABAergic and excitatory glutamatergic cells, with recorded gamma waves largely corresponding to synchronous inhibitory postsynaptic potentials in pyramidal cells brought about by fast-spiking interneurons (2). Under basal conditions, the MRS GABA signal arises mostly or almost entirely from the large cytoplasmic GABA pool in GABAergic neurons, the functional significance of which is not known (22). Therefore, MRS GABA seems unlikely to reflect primarily the activity of GABAergic interneurons, including those within gamma-generating networks (10). Studies have tried to address this issue by correlating MRS GABA measures with TMS measures of synaptic GABA-A and GABA-B (20, 23) because different TMS protocols can be used to specifically assess GABA-A and GABA-B activity. No correlation between MRS GABA measures and TMS measures of synaptic GABA-A and GABA-B activity was found, supporting the view that MRS-derived GABA levels do not reflect specific synaptic activity.

Pharmacological MEG studies have also addressed the relationship between GABA and gamma oscillations in the human brain. Hall and colleagues (24) found that diazepam, which increases the effects of GABA, increases gamma power, but not gamma frequency, in the occipital cortex, whereas a similar study by Hall and coworkers (25) focusing on motor areas showed no such modulation. Muthukumaraswamy and colleagues (26) found that elevation of extracellular GABA levels by tiagabine, which blocks GABA reuptake, did not modulate gamma oscillations in either visual or motor cortex. Finally, Saxena and colleagues (27), using GABA-A agonist propofol, observed an increase in stimulus-induced gamma amplitude only. Taken together, none of these studies provides support for a measurable relationship between GABA levels and visual gamma frequency in the human brain.

We are convinced that our findings suggest a real lack of linear relation between resting GABA concentrations and gamma peak frequency. We used a substantially larger number of participants than previous studies and carried out several checks to ensure the quality of our data and analyses. However, it is always difficult to prove a null result using standard statistical methods. For this reason, we also applied the alternative approach of Bayesian statistics. Bayesian methods not only provide evidence against the null hypothesis but also weigh the evidence for H0 versus H1 for a given body of data (17). In our case, we found clear evidence in favor of the null hypothesis. When we calculated the same BF for the results of Muthukumaraswamy and colleagues (9), we found that their data do provide evidence of a correlation between gamma and GABA (BF = 4.12). However, a recent study (28) assessing GABA and gamma oscillations in participants with remitted depression ($n = 19$) and healthy controls ($n = 18$) also found no correlation between GABA and gamma, providing accumulating evidence in favor of the null hypothesis.

In sum, our results suggest that cortical gamma oscillations do not have a demonstrable relationship to excitatory/inhibitory network activity as proxied by MRS measurements of GABA and glutamate concentrations. Other methods may be needed to elucidate the relationship between gamma oscillations and GABA/glutamate in the human brain.

Methods

Participants and Stimuli. Fifty healthy right-handed volunteers (23 men, 27 women) ranging from 19–34 y old [mean age, 24 y (SD 4.11)] with normal or corrected-to-normal vision participated in this experiment. All participants reported no history of neurological or psychiatric disorders and were medication-free. Ethical approval was obtained from the National Health Service Berkshire research ethics committee, and all participants provided written informed consent. MEG and MRS data were acquired on separate days.

During the MEG session, stimuli consisting of vertical, stationary gratings of 3 cycles per degree and a diameter of 4° visual angle were presented at maximum contrast on a mean luminance, gray background using a Panasonic PT D7700E projector. Multiple studies have shown that the presentation of gratings is a reliable method to induce gamma responses (e.g., refs. 29–31). Gratings were presented for 2 s at a peripheral location within the lower left or right visual field (centered over 2.5° eccentricity) and always followed by 2 s of fixation without gratings present on the screen. Blocks of left or right visual field stimulation contained five stimuli followed by 20 s fixation during which the subjects were allowed to blink. Overall, 90 stimuli were presented. Participants were instructed to maintain fixation on a dot in the middle of the screen for the duration of the experiment.

MEG Methods. Whole-head MEG recordings were acquired using the Elekta NeuroMag MEG System. Data from the 204 gradiometers were analyzed. The signal was digitized at a sampling rate of 1,000 Hz, with a high-pass filter of 0.03 Hz and a low-pass filter of 330 Hz. A magnetic digitizer (Polhemus FastTrak 3D) was used to measure the relative positions of four head-position indicator coils and three anatomical landmarks (nasion and left and right auricular points). These coordinates were used for coregistration of the sensor montage to the participant's structural MRI scan.

The data were analyzed using the Matlab-based Fieldtrip toolbox (32) (www.ru.nl/neuroimaging/fieldtrip). Offline, data were low-pass filtered at 200 Hz and high-pass filtered at 0.5 Hz. Data were downsampled to 500 Hz. Bad channels and trials were rejected on visual inspection. We used independent component analysis (33) to identify eye artifacts, which were then projected out of the data. Line noise was removed using a bandstop filter from 49.5 to 50.5 Hz.

To assess the effects of the presentation of the gratings on gamma power (40–80 Hz) in sensor space, a time-frequency analysis was performed using a FFT approach with sliding time windows. We applied a fixed time window of 0.5 s and four orthogonal Slepian tapers resulting in ± 5 Hz smoothing (34). Spectral power was then computed as the average across trials and tapers and was presented relative to baseline (-1 to -0.5 s).

Statistical analysis was performed on both sensor and source level (see following), using the same cluster-based randomization procedure (35). By clustering neighboring sensors (or grid points in the source analysis) that show the same effect, this test deals with the multiple-comparisons problem and, at the same time, takes into account the dependency of the data.

We applied a linearly constrained minimum variance beamformer technique to extract source-reconstructed gamma peak frequency and amplitude from the occipital lobe. Using the individual anatomical MRI, we constructed a realistically shaped single-shell description of the brain for each subject. The brain volume was divided into a grid with a 1-cm resolution and normalized to the template Montreal Neurological Institute brain, using SPM8 (www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm). Lead fields were calculated for all grid points (36). We calculated the covariance matrix between all sensor pairs of the averaged band-passed (40–80 Hz) single trials and computed spatial filters for each subject, which were applied to reconstruct the raw time series as a virtual channel for the region of interest. Fourier spectra for the gamma range (40–80 Hz) were obtained with an FFT, using 9 Slepian multitapers (± 5 Hz spectral smoothing) applied to 1-s data segments for the baseline time window (-1.0 to 0 s) and the time window of interest (0.5–1.5 s and 1.0–2.0 s stimulus presentation). Spectra were plotted relative to baseline and peak frequency and amplitude information extracted.

In addition, we used an adaptive algorithm fitting a Gaussian curve to the power spectra and used these for estimating the individual gamma peak frequency to confirm our original peak detection. This approach may give more accurate peak estimates (e.g., in case the spectrum contains two local maxima close to each other in the gamma range or in case of noisy spectra with spurious peaks), as it effectively smoothes the spectra. Furthermore, it is a more conservative approach, as subjects without substantial modulation in the gamma range are automatically omitted (Gaussian fit fails), allowing us to verify that our initial analysis was not biased by inclusion of potentially spurious peaks. For seven subjects, no clear peak could be fitted, and therefore these subjects were excluded from further analyses.

Regions of interest were generated in two ways. To assess the relationship of GABA and glutamate with gamma in the same location in the brain, we

took the Montreal Neurological Institute coordinates of the MRS voxel of each individual subject and used them as a spatial mask to extract gamma amplitude and frequency data. Furthermore, we determined the spatial distribution of power within the gamma band (40–80 Hz) in occipital cortex. A sphere of 17.5-mm radius was drawn around the peak of the activation and used as a spatial mask to extract frequency and amplitude. Because a previous study reporting a correlation between gamma peak frequency and GABA only presented gratings in the left visual field (9), we also specifically analyzed activity generated by the left and right gratings separately. Amplitude was expressed as percentage change from baseline.

MRS Methods. For MR data acquisition, a 3T Siemens scanner with a 32-channel head coil was used. A high-resolution T1-weighted anatomical image was acquired for each subject. The parameters were 224 slices (1 mm thick; distance factor = 50%, fov(read) = 256 mm, fov(phase) = 68.8%, matrix = 174×192 , TR = 3000 ms, TE = 4.8 ms, TI = 1100 ms, flip angle = 8° , 1 concatenation, bandwidth = 220 Hz, echo spacing = 9.6 ms). Sagittal and axial T1 scout images were acquired and used to place a $2 \times 2 \times 2$ cm³ voxel of interest manually in the occipital cortex (Fig. 1).

The SPECIAL sequence, originally developed by Mlynárik and colleagues (13) and adapted for humans by Meikle and colleagues (14), localized the single-voxel spectroscopy measurements. This sequence employs a very short echo-time acquisition, thereby minimizing signal loss resulting from T2 decay and scalar coupling. Although conventional short TE MRS is typically performed using a stimulated-echo approach, the SPECIAL sequence uses a spin-echo approach, which yields a factor two improvement in signal-to-noise ratio. Volumes were acquired using the following scan parameters: VOI = $2 \times 2 \times 2$ cm³, TR/TE = 3,000 ms/8.5 ms, spectral width = 2 kHz, number of averages = 192, vector size = 2,048. Water suppression was achieved using the VAPOR method, which uses frequency selective pulses to suppress the

water signal before excitation. Data acquisition could not be completed for one participant because of peripheral nerve stimulation.

For the MRS data analysis, before spectral analysis, eddy-current correction was applied to each water-suppressed spectrum, using the corresponding water-unsuppressed spectrum as an eddy-current reference. The spectra were then quantitatively analyzed, using a linear combination model. This analyzes the in vivo spectrum as a linear combination of a basis set of simulated metabolite spectra (15), as can be seen in Fig. 1. Simulated metabolite basis spectra were generated using an in-house Matlab-based implementation of the density matrix formalism, as described previously (18). All metabolite chemical shifts and coupling constants were taken from Govindaraju and colleagues (37). This way, we obtained a quantitative estimate for the concentration of each metabolite in arbitrary units, as well as its estimated uncertainty (Cramer-Rao lower bound). Given our interest in GABA and glutamate, we extracted the estimated concentrations for these neurotransmitters. There were no scans for which the uncertainty was more than 20% or peak line width was more than 8 Hz. Furthermore, we extracted levels of creatine, which is a measure of cellular integrity and the standard reference resonance (38). We then normalized our GABA and glutamate values by dividing them by creatine levels.

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