

## Imaging white matter diffusion changes with development and recovery from brain injury

ROSE BOSNELL<sup>1</sup>, ANTONIO GIORGIO<sup>1,2</sup>, & HEIDI JOHANSEN-BERG<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Oxford Centre for Functional MRI of the Brain, John Radcliffe Hospital, Headington, Oxford, UK and

<sup>2</sup>Department of Neurological and Behavioral Sciences, University of Siena, Italy

(Received 30 April 2008; accepted 20 June 2008)

### Abstract

**Purpose:** This study reviews the application of diffusion tensor imaging (DTI) to the study of developmental and pathological changes in brain white matter. The ability to measure and monitor such changes *in vivo* would provide important opportunities for charting disease progression and monitoring response to therapeutic intervention. This study first reviews the use of DTI in studying normal human brain development. It goes on to illustrate how DTI has been used to provide insights into recovery from damage in selected brain disorders.

**Conclusions:** It is concluded that potential clinical applications of DTI include: (i) monitoring pathological change, (ii) providing markers that predict recovery and allow for individual targeting of therapy, (iii) providing outcome measures, (iv) providing measures of potentially compensatory structural changes and (v) improving understanding of normal brain anatomy to aid in interpretation of the consequences of localized damage.

**Keywords:** Diffusion tensor imaging, tractography, anatomy, development, recovery, imaging

Revisamos la aplicación de la imagen por tensión de difusión (DTI) en el estudio de los cambios del desarrollo y de los cambios patológicos en la sustancia blanca cerebral. La capacidad de medir y vigilar esos cambios *in vivo* proporcionará una oportunidad importante para seguir la progresión de la enfermedad y estudiar la respuesta a la intervención terapéutica. Nosotros revisamos inicialmente el uso de la DTI para estudiar el desarrollo del cerebro humano normal. Continuamos ilustrando como la DTI ha sido utilizada para brindar una visión acerca de la recuperación a partir del daño en alteraciones específicas del cerebro. Concluimos que las aplicaciones clínicas potenciales de la DTI incluyen: (i) Vigilar los cambios patológicos, (ii) Proporcionar los marcadores que permitan predecir la recuperación y orientar la terapia en forma individual, (iii) Proporcionar mediciones de resultados, (iv) Proporcionar mediciones de cambios estructurales potenciales para la compensación, (v) Mejorar nuestro entendimiento de la anatomía cerebral normal, con el propósito de ayudar en la interpretación de las consecuencias de un daño localizado.

### Introduction

Pathological changes in white matter are important in a number of neurological and psychiatric disorders. The ability to measure and monitor such changes *in vivo* would provide important opportunities for charting disease progression and monitoring response to therapeutic intervention. Diffusion tensor imaging (DTI) provides measures that are related to the structural integrity of the brain white matter. This study explores ways in which such measures have been used to help to understand the processes of development and recovery from damage in selected brain disorders.

DTI is a non-invasive magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) technique. Images are acquired using the same scanner used for conventional MRI but the sequences are modified such that the signal is sensitive to the amount and direction of water diffusion in the brain. These are useful to measure because the amount and directionality of water diffusion depend on structural properties of the tissue that are altered in development or disease. DTI is therefore sensitive to the (typically static) structural integrity of the white matter. In this way, DTI is complementary to functional imaging techniques that provide dynamic measures of brain

activity as reflected by electrical signals or their hemodynamic correlates. Indeed, many of the most promising applications of DTI in the clinical setting have used the technique in combination with functional imaging.

The usefulness of DTI depends on the fact that water diffusion within tissue with structured organization, such as brain white matter, is not random. Rather, diffusion in such structures displays directional dependence, or ‘anisotropy’, i.e. diffusion is greater along than across the axis of a bundle. This directional dependence is due to the presence of increased physical barriers to diffusion across the bundle, such as the axon membranes and myelin sheaths [1]. Any pathological process which affects the barriers to diffusion will lead to changes in the measured diffusion signal. Measures derived from DTI are therefore proposed to reflect white matter integrity.

Basic diffusion weighted imaging (DWI), in which diffusion is measured along three orthogonal directions, is used routinely in acute stroke, to quantify increases in diffusivity, as measured by apparent diffusion coefficient (ADC) maps at the site of an infarct. DTI provides additional information about the directional dependence of the diffusion signal. For DTI, imaging data are acquired while applying gradients that sensitize the signal to diffusion along a larger number of different directions (minimum of six). This allows for a mathematical model, known as the tensor model, to be fit to the measurements at each voxel (3-dimensional pixel) in the brain. The tensor model enables diffusion to be considered in 3D. The tensor is fully characterized by the length and direction of its three major axes. These lengths are referred to as the eigenvalues of the tensor, while the directions are its eigenvectors [2, 3]. The long axis of the tensor is the principal eigenvalue and corresponds to the direction along which diffusion is fastest, i.e. the principle diffusion direction or the path of least resistance. In a coherent fibre bundle, this direction typically corresponds to the long axis of an axon.

In the tensor model, the degree to which diffusion is directionally dependent is measured by Fractional Anisotropy (FA), a parameter that can be calculated from the eigenvalues and takes values ranging from 0 (isotropic, i.e. diffusion is equal in all directions) to 1 (anisotropic) [3]. While changes in FA reflect changes in biologically meaningful tissue properties such as myelination, axon diameter or packing density [1], there is not a clear-cut relationship between FA changes and any pathological change and so findings should be interpreted with care. A decrease in FA could reflect a decrease in diffusivity in the principal diffusion direction, an increase in diffusivity in the orthogonal directions or a

combination of these changes. To aid interpretation of FA changes, researchers therefore also sometimes report changes in diffusion along the principal diffusion direction, referred to as ‘parallel diffusivity’, or along the orthogonal directions, referred to as ‘perpendicular diffusivity’. Although these measures provide additional information on what is driving observed FA changes, pathological interpretation of such measures is also ambiguous [4–13].

DTI is a relatively new technique that has rapidly been applied to a number of clinical populations. Although it offers exciting possibilities, it also suffers from some limitations. First, as explained above, there is not a one-to-one relationship between change in any DTI parameter and a particular neuropathological (or neurodevelopmental) change. For this reason, one should be cautious in biological interpretation of an observed change in a diffusion parameter. For example, alterations in FA could reflect differences in tract geometry as well as differences in tract integrity. As with any imaging technique, the power and interpretability of DTI depends on the quality of the acquired data and on the validity of the applied analysis techniques. For example, DTI data can be significantly affected by head motion, which impairs data quality and can induce artefacts in the images. Head motion tends to be greater in patient populations and in young subjects and so this issue should be closely monitored in studies of development or recovery. Data analysis steps, such as the amount of smoothing applied to the data [14], can significantly influence results and should be carefully considered [15].

In addition to deriving voxelwise estimates of diffusion parameters, DTI data can be used to perform tractography, in which estimates of the principle diffusion direction at each voxel are followed to reconstruct estimates of the path of the underlying fibre bundles [16–18]. This technique allows for so-called ‘*in vivo* dissection’ of fibre bundles in the human brain [19] and has generated much excitement. Although applications of tractography in clinical populations are more limited to date, there is considerable potential. Again, however, the technique has limitations which should be carefully considered when planning or interpreting a study [20]. For example, the inability to trace a particular pathway in a clinical group does not necessarily mean that the pathway is not present. Multiple factors unrelated to the true presence or strength of the underlying pathway, such as head size, data quality, gross brain atrophy and the strength of crossing fibre populations, can influence the ease with which a tract is traced through diffusion data.

In spite of these limitations, DTI has enormous potential for use in studies of brain development or

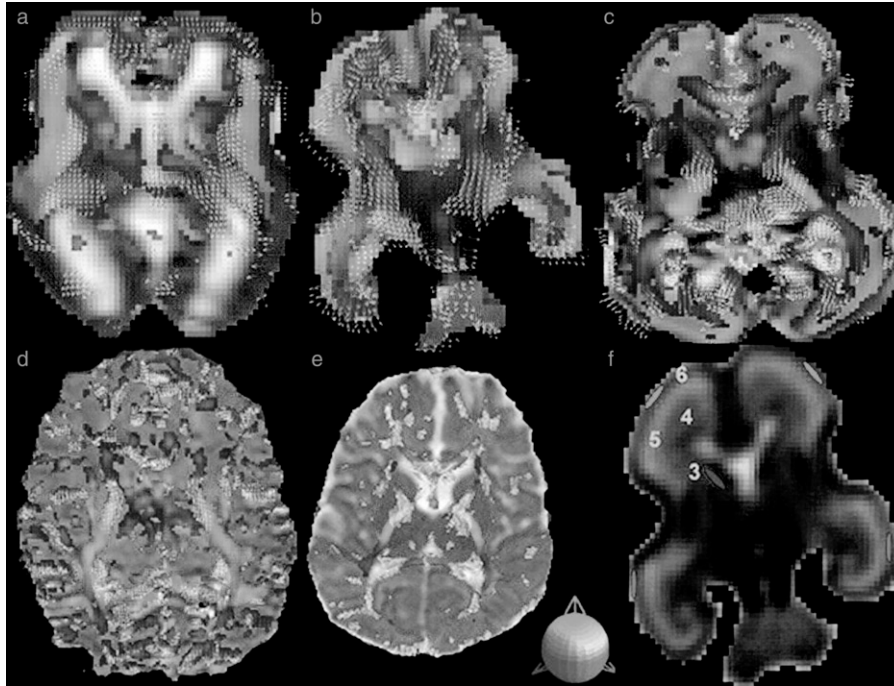


Figure 1. Representative FA maps modulated by the principal eigenvector showing changes in the cortical anisotropy at different gestational ages (GA). The small arrows (white and yellow) indicate the direction of the principal tensor eigenvector. Note the decrease in the radial orientation in the cerebral cortex from age 17 to age 27 weeks (a–c), corresponding to an increase of FA values, and its near disappearance at 37 weeks (d) and 133 days (e) of GA. The colour coding is shown in (e; lower right corner): red is right–left, green is anterior–posterior and blue is superior–inferior. (f) The figure displays the three eigenvalues along the three separate RGB channels. The numbers refer to the cortical plate (6), sub-plate zone (5), intermediate zone (4) and germinal matrix (3). From Gupta et al. 2005 [22]. Reprinted with permission of Wiley-Liss, Inc., a subsidiary of John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

recovery when carefully applied. It offers, for the first time, the ability to measure properties of white matter integrity across the whole brain in a relatively short time. Diffusion measurements are sensitive to any change in the structural barriers to diffusion in the white matter, through development, inflammation or degeneration. DTI-derived measures could therefore be used to monitor disease progression over time and potentially to enable identification of high-risk groups earlier in the course of disease who may benefit from specific intervention. Use of DTI measures to assess white matter integrity could increase understanding of many neurological diseases, not only those whose (primary) pathology directly affects white matter (e.g. multiple sclerosis, acute disseminated encephalomyelitis) but also those diseases which indirectly result in damage to white matter tracts (e.g. stroke, Alzheimer's disease, motor neuron diseases).

#### *DTI changes during development*

DTI studies in developing brains have provided important insights into the evolving structure of healthy cerebral cortex. DTI studies in embryonic mouse brains have shown that, during the very early

stages of development, the cortical plate and the periventricular zone, both precursors of the cerebral cortex, exhibit a highly organized structure, similar to that observed in the white matter [21]. Human imaging studies of pre-term infants have shown that cerebral cortex exhibits increases of FA between 15–28 gestational weeks, consistent with the migration of neurons from the germinal matrix of the periventricular zone along the radial glia scaffolding [22] (Figure 1). FA values vary regionally in cortex, with a left predominance in the frontal cortex [22] and higher values in the superior occipital and frontal gyri compared to pre- and post-central gyri [23], possibly reflecting different maturational processes in different cortical areas. FA values in the human cerebral cortex reach a maximum at 26 gestational weeks, then constantly decrease until term [24]. During gestation, the principal diffusion direction within the cerebral cortex is oriented radially, consistent with a predominantly radial deployment of the cortical neurons [24]. After birth, studies in rats have demonstrated continuing decreases of cortical FA [25], especially in deep cortical layers [26], consistent with the transformation of the radial glia into the more complex astrocytic neuropil. However, these findings are in

contrast to a recent study demonstrating a localized increase of FA in the cingulate cortex of mice after birth, preferentially in the antero-posterior direction, and little or no change in other cortical areas [27].

The pattern of developmental change in deep grey matter structures is also unclear. Some studies report no DTI changes during the first days after birth in deep grey matter structures of rats [25] whereas others showed significant FA increases in the caudate-putamen of mice during the first 7 weeks after birth [27].

As for the white matter, different time-courses of FA changes for the maturation of different tracts (limbic, commissural, association and projections tracts) in the various phases of development have been identified [28]. The first increase of FA in white matter during development seems to take place during gestation, before the appearance of myelin [29], especially in the commissural fibres including the splenium and genu of corpus callosum [30].

After birth, different patterns of FA change over time seem to exist even within the same fibre system. For example, data from rats showed that FA values in the body of corpus callosum decrease significantly during the first 3 weeks after birth due to a decrease in parallel diffusivity and FA values increase thereafter due to a decrease in perpendicular diffusivity [25]. Studies in rabbits showed that these FA changes in the corpus callosum and also in the internal capsule coincide with the development of immature oligodendrocytes and with modifications in compound action potentials [31]. By contrast, studies in mouse revealed a steady FA increase in the genu of corpus callosum until 2 months after birth due to a decrease in perpendicular diffusivity, consistent with axon and myelin maturation [32]. It is not clear whether these different reported patterns reflect true differences in the maturation of different components of the corpus callosum or are due to methodological or species differences between these studies.

During early childhood (up to 5 years of age), three phases of FA change in white matter tracts have been observed in humans: rapid increases during the first year, slow modifications during the second year and relative stability thereafter [33]. However, these findings are not replicated by other studies on children with a wider age range (up to 16 years of age), in which age-related FA increase in white matter followed a mono- or bi-exponential course and continued in all deep white matter areas, in contrast to other brain areas, where adult values were reached during the third year [34]. In particular, FA increases in the splenium continued to a later age than those within the genu of corpus callosum, while the centrum semiovale showed the

latest changes [35]. Regional FA differences were also demonstrated at the level of both the fronto-temporal segment, where a left predominance was reported, and the fronto-parietal segment of the arcuate fascicle, where lower FA values were found [36]. Eluvathingal et al. [36] summarized the process of white matter maturation during childhood by three patterns of diffusion change: increase of FA and decrease of all diffusivities in the left inferior longitudinal and fronto-occipital fascicles, decreases of all diffusivities with no FA changes in the left corticospinal tract and no age-related DTI changes along the somato-sensory pathways.

White matter structural changes during childhood are associated with developmental functional brain changes. In particular, FA increases in bilateral white matter association areas like the frontal and occipito-parietal areas were found to be positively correlated with IQ scores [37]. Moreover, FA values in the fronto-parietal white matter were significantly correlated with the magnitude of functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) activations in closely located grey matter areas, such as the superior frontal sulcus and the inferior parietal lobe, during a working memory task [38].

Age-related FA increase in the white matter continues into adolescence [39–42]. In particular, ongoing increases in FA are prominent in the corona radiata [40, 42] and in the body [39, 40], genu and splenium [42] of corpus callosum. Increased FA in the body of corpus callosum has been linked to improved motor skills during adolescence [39, 41] and adulthood [43]. White matter FA changes in adolescents are driven by a decrease in perpendicular diffusivity, consistent with ongoing myelination of fibre pathways [40]. These white matter changes are not isolated but are associated with concurrent age-related decrease in grey matter density in the middle frontal and precentral gyri [40] (Figure 2), reflecting either increased cortical myelination [44] or synaptic pruning [45].

#### *DTI studies of recovery*

Quantitative and qualitative measures of white matter integrity and organization, as obtained from DTI, provide the clinician with novel means of investigating processes underlying recovery from brain injury *in vivo*. This additional information has important implications for clinician and patient, potentially aiding the development of targeted individualized therapy. The following section begins with a review of the use of DTI in investigating recovery in three selected contexts—stroke, multiple sclerosis (MS) and head injury. For a more thorough discussion of the use of DTI in neurological disorders, the reader is referred to

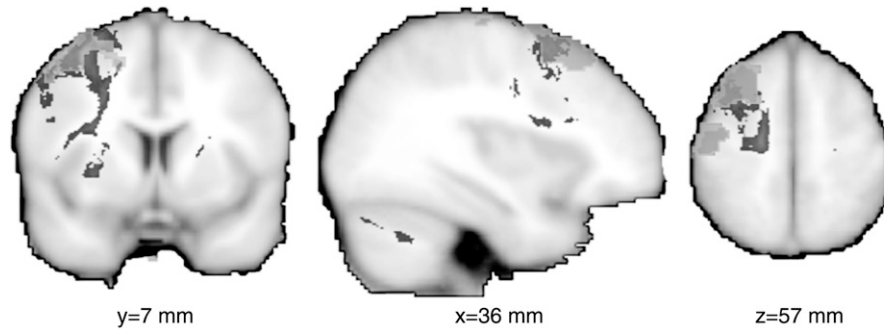


Figure 2. Relationship in adolescent subjects between tracts from white matter regions showing age-related FA increase (in red, tracts from superior region of the corona radiata) and the cortical regions showing age-related grey matter volume decrease (in blue, middle frontal and precentral gyri). From Giorgio et al. 2008 [40] with permission.

comprehensive recent reviews [46–53]. Next, the use of DTI in paediatric neurology is considered. To date, there have been a limited number of studies in this field; this study considers a few examples from periventricular leucomalacia (PVL) and Krabbe's disease.

### Stroke

DWI is a well-established method for monitoring pathological changes in acute stroke. Diffusion tensor measures, such as FA and ADC, can add useful additional information. Both FA and ADC show distinct changes with time after stroke. Most studies [54–56] have found that ADC values decrease immediately (within minutes to hours) after stroke, consistent with loss of tissue integrity, then increase slowly (within 7–10 days) towards normal values ('pseudonormalization') and finally become elevated, consistent with tissue necrosis. Generally, FA values decrease after stroke [57, 58], although some authors report an increase immediately after onset [59, 60] as a result of fluid shift from the extracellular to intracellular space (cytotoxic oedema). Overall, these conflicting results may be explained by differences in imaging methodology and by the heterogeneity of diffusion values within the lesion in the acute stage of a stroke. For extensive reviews see papers by Mukherjee [51] and Sotak [61].

Current research aims to use DTI measures to predict clinical outcome following stroke. Physiological studies have demonstrated that recovery from stroke in adults seems, in part, dependent on functional integrity of corticospinal tracts [62]. DTI has been used, both alone and in combination with transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) and fMRI, to gain more information on the importance of the structural integrity of the corticospinal tract to stroke recovery. Wallerian degeneration can be readily seen using DTI [63, 64] and with greater

ease than conventional MRI [65]. The degree of corticospinal tract involvement within an infarct correlates with degree of recovery and stroke severity [66, 67]. Further, FA values within the corticospinal tract can be correlated with clinical outcome both acutely and sub-acutely, with lower FA values associated with worse outcome [68–70]. Decreases in FA are also found in the corpus callosum and in other normal appearing white matter tracts, although some recovery of FA values has been reported in the years following stroke [71, 72].

A combination of DTI and functional measures may provide even greater prognostic information. A recent study used multi-modal imaging and stimulation techniques to test whether a combination of structural and functional measures could accurately predict response to intervention in chronic stroke patients [73]. Patients in whom motor evoked potentials (MEPs) could be elicited by TMS to the affected hemisphere showed improved clinical outcome scores with intervention. By contrast, improvement in patients who had absent MEPs in the corticospinal tract was only possible if FA asymmetry of the corticospinal tract was higher than 0.25. Based on these results, the authors propose a decision pipeline for determining individualized therapeutic approaches. This paper emphasizes the important role DTI could play in the clinical setting of recovery post-stroke as a predictive tool, enabling rationalization of therapy in combination with other techniques.

When combined with functional imaging approaches, DTI can be used not only to predict outcome but also to determine the type of structural change that results in functional plasticity. There is now substantial information regarding the role of compensatory functional plasticity in stroke recovery from fMRI research. For example, bilateral activation is seen when patients perform a motor task with their dominant, affected hand

[74, 75]. However, the importance of the activation in the contralesional hemisphere is still unknown; indeed some authors feel persistent activation in the contralesional hemisphere has a negative effect on recovery [76]. DTI allows one to combine imaging modalities to determine the circumstances that evoke such contralesional activation. A small case series by Newton et al. [77] showed that enhanced ipsilesional functional MRI activation for a motor task was associated with greater damage to the cortico-fugal tracts (as defined using diffusion tractography in a group of healthy subjects). By acquiring DTI and fMRI data in the same individuals, Schaechter et al. [78] demonstrated that greater corticospinal tract damage (as detected through decreased fibre count using streamline tractography) correlated with increased fMRI activation during affected hand movement in contralesional primary sensorimotor cortex (M1/S1). In other words, the greater the structural damage to the corticospinal tract the greater the potential compensatory functional response, consistent with electrophysiological studies in monkey models of stroke showing, for example, greater functional remapping of ventral premotor cortex with increasing damage to primary motor cortex [79]. These correlations cannot establish the functional significance of this contralesional activity, but studies using TMS have suggested that, at least in some poorly recovered patients, the undamaged hemisphere is playing a functionally relevant role in movement of an affected limb [80, 81].

Another important role for DTI in understanding recovery from localized brain damage such as stroke comes through the use of tractography to increase knowledge of human brain anatomy. Much of the knowledge of white matter anatomy comes from early pathological and gross dissection work and more recent tracer studies in animals [82]. Tractography can provide important additional anatomical information in living human brain and studies have provided novel information on normal human brain anatomy [83] and can also provide insight into the consequences of damage [20, 84]. For example, Catani et al. [19] use tractography to delineate pathways underlying language processing in the human brain. They find that in addition to the classical arcuate fascicle route, travelling directly between Broca's and Wernicke's areas, there is an indirect pathway connecting Broca's and Wernicke's area via the inferior parietal lobe. The presence of this indirect tract helps to explain the many different types of aphasia that can arise from lesions within this area. It suggests that there is a degree of redundancy in the system that might be important in recovery.

### *Multiple sclerosis*

DTI has provided useful measures in MS, both within and outside lesions. When used to monitor pathological change, DTI findings in MS lesions appear to relate to different pathological features of tissue damage (oedema, demyelination, axonal loss, gliosis). However, conflicting results have been achieved when comparing DTI values in acute vs. chronic MS lesions. In general, lowest FA in acute (gadolinium-enhancing) lesions [85–87] and highest ADC in chronic destructive (T1 hypointense) lesions [85, 87–90] have been reported. Longitudinal studies have demonstrated that DTI is sensitive to the evolution of tissue damage within MS lesions over relatively short periods of time, with diffusion changes reported in T2 lesions in patients with primary and secondary progressive [91] and relapsing-remitting [92] MS after 15 and 18 months, respectively. However, there is still the need of further longitudinal studies to address the issue of how much tissue disorganization in acute lesions is permanent (i.e. due to axonal loss) and how much is transient (i.e. due to oedema, demyelination).

Unlike conventional MRI, DTI is able to detect abnormalities in the so-called normal appearing white matter (NAWM) of MS patients. Altered diffusion properties in the total NAWM have been found not only in established MS [85, 87–89, 93–95] but also in early-onset MS (i.e. within 5 years of symptoms) [96], in clinically isolated syndromes suggestive of MS [97] and, to some extent, in early relapsing-remitting MS patients (i.e. within 3 years of symptoms onset and with low disability) [98]. NAWM damage has been localized to specific areas such as subcortical white matter [94] and well-defined white matter tracts such as the internal capsule [85, 99], frontal white matter [85], centrum semiovale [85], whole corpus callosum [99–103], body of corpus callosum [100, 104, 105] and pyramidal tracts [102, 106, 107] in relapsing-remitting MS patients, to the corpus callosum and internal capsule in primary progressive MS patients [86] and to the whole corpus callosum in a MS population with different phenotypes of the disease [108]. In early MS (onset before 16 years of age), only a slight increase of ADC in the NAWM of patients compared to white matter of healthy controls has been shown [109], probably explaining why these patients typically have a more favourable clinical course than adult-onset MS.

DTI studies have also tried to gain insight into the pathogenic mechanism of damage in NAWM of MS brains. Reported correlations between DTI metrics and lesion volume measures support the hypothesis that Wallerian degeneration of axons transected by

remote but connected focal lesions is an important feature in a number of disease sub-types [100, 106, 108], although others find no such correlations [88, 97, 110]. The latter findings are consistent with a recent study in which DTI measures were associated with decreased blood perfusion in the normal appearing corpus callosum of MS patients, consistent more with a primary ischemia than a secondary hypometabolism from Wallerian degeneration [111].

The use of DTI in longitudinal studies has increased understanding of pathogenic mechanisms of reversible and persistent disability. For example, DTI has demonstrated short-term accrual of grey matter damage in patients with progressive [91] and relapsing-remitting [92] MS. An increase of DTI abnormalities in NAWM have been shown over 1 year in MS patients with clinically isolated syndromes [112] and primary progressive MS [113]. By contrast, in a recent study in early relapsing-remitting patients [114] no significant DTI differences in longitudinal rates of change between patients and controls over 2 years were seen, suggesting a limited role for global DTI assessment of NAWM in following the early disease course.

In some cases, DTI has also been able to predict temporal dynamics of tissue damage in MS. More severe grey matter damage measured by DTI identified those primary progressive MS patients with an increased risk of disease progression over the following 5 years [115]. Importantly, ADC was shown to be higher in NAWM that would go on to become visible acute lesions 6 weeks [116] and 6 months later [117]. By contrast, in patients with clinically isolated syndromes suggestive of MS, the severity of NAWM damage did not predict new lesion formation in the short-term (1 year) [97].

Associations between DTI measures in MS brains and clinical disability, usually measured by Expanded Disability Status Scale (EDSS) score, have also been investigated, although conflicting results have been found. EDSS score did not correlate with FA in regions of interest of NAWM in early MS [98], relapsing-remitting [86, 104], secondary and primary progressive MS [86]. By contrast, in relapsing-remitting MS patients DTI metrics of pyramidal tracts were significantly correlated with EDSS score [107] and with pyramidal functional score [102, 107]. EDSS score in a mixed population of MS patients was significantly correlated to DTI metrics in the cerebral peduncles [93]. In the same study, in a sub-set of relapsing-remitting MS patients, EDSS score significantly correlated with DTI metrics within the whole NAWM (both supratentorial and infratentorial). Moreover, by using a recent voxelwise analysis of DTI data [15],

decreased FA in the normal appearing corpus callosum was significantly correlated with increasing disability in clinically definite MS (mostly relapsing-remitting) [118]. A significant relationship between clinical disability and DTI measures has been also demonstrated in the cortical grey matter of MS patients with different phenotypes of the disease [95, 119]. Finally, the ADC of corpus callosum significantly correlated with a measure of cognitive performance (Paced Auditory Serial Addition Test) in relapsing-remitting MS patients [101, 102], suggesting a role for DTI also in charting cognitive performance in MS patients. Moreover, callosal damage in MS, as measured by FA and perpendicular diffusivity, was associated with alterations in a behavioural task (redundancy gain effect) that relies on interhemispheric communication efficiency [103].

As well as relating DTI findings to behaviour in MS, the relationship between structural and functional changes has been explored by combining DTI and fMRI results. A correlation between anatomical connectivity of transcallosal motor pathways, assessed by DTI measures (FA and perpendicular diffusivity), and functional connectivity of the primary sensorimotor cortices, measured by low-frequency hemodynamic fluctuations in the resting state, was recently reported [120].

Diffusion tractography has been applied to the study of MS, allowing for study of specific important functional pathways such as the corpus callosum [101, 102, 118, 121], motor pathways [107, 122, 123], white matter bundles involved in cognitive performance [124, 125]. The use of tractography has also allowed for demonstration of the presence of structural and functional plasticity in MS brains. In particular, an apparent increase in the number of tractography-derived connections between the left and right thalami was shown in early relapsing-remitting MS patients, potentially suggesting a compensatory structural plasticity of the white matter in MS [124]. Furthermore, in benign MS abnormal DTI measures in white matter fibre bundles involved in frontal lobe executive functions (Stroop task) were accompanied by increased bilateral cortical activations of connected areas [125]. In relapsing-remitting MS patients a significant correlation was found between measures of functional connectivity (above all between supplementary motor cortex and cerebellum) and DTI measures of some of the major motor white matter tracts [123]. Both these studies seem to suggest an adaptive role of functional connectivity in limiting the clinical consequences of structural damage in MS patients.

Overall, DTI appears to be a promising tool for testing the integrity of brain structure in MS, even

though further investigations are warranted to better elucidate the pathological correlates of tissue damage in MS.

### Head injury

Diffuse axonal brain injury is a consequence of severe head injury. Again, DTI measures have been used to monitor pathological changes, although studies on head injured patients are far fewer than those in stroke and MS. Decreases in FA have been shown acutely and chronically [126–128] in the white matter of patients with diffuse axonal injury. By 9–15 months post-injury, however, there is some recovery of FA values [129]. DTI measures also predict clinical outcome in this patient group; FA values within the cerebral peduncle 5–11 weeks after severe brain injury, in combination with a functional independence score at this timepoint, predict Glasgow outcome scale at 1 year with 100% accuracy [129]. This study again shows the potential importance of DTI in predicting recovery. However, it must be stressed that this group of patients was at the severe end of a wide spectrum of possible clinical outcomes post-head injury.

### Paediatric neurology

To date, there have been few studies using DTI in paediatric neurological disorders. This study reviews a few examples from the study of periventricular leucomalacia (PVL) and Krabbe’s disease.

Corticospinal tract damage is thought to be the underlying basis for the motor deficit observed in PVL [130]. Use of DTI to monitor pathological changes has demonstrated reduced FA in a number of fibre systems. Following identification of qualitative differences in anterior thalamocortical fibres in two children with PVL compared to age-matched children [131], Nagee et al. [132] studied 24 children with cerebral palsy associated with PVL. They found a total of 19 white matter tracts affected, including sensory tracts of the posterior thalamic radiations. However, these tracts were only qualitatively assessed and there was marked clinical phenotype heterogeneity. This information, combined with quantitative diffusion measures, could aid classification of these clinical phenotypes and begin to form the basis for providing more targeted therapy.

Again, DTI measures have been used not only to monitor pathological changes but also to detect potentially compensatory changes. For example, streamline fibre counts within the corticospinal tract are significantly decreased in the lesioned hemisphere, consistent with widespread reduced FA, but are significantly increased in the contralesional hemisphere [133] (Figure 3). As the initial pathological damage in PVL is in the perinatal period, i.e. before white matter maturation, the authors hypothesize that in these adolescent patients the increase in the contralesional hemisphere could represent attempts at compensatory white matter reorganization.

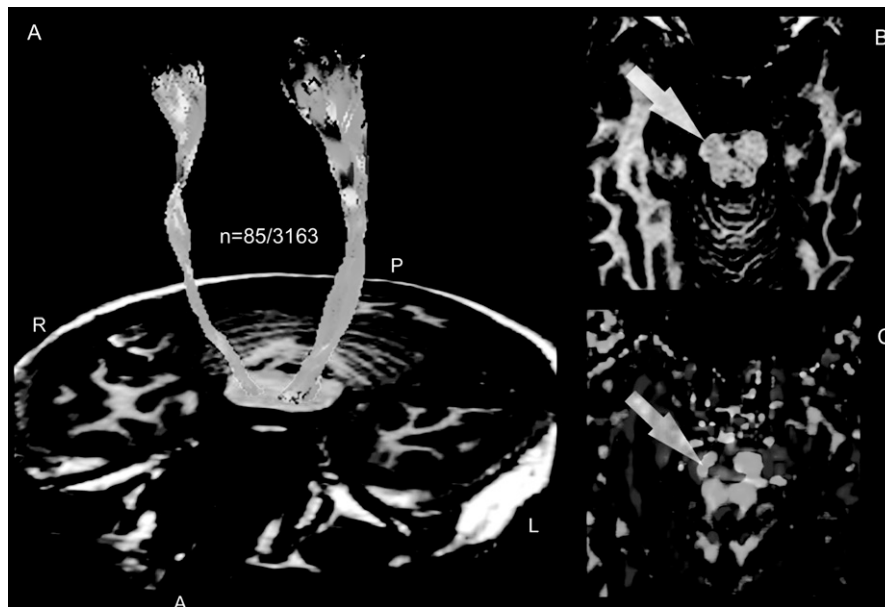


Figure 3. In (a) the corticospinal tract of a patient with periventricular leucomalacia (PVL) shows a significantly reduced number of fibres on the affected right side. In (b) axial anatomy section through the midbrain shows atrophy of the right cerebral peduncle (arrow) due to Wallerian degeneration of corticospinal tract, which is better demonstrated on DTI colour map (c). Note the marked rarefaction of the corticospinal tract (blue) on the affected side (arrow).  $n$  = DTI fibre count. From Thomas et al. 2005 [133] with permission.



A promising example of the use of DTI in monitoring response to treatment is provided in a study of Krabbe's disease [134], a neurodegenerative metabolic disorder caused by a deficiency of beta-galactocerebrosidase [135]. One potential therapy for this disorder is stem cell transplantation [136]. Evidence suggests that early transplantation is associated with longer life expectancy. In a small series of cases, Provenzale et al. [134] compared alteration in DTI measurements in different white matter regions of interest between patients transplanted early (within a few weeks of birth) or later (5–8 months old). Subjects were scanned serially at different time intervals up to 4 years post-transplant. FA ratios (ratio of FA values within a specific white matter region in a Krabbe patient to FA values within the same structure in a group of normal control subjects) were similar at the time of transplantation for the two groups. However, following transplantation FA ratios remained high or slightly decreased for early transplantation infants, whereas the ratios markedly decreased for the late transplantation infants. Furthermore, FA values showed good correlations with neurodevelopmental scores. This study therefore provides further evidence for the benefit of early stem cell transplantation in Krabbe patients. In addition, it demonstrates the usefulness of DTI for monitoring response to specific treatment regimes and may serve as a model for application of DTI to other therapies in various white matter disorders such as multiple sclerosis and dysmyelinating disorders of childhood.

### Conclusions

DTI provides measures of white matter integrity that can be used to study structural changes occurring both with normal development and as a result of damage. There are indications that DTI measures may provide complementary information to conventional MRI in monitoring pathological changes. The clinical utility of DTI has so far been limited to demonstrations that early measures often predict later clinical outcomes. Future studies should aim to take the technique beyond simple observations of change and push towards use of DTI to aid clinical decision-making. There are emerging demonstrations that early measures of structural tract integrity could be used, particularly in combination with functional measures, to tailor individualized therapeutic interventions.

**Declaration of interest:** The authors report no conflicts of interest. The authors alone are responsible for the content and writing of the paper.

### References

1. Beaulieu C. The basis of anisotropic water diffusion in the nervous system—a technical review. *NMR Biomedicine* 2002;15:435–455.
2. Basser PJ, Mattiello J, LeBihan D. Estimation of the effective self-diffusion tensor from the NMR spin echo. *Journal of Magnetic Resonance B* 1994;103:247–254.
3. Pierpaoli C, Basser PJ. Toward a quantitative assessment of diffusion anisotropy. *Magnetic Resonance Medicine* 1996;36:893–906.
4. Alexander AL, Lee JE, Lazar M, Boudos R, DuBray MB, Oakes TR, Miller JN, Lu J, Jeong EK, McMahon WM, et al. Diffusion tensor imaging of the corpus callosum in Autism. *Neuroimage* 2007;34:61–73.
5. Budde MD, Kim JH, Liang HF, Russell JH, Cross AH, Song SK. Axonal injury detected by *in vivo* diffusion tensor imaging correlates with neurological disability in a mouse model of multiple sclerosis. *NMR Biomedicine* 2008;21:589–597.
6. Deo AA, Grill RJ, Hasan KM, Narayana PA. *In vivo* serial diffusion tensor imaging of experimental spinal cord injury. *Journal of Neuroscience Research* 2006;83:801–810.
7. Kim JH, Loy DN, Liang HF, Trinkaus K, Schmidt RE, Song SK. Noninvasive diffusion tensor imaging of evolving white matter pathology in a mouse model of acute spinal cord injury. *Magnetic Resonance Medicine* 2007;58:253–260.
8. Makki MI, Chugani DC, Janisse J, Chugani HT. Characteristics of abnormal diffusivity in normal-appearing white matter investigated with diffusion tensor MR imaging in tuberosus sclerosis complex. *AJNR: American Journal of Neuroradiology* 2007;28:1662–1667.
9. Song SK, Sun SW, Ju WK, Lin SJ, Cross AH, Neufeld AH. Diffusion tensor imaging detects and differentiates axon and myelin degeneration in mouse optic nerve after retinal ischemia. *Neuroimage* 2003;20:1714–1722.
10. Song SK, Sun SW, Ramsbottom MJ, Chang C, Russell J, Cross AH. Dysmyelination revealed through MRI as increased radial (but unchanged axial) diffusion of water. *Neuroimage* 2002;17:1429–1436.
11. Sun SW, Liang HF, Schmidt RE, Cross AH, Song SK. Selective vulnerability of cerebral white matter in a murine model of multiple sclerosis detected using diffusion tensor imaging. *Neurobiological Diseases* 2007;28:30–38.
12. Thomalla G, Glauche V, Weiller C, Rother J. Time course of Wallerian degeneration after ischaemic stroke revealed by diffusion tensor imaging. *Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery and Psychiatry* 2005;76:266–268.
13. Wu Q, Butzkueven H, Gresle M, Kirchhoff F, Friedhuber A, Yang Q, Wang H, Fang K, Lei H, Egan GF, et al. MR diffusion changes correlate with ultra-structurally defined axonal degeneration in murine optic nerve. *Neuroimage* 2007;37:1138–1147.
14. Jones DK, Symms MR, Cercignani M, Howard RJ. The effect of filter size on VBM analyses of DT-MRI data. *Neuroimage* 2005;26:546–554.
15. Smith SM, Jenkinson M, Johansen-Berg H, Rueckert D, Nichols TE, Mackay CE, Watkins KE, Ciccarelli O, Cader MZ, Matthews PM, et al. Tract-based spatial statistics: Voxelwise analysis of multi-subject diffusion data. *Neuroimage* 2006;31:1487–1505.
16. Behrens TE, Woolrich MW, Jenkinson M, Johansen-Berg H, Nunes RG, Clare S, Matthews PM, Brady PM, Smith SM. Characterization and propagation of uncertainty in diffusion-weighted MR imaging. *Magnetic Resonance Medicine* 2003;50:1077–1088.

17. Jones DK, Simmons A, Williams SC, Horsfield MA. Non-invasive assessment of axonal fiber connectivity in the human brain via diffusion tensor MRI. *Magnetic Resonance Medicine* 1999;42:37–41.
18. Mori S, Crain BJ, Chacko VP, van Zijl PC. Three-dimensional tracking of axonal projections in the brain by magnetic resonance imaging. *Annals of Neurology* 1999;45:265–269.
19. Catani M, Jones DK, ffytche DH. Perisylvian language networks of the human brain. *Annals of Neurology* 2005;57:8–16.
20. Johansen-Berg H, Behrens TE. Just pretty pictures? What diffusion tractography can add in clinical neuroscience. *Current Opinion in Neurology* 2006;19:379–385.
21. Mori S, Itoh R, Zhang J, Kaufmann WE, van Zijl PC, Solaiyappan M, Yarowski P. Diffusion tensor imaging of the developing mouse brain. *Magnetic Resonance Medicine* 2001;46:18–23.
22. Gupta RK, Hasan KM, Trivedi R, Pradhan M, Das V, Parikh NA, Narayana PA. Diffusion tensor imaging of the developing human cerebrum. *Journal of Neuroscience Research* 2005;81:172–178.
23. Deipolyi AR, Mukherjee P, Gill K, Henry RG, Partridge SC, Veeraraghavan S, et al. Comparing microstructural and macrostructural development of the cerebral cortex in premature newborns: Diffusion tensor imaging versus cortical gyration. *Neuroimage* 2005;27:579–586.
24. McKinstry RC, Mathur A, Miller JH, Ozcan A, Snyder AZ, Schefft GL, et al. Radial organization of developing preterm human cerebral cortex revealed by non-invasive water diffusion anisotropy MRI. *Cerebral Cortex* 2002;12:1237–1243.
25. Bockhorst KH, Narayana PA, Liu R, Ahobila-Vijjula P, Ramu J, Kamel M, et al. Early postnatal development of rat brain: *In vivo* diffusion tensor imaging. *Journal of Neuroscience Research* 2008.
26. Sizonenko SV, Camm EJ, Garbow JR, Maier SE, Inder TE, Williams CE, Neil JJ, Huppi PS. Developmental changes and injury induced disruption of the radial organization of the cortex in the immature rat brain revealed by *in vivo* diffusion tensor MRI. *Cerebral Cortex* 2007;17:2609–2617.
27. Chahboune H, Ment LR, Stewart WB, Ma X, Rothman DL, Hyder F. Neurodevelopment of C57BL/6 mouse brain assessed by *in vivo* diffusion tensor imaging. *NMR Biomedicine* 2007;20:375–382.
28. Huang H, Zhang J, Wakana S, Zhang W, Ren T, Richards LJ, et al. White and gray matter development in human fetal, newborn and pediatric brains. *Neuroimage* 2006;33:27–38.
29. Huppi PS, Maier SE, Peled S, Zientara GP, Barnes PD, Jolesz FA, et al. Microstructural development of human newborn cerebral white matter assessed *in vivo* by diffusion tensor magnetic resonance imaging. *Pediatric Research* 1998;44:584–590.
30. Partridge SC, Mukherjee P, Henry RG, Miller SP, Berman JI, Jin H, Lu Y, Glenn OA, Ferriero DM, Barkovich AJ, et al. Diffusion tensor imaging: Serial quantitation of white matter tract maturity in premature newborns. *Neuroimage* 2004;22:1302–1314.
31. Drobyshevsky A, Song SK, Gamkrelidze G, Wyrwicz AM, Derrick M, Meng F, Li L, Ji X, Trommer B, Beardsley DJ, et al. Developmental changes in diffusion anisotropy coincide with immature oligodendrocyte progression and maturation of compound action potential. *Journal of Neuroscience* 2005;25:5988–5997.
32. Larvaron P, Boespflug-Tanguy O, Renou JP, Bonny JM. *In vivo* analysis of the post-natal development of normal mouse brain by DTI. *NMR Biomedicine* 2007;20:413–421.
33. Hermoye L, Saint-Martin C, Cosnard G, Lee SK, Kim J, Nassogne MC, Menten R, Clapuyt P, Donohue PK, Hua K, et al. Pediatric diffusion tensor imaging: Normal database and observation of the white matter maturation in early childhood. *Neuroimage* 2006;29:493–504.
34. Schneider JF, Il'yasov KA, Hennig J, Martin E. Fast quantitative diffusion-tensor imaging of cerebral white matter from the neonatal period to adolescence. *Neuroradiology* 2004;46:258–266.
35. Ben Bashat D, Ben Sira L, Graif M, Pianka P, Hendler T, Cohen Y, Assaf Y. Normal white matter development from infancy to adulthood: Comparing diffusion tensor and high b value diffusion weighted MR images. *Journal of Magnetic Resonance Imaging* 2005;21:503–511.
36. Eluvathingal TJ, Hasan KM, Kramer L, Fletcher JM, Ewing-Cobbs L. Quantitative diffusion tensor tractography of association and projection fibers in normally developing children and adolescents. *Cerebral Cortex* 2007;17:2760–2768.
37. Schmithorst VJ, Wilke M, Dardzinski BJ, Holland SK. Cognitive functions correlate with white matter architecture in a normal pediatric population: A diffusion tensor MRI study. *Human Brain Mapping* 2005;26:139–147.
38. Olesen PJ, Nagy Z, Westerberg H, Klingberg T. Combined analysis of DTI and fMRI data reveals a joint maturation of white and grey matter in a fronto-parietal network. *Brain Research: Cognitive Brain Research* 2003;18:48–57.
39. Barnea-Goraly N, Menon V, Eckert M, Tamm L, Bammer R, Karchemskiy A, Dant CC, Reiss AL. White matter development during childhood and adolescence: A cross-sectional diffusion tensor imaging study. *Cerebral Cortex* 2005;15:1848–1854.
40. Giorgio A, Watkins KE, Douaud G, James AC, James S, De Stefano N, Matthews PM, Smith SM, Johansen-Berg H. Changes in white matter microstructure during adolescence. *Neuroimage* 2008;39:52–61.
41. Muetzel RL, Collins PF, Mueller BA, A MS, Lim KO, Luciana M. The development of corpus callosum microstructure and associations with bimanual task performance in healthy adolescents. *Neuroimage* 2008;39:1918–1925.
42. Snook L, Paulson LA, Roy D, Phillips L, Beaulieu C. Diffusion tensor imaging of neurodevelopment in children and young adults. *Neuroimage* 2005;26:1164–1173.
43. Johansen-Berg H, Della-Maggiore V, Behrens TE, Smith SM, Paus T. Integrity of white matter in the corpus callosum correlates with bimanual co-ordination skills. *Neuroimage* 2007;36(Suppl 2):T16–T21.
44. Paus T, Zijdenbos A, Worsley K, Collins DL, Blumenthal J, Giedd JN, Rapoport JL, Evans AC. Structural maturation of neural pathways in children and adolescents: *In vivo* study. *Science* 1999;283:1908–1911.
45. Huttenlocher PR, Dabholkar AS. Regional differences in synaptogenesis in human cerebral cortex. *Journal of Computational Neurology* 1997;387:167–178.
46. Cruz Junior LC, Sorensen AG. Diffusion tensor magnetic resonance imaging of brain tumors. *Neurosurgical Clinics of North America* 2005;16:115–134.
47. Ge Y, Law M, Grossman RI. Applications of diffusion tensor MR imaging in multiple sclerosis. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences* 2005;1064:202–219.
48. Kim MJ, Provenzale JM, Law M. Magnetic resonance and diffusion tensor imaging in pediatric white matter diseases. *Topics in Magnetic Resonance Imaging* 2006;17:265–274.
49. Lee SK, Kim DI, Kim J, Kim DJ, Kim HD, Kim DS, Mori S. Diffusion-tensor MR imaging and fiber tractography: A new method of describing aberrant fiber connections in developmental CNS anomalies. *Radiographics* 2005;25:53–65, discussion 66–68.

50. Luat AF, Chugani HT. Molecular and diffusion tensor imaging of epileptic networks. *Epilepsia* 2008;49(Suppl 3): 15–22.
51. Mukherjee P. Diffusion tensor imaging and fiber tractography in acute stroke. *Neuroimaging Clinics of North America* 2005;15:655–665, xii.
52. Sundgren PC, Dong Q, Gomez-Hassan D, Mukherji SK, Maly P, Welsh R. Diffusion tensor imaging of the brain: Review of clinical applications. *Neuroradiology* 2004; 46:339–350.
53. Wang S, Melhem ER. Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis and primary lateral sclerosis: The role of diffusion tensor imaging and other advanced MR-based techniques as objective upper motor neuron markers. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences* 2005;1064:61–77.
54. Copen WA, Schwamm LH, Gonzalez RG, Wu O, Harmath CB, Schaefer PW, Koroshetz WJ, Sorensen AG. Ischemic stroke: Effects of etiology and patient age on the time course of the core apparent diffusion coefficient. *Radiology* 2001;221:27–34.
55. Lansberg MG, Thijs VN, O'Brien MW, Ali JO, de Crespigny AJ, Tong DC, Moseley ME, Albers GW. Evolution of apparent diffusion coefficient, diffusion-weighted, and T2-weighted signal intensity of acute stroke. *AJNR: American Journal of Neuroradiology* 2001;22: 637–644.
56. Schlaug G, Siewert B, Benfield A, Edelman RR, Warach S. Time course of the apparent diffusion coefficient (ADC) abnormality in human stroke. *Neurology* 1997;49:113–119.
57. Munoz Maniega S, Bastin ME, Armitage PA, Farrall AJ, Carpenter TK, Hand PJ, Cvorov V, Rivers CS, Wardlaw JM. Temporal evolution of water diffusion parameters is different in grey and white matter in human ischaemic stroke. *Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery and Psychiatry* 2004;75: 1714–1718.
58. Zelaya F, Flood N, Chalk JB, Wang D, Doddrell DM, Strugnell W, Benson M, Ostergaard L, Semple J, Eagle S. An evaluation of the time dependence of the anisotropy of the water diffusion tensor in acute human ischemia. *Magnetic Resonance Imaging* 1999;17:331–348.
59. Armitage PA, Bastin ME, Marshall I, Wardlaw JM, Cannon J. Diffusion anisotropy measurements in ischaemic stroke of the human brain. *Magma* 1998;6:28–36.
60. Yang Q, Tress BM, Barber PA, Desmond PM, Darby DG, Gerraty RP, Li T, Davis SM. Serial study of apparent diffusion coefficient and anisotropy in patients with acute stroke. *Stroke* 1999;30:2382–2390.
61. Sotak CH. The role of diffusion tensor imaging in the evaluation of ischemic brain injury—a review. *NMR Biomedicine* 2002;15:561–569.
62. Ward NS, Newton JM, Swayne OB, Lee L, Thompson AJ, Greenwood RJ, et al. Motor system activation after subcortical stroke depends on corticospinal system integrity. *Brain* 2006;129:809–819.
63. Fraidakis M, Klason T, Cheng H, Olson L, Spenger C. High-resolution MRI of intact and transected rat spinal cord. *Experimental Neurology* 1998;153:299–312.
64. Werring DJ, Toosy AT, Clark CA, Parker GJ, Barker GJ, Miller DH, et al. Diffusion tensor imaging can detect and quantify corticospinal tract degeneration after stroke. *Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery and Psychiatry* 2000; 69:269–272.
65. Pierpaoli C, Barnett A, Pajevic S, Chen R, Penix LR, Virta A, et al. Water diffusion changes in Wallerian degeneration and their dependence on white matter architecture. *Neuroimage* 2001;13:1174–1185.
66. Konishi J, Yamada K, Kizu O, Ito H, Sugimura K, Yoshikawa K, et al. MR tractography for the evaluation of functional recovery from lenticulostriate infarcts. *Neurology* 2005;64:108–113.
67. Kunimatsu A, Aoki S, Masutani Y, Abe O, Mori H, Ohtomo K. Three-dimensional white matter tractography by diffusion tensor imaging in ischaemic stroke involving the corticospinal tract. *Neuroradiology* 2003;45:532–535.
68. Liang Z, Zeng J, Liu S, Ling X, Xu A, Yu J, et al. A prospective study of secondary degeneration following subcortical infarction using diffusion tensor imaging. *Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery and Psychiatry* 2007;78: 581–586.
69. Moller M, Frandsen J, Andersen G, Gjedde A, Vestergaard-Poulsen P, Ostergaard L. Dynamic changes in corticospinal tracts after stroke detected by fibretracking. *Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery and Psychiatry* 2007;78: 587–592.
70. Thomalla G, Glauche V, Koch MA, Beaulieu C, Weiller C, Rother J. Diffusion tensor imaging detects early Wallerian degeneration of the pyramidal tract after ischemic stroke. *Neuroimage* 2004;22:1767–1774.
71. Gupta RK, Saksena S, Hasan KM, Agarwal A, Haris M, Pandey CM, et al. Focal Wallerian degeneration of the corpus callosum in large middle cerebral artery stroke: Serial diffusion tensor imaging. *Journal of Magnetic Resonance Imaging* 2006;24:549–555.
72. Wang C, Stebbins GT, Nyenhuis DL, deToledo-Morrell L, Freels S, Gencheva E, et al. Longitudinal changes in white matter following ischemic stroke: A three-year follow-up study. *Neurobiology and Aging* 2006;27: 1827–1833.
73. Stinear CM, Barber PA, Smale PR, Coxon JP, Fleming MK, Byblow WD. Functional potential in chronic stroke patients depends on corticospinal tract integrity. *Brain* 2007; 130:170–180.
74. Cramer SC, Nelles G, Benson RR, Kaplan JD, Parker RA, Kwong KK, et al. A functional MRI study of subjects recovered from hemiparetic stroke. *Stroke* 1997; 28:2518–2527.
75. Ward NS, Newton JM, Swayne OB, Lee L, Frackowiak RS, Thompson AJ, et al. The relationship between brain activity and peak grip force is modulated by corticospinal system integrity after subcortical stroke. *European Journal of Neuroscience* 2007;25:1865–1873.
76. Turton A, Wroe S, Trepte N, Fraser C, Lemon RN. Contralateral and ipsilateral EMG responses to transcranial magnetic stimulation during recovery of arm and hand function after stroke. *Electroencephalography Clinics on Neurophysiology* 1996;101:316–328.
77. Newton JM, Ward NS, Parker GJ, Deichmann R, Alexander DC, Friston KJ, et al. Non-invasive mapping of corticofugal fibres from multiple motor areas—relevance to stroke recovery. *Brain* 2006;129:1844–1858.
78. Schaechter JD, Perdue KL, Wang RM. Structural damage to the corticospinal tract correlates with bilateral sensorimotor cortex reorganization in stroke patients. *Neuroimage* 2007.
79. Frost SB, Barbay S, Friel KM, Plautz EJ, Nudo RJ. Reorganization of remote cortical regions after ischemic brain injury: A potential substrate for stroke recovery. *Journal of Neurophysiology* 2003;89:3205–3214.
80. Johansen-Berg H, Rushworth MF, Bogdanovic MD, Kischka U, Wimalaratna S, Matthews PM. The role of ipsilateral premotor cortex in hand movement after stroke. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences (USA)* 2002;99:14518–14523.

81. Lotze M, Markert J, Sauseng P, Hoppe J, Plewnia C, Gerloff C. The role of multiple contralesional motor areas for complex hand movements after internal capsular lesion. *Journal of Neuroscience* 2006;26:6096–6102.
82. Schmahmann JD, Pandya DN. *Fiber pathways of the brain*. 2006.
83. Behrens TE, Johansen-Berg H. Relating connective architecture to grey matter function using diffusion imaging. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London B: Biological Science* 2005;360:903–911.
84. ffytche DH, Catani M. Beyond localization: From hodology to function. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London B: Biological Science* 2005;360:767–779.
85. Bammer R, Augustin M, Strasser-Fuchs S, Seifert T, Kapeller P, Stollberger R, et al. Magnetic resonance diffusion tensor imaging for characterizing diffuse and focal white matter abnormalities in multiple sclerosis. *Magnetic Resonance Medicine* 2000;44:583–591.
86. Filippi M, Cercignani M, Inglese M, Horsfield MA, Comi G. Diffusion tensor magnetic resonance imaging in multiple sclerosis. *Neurology* 2001;56:304–311.
87. Werring DJ, Clark CA, Barker GJ, Thompson AJ, Miller DH. Diffusion tensor imaging of lesions and normal-appearing white matter in multiple sclerosis. *Neurology* 1999; 52:1626–1632.
88. Filippi M, Iannucci G, Cercignani M, Assunta Rocca M, Pratesi A, Comi G. A quantitative study of water diffusion in multiple sclerosis lesions and normal-appearing white matter using echo-planar imaging. *Archives of Neurology* 2000; 57:1017–1021.
89. Filippi M, Inglese M. Overview of diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance studies in multiple sclerosis. *Journal of Neurological Science* 2001;186(Suppl. 1):S37–S43.
90. Nusbaum AO, Lu D, Tang CY, Atlas SW. Quantitative diffusion measurements in focal multiple sclerosis lesions: Correlations with appearance on T1-weighted MR images. *AJR: American Journal of Roentgenology* 2000;175:821–825.
91. Rovaris M, Gallo A, Valsasina P, Benedetti B, Caputo D, Ghezzi A, et al. Short-term accrual of gray matter pathology in patients with progressive multiple sclerosis: An *in vivo* study using diffusion tensor MRI. *Neuroimage* 2005; 24:1139–1146.
92. Oreja-Guevara C, Rovaris M, Iannucci G, Valsasina P, Caputo D, Cavarretta R, et al. Progressive gray matter damage in patients with relapsing-remitting multiple sclerosis: A longitudinal diffusion tensor magnetic resonance imaging study. *Archives of Neurology* 2005;62:578–584.
93. Ciccarelli O, Werring DJ, Wheeler-Kingshott CA, Barker GJ, Parker GJ, Thompson AJ, et al. Investigation of MS normal-appearing brain using diffusion tensor MRI with clinical correlations. *Neurology* 2001;56:926–933.
94. Terajima K, Matsuzawa H, Tanaka K, Nishizawa M, Nakada T. Cell-oriented analysis *in vivo* using diffusion tensor imaging for normal-appearing brain tissue in multiple sclerosis. *Neuroimage* 2007;37:1278–1285.
95. Vrenken H, Pouwels PJ, Geurts JJ, Knol DL, Polman CH, Barkhof F, et al. Altered diffusion tensor in multiple sclerosis normal-appearing brain tissue: Cortical diffusion changes seem related to clinical deterioration. *Journal of Magnetic Resonance Imaging* 2006;23:628–636.
96. Tortorella P, Rocca MA, Mezzapesa DM, Ghezzi A, Lamantia L, Comi G, et al. MRI quantification of gray and white matter damage in patients with early-onset multiple sclerosis. *Journal of Neurology* 2006;253:903–907.
97. Gallo A, Rovaris M, Riva R, Ghezzi A, Benedetti B, Martinelli V, et al. Diffusion-tensor magnetic resonance imaging detects normal-appearing white matter damage unrelated to short-term disease activity in patients at the earliest clinical stage of multiple sclerosis. *Archives of Neurology* 2005;62:803–808.
98. Griffin CM, Chard DT, Ciccarelli O, Kapoor B, Barker GJ, Thompson AJ, et al. Diffusion tensor imaging in early relapsing-remitting multiple sclerosis. *Multiple Sclerosis* 2001;7:290–297.
99. Henry RG, Oh J, Nelson SJ, Pelletier D. Directional diffusion in relapsing-remitting multiple sclerosis: A possible *in vivo* signature of Wallerian degeneration. *Journal of Magnetic Resonance Imaging* 2003;18:420–426.
100. Ge Y, Law M, Johnson G, Herbert J, Babb JS, Mannon LJ, et al. Preferential occult injury of corpus callosum in multiple sclerosis measured by diffusion tensor imaging. *Journal of Magnetic Resonance Imaging* 2004;20:1–7.
101. Lin X, Tench CR, Morgan PS, Constantinescu CS. Use of combined conventional and quantitative MRI to quantify pathology related to cognitive impairment in multiple sclerosis. *Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery and Psychiatry* 2008;79:437–441.
102. Lin X, Tench CR, Morgan PS, Niepel G, Constantinescu CS. 'Importance sampling' in MS: Use of diffusion tensor tractography to quantify pathology related to specific impairment. *Journal of Neurological Science* 2005;237:13–19.
103. Warlop NP, Achten E, Debruyne J, Vingerhoets G. Diffusion weighted callosal integrity reflects interhemispheric communication efficiency in multiple sclerosis. *Neuropsychologia* 2008;46:2258–2264.
104. Hasan KM, Gupta RK, Santos RM, Wolinsky JS, Narayana PA. Diffusion tensor fractional anisotropy of the normal-appearing seven segments of the corpus callosum in healthy adults and relapsing-remitting multiple sclerosis patients. *Journal of Magnetic Resonance Imaging* 2005;21:735–743.
105. Lenzi D, Conte A, Mainero C, Frasca V, Fubelli F, Totaro P, et al. Effect of corpus callosum damage on ipsilateral motor activation in patients with multiple sclerosis: A functional and anatomical study. *Human Brain Mapping* 2007;28:636–644.
106. Lin F, Yu C, Jiang T, Li K, Chan P. Diffusion tensor tractography-based group mapping of the pyramidal tract in relapsing-remitting multiple sclerosis patients. *AJNR: American Journal of Neuroradiology* 2007; 28:278–282.
107. Wilson M, Tench CR, Morgan PS, Blumhardt LD. Pyramidal tract mapping by diffusion tensor magnetic resonance imaging in multiple sclerosis: Improving correlations with disability. *Journal of Neurology, Neurosurgery and Psychiatry* 2003;74:203–207.
108. Ciccarelli O, Werring DJ, Barker GJ, Griffin CM, Wheeler-Kingshott CA, Miller DH, et al. A study of the mechanisms of normal-appearing white matter damage in multiple sclerosis using diffusion tensor imaging—evidence of Wallerian degeneration. *Journal of Neurology* 2003; 250:287–292.
109. Mezzapesa DM, Rocca MA, Falini A, Rodegher ME, Ghezzi A, Comi G, et al. A preliminary diffusion tensor and magnetization transfer magnetic resonance imaging study of early-onset multiple sclerosis. *Archives of Neurology* 2004;61:366–368.
110. Rocca MA, Iannucci G, Rovaris M, Comi G, Filippi M. Occult tissue damage in patients with primary progressive multiple sclerosis is independent of T2-visible lesions—a diffusion tensor MR study. *Journal of Neurology* 2003; 250:456–460.

111. Saindane AM, Law M, Ge Y, Johnson G, Babb JS, Grossman RI. Correlation of diffusion tensor and dynamic perfusion MR imaging metrics in normal-appearing corpus callosum: Support for primary hypoperfusion in multiple sclerosis. *AJNR: American Journal of Neuroradiology* 2007;28:767–772.
112. Caramia F, Pantano P, Di Legge S, Piattella MC, Lenzi D, Paolillo A, et al. A longitudinal study of MR diffusion changes in normal appearing white matter of patients with early multiple sclerosis. *Magnetic Resonance Imaging* 2002;20:383–388.
113. Schmierer K, Altmann DR, Kassim N, Kitzler H, Kerskens CM, Doege CA, et al. Progressive change in primary progressive multiple sclerosis normal-appearing white matter: A serial diffusion magnetic resonance imaging study. *Multiple Sclerosis* 2004;10:182–187.
114. Rashid W, Hadjiprocopis A, Davies G, Griffin C, Chard D, Tiberio M, et al. Longitudinal evaluation of clinically early relapsing-remitting multiple sclerosis with diffusion tensor imaging. *Journal of Neurology* 2008;255:390–397.
115. Rovaris M, Judica E, Gallo A, Benedetti B, Sormani MP, Caputo D, et al. Grey matter damage predicts the evolution of primary progressive multiple sclerosis at 5 years. *Brain* 2006;129:2628–2634.
116. Rocca MA, Cercignani M, Iannucci G, Comi G, Filippi M. Weekly diffusion-weighted imaging of normal-appearing white matter in MS. *Neurology* 2000;55:882–884.
117. Werring DJ, Brassat D, Droogan AG, Clark CA, Symms MR, Barker GJ, et al. The pathogenesis of lesions and normal-appearing white matter changes in multiple sclerosis: A serial diffusion MRI study. *Brain* 2000;123(Pt 8):1667–1676.
118. Cader S, Johansen-Berg H, Wylezinska M, Palace J, Behrens TE, Smith S, et al. Discordant white matter N-acetylasparatase and diffusion MRI measures suggest that chronic metabolic dysfunction contributes to axonal pathology in multiple sclerosis. *Neuroimage* 2007;36:19–27.
119. Bozzali M, Cercignani M, Sormani MP, Comi G, Filippi M. Quantification of brain gray matter damage in different MS phenotypes by use of diffusion tensor MR imaging. *AJNR: American Journal of Neuroradiology* 2002;23:985–988.
120. Lowe MJ, Beall EB, Sakaie KE, Koenig KA, Stone L, Marrie RA, et al. Resting state sensorimotor functional connectivity in multiple sclerosis inversely correlates with transcallosal motor pathway transverse diffusivity. *Human Brain Mapping* 2008;29:818–827.
121. Simon JH, Zhang S, Laidlaw DH, Miller DE, Brown M, Corboy J, et al. Identification of fibers at risk for degeneration by diffusion tractography in patients at high risk for MS after a clinically isolated syndrome. *Journal of Magnetic Resonance Imaging* 2006;24:983–988.
122. Pagani E, Filippi M, Rocca MA, Horsfield MA. A method for obtaining tract-specific diffusion tensor MRI measurements in the presence of disease: Application to patients with clinically isolated syndromes suggestive of multiple sclerosis. *Neuroimage* 2005;26:258–265.
123. Rocca MA, Pagani E, Absinta M, Valsasina P, Falini A, Scotti G, Comi G, Filippi M. Altered functional and structural connectivities in patients with MS: A 3-T study. *Neurology* 2007;69:2136–2145.
124. Audoin B, Guye M, Reuter F, Au Duong MV, Confort-Gouny S, Malikova I, Soulier E, Viout P, Cherif AA, Cozzone PJ, et al. Structure of WM bundles constituting the working memory system in early multiple sclerosis: A quantitative DTI tractography study. *Neuroimage* 2007;36:1324–1330.
125. Rocca MA, Valsasina P, Ceccarelli A, Absinta M, Ghezzi A, Riccitelli G, Pagani E, Falini A, Comi G, Scotti G, et al. Structural and functional MRI correlates of Stroop control in benign MS. *Human Brain Mapping* 2007.
126. Huisman TA, Schwamm LH, Schaefer PW, Koroshetz WJ, Shetty-Alva N, Ozsunar Y, Wu O, Sorensen AG. Diffusion tensor imaging as potential biomarker of white matter injury in diffuse axonal injury. *AJNR: American Journal of Neuroradiology* 2004;25:370–376.
127. Ahn YH, Kim SH, Han BS, Kim OL, Ahn SH, Cho YW, Kwon YH, Jang SH. Focal lesions of the corticospinal tract demonstrated by diffusion tensor imaging in patients with diffuse axonal injury. *Neuro Rehabilitation* 2006;21:239–243.
128. Xu J, Rasmussen IA, Lagopoulos J, Haberg A. Diffuse axonal injury in severe traumatic brain injury visualized using high-resolution diffusion tensor imaging. *Journal of Neurotrauma* 2007;24:753–765.
129. Sidaros A, Engberg AW, Sidaros K, Liptrot MG, Herning M, Petersen P, Paulson OB, Jernigan TL, Rostrup E. Diffusion tensor imaging during recovery from severe traumatic brain injury and relation to clinical outcome: A longitudinal study. *Brain* 2008;131:559–572.
130. Staudt M, Pavlova M, Bohm S, Grodd W, Krageloh-Mann I. Pyramidal tract damage correlates with motor dysfunction in bilateral periventricular leukomalacia (PVL). *Neuropediatrics* 2003;34:182–188.
131. Hoon AH Jr, Lawrie WT Jr, Melhem ER, Reinhardt EM, Van Zijl PC, Solaiyappan M, Jiang H, Johnston MV, Mori S. Diffusion tensor imaging of periventricular leukomalacia shows affected sensory cortex white matter pathways. *Neurology* 2002;59:752–756.
132. Nagae LM, Hoon AH Jr, Stashinko E, Lin D, Zhang W, Levey E, Wakana S, Jiang H, Leite CC, Lucato LT, et al. Diffusion tensor imaging in children with periventricular leukomalacia: Variability of injuries to white matter tracts. *AJNR: American Journal of Neuroradiology* 2007;28:1213–1222.
133. Thomas B, Eyssen M, Peeters R, Molenaers G, Van Hecke P, De Cock P, Sunaert S. Quantitative diffusion tensor imaging in cerebral palsy due to periventricular white matter injury. *Brain* 2005;128:2562–2577.
134. Provenzale JM, Escolar M, Kurtzberg J. Quantitative analysis of diffusion tensor imaging data in serial assessment of Krabbe disease. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences* 2005;1064:220–229.
135. Suzuki K. Globoid cell leukodystrophy (Krabbe's disease): update. *Journal of Child Neurology* 2003;18:595–603.
136. Krivit W, Shapiro EG, Peters C, Wagner JE, Cornu G, Kurtzberg J, Wenger DA, Kolodny EH, Vanier MT, Loes DJ, et al. Hematopoietic stem-cell transplantation in globoid-cell leukodystrophy. *New England Journal of Medicine* 1998;338:1119–1126.