Chapter from the book *Neuroimaging*

Downloaded from: http://www.intechopen.com/books/neuroimaging

Interested in publishing with InTechOpen?
Contact us at book.department@intechopen.com
Exploring brain circuitry: Simultaneous application of Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation and functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging

Elisabeth de Castro Caparelli, Ph.D.
Brookhaven National Laboratory, NY and Stony Brook University, NY USA

1. Introduction

Transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) has proven invaluable as a technique for stimulating specific brain areas; such local stimulation induces changes in cortical excitability, and modifies specific cognitive functions. Hence, it affords a good measure of a variety of parameters, including neural conduction and processing time, activation thresholds, and facilitation and inhibition in the brain’s cortex, so supporting the exploration of human motor- and visual-systems, and cognition. This technique has been widely used as a research tool to investigate the brain’s plasticity, response to emotions, and cognition. It also has been used as a clinical tool to study some neurological diseases, such as epilepsy, and often as a treatment tool in alleviating psychiatric disorders, and for hastening recovery of motor function after stroke.

Functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), based on Blood Oxygenation Level Dependence (BOLD) contrast, is one of the commonest neuroimaging techniques. The preference for this imaging modality rests upon its ability to “record”, non-invasively, neuronal activity when the human brain is involved in specific tasks. Furthermore, because it carries low risk or none, and lacks side effects, experiments can be repeated and verified. Due to these advantages, BOLD-fMRI has been used in studies that involve healthy populations, people with diseases, and those using drugs, to explore the brain activity during primary and higher cognitive/behavioral tasks, using a variety of different paradigms, to evaluate attention, memory, language processing, and decision-making.
These two techniques have been widely used in neuroscience, mainly because of their non-invasiveness and low risk factor; however, using them alone has revealed some limitations. For example, because the stimulation paradigms used in fMRI studies are complex, it is unclear whether or not a specific area is essential for a particular function; moreover, the resulting map of brain functional connectivity, based on cross-correlating the BOLD signal, is an indirect measurement and, hence, the direction of causality remains uncertain. Similarly, TMS rests on the implicit assumption that the applied magnetic pulse locally disrupts neural activity at the site of stimulation, inducing changes in the corresponding behavioral performance. However, recent TMS-fMRI studies indicated that the neural consequences of focal TMS are not restricted to the site of stimulation, but spread throughout different brain regions. Therefore, the only reliable way directly to assess the neural effects of a TMS stimulus is via the simultaneous combination of TMS and functional brain-imaging techniques. Particularly, the coincident TMS-fMRI combination allows us to stimulate brain circuits while simultaneously monitoring changes in its activity and behavior. Such an approach can help to identify brain networks of functional relevance, and support causal brain-behavior inferences across the entire brain. Undoubtedly, this approach promises to contribute majorly to cognitive neuroscience. However, the drawback to its universal adoption is the great technical challenge that this technique imposes, and, thus, few research groups routinely employ it.

In this chapter, I overview the principles underlying the fMRI and TMS techniques, discuss the general applications of each, and detail the safety issues related to using TMS. Thereafter, I describe the technical implementation of the TMS device inside the MRI scanners, and finally outline the current possibilities and limitations of this promising multimodality technique.

2. fMRI Overview

Basis

fMRI is a non-ionizing, non-invasive imaging technique that allows us to use information generated by the hemodynamic process to study brain function. Although the connection between neural activity and changes in blood flow and blood oxygenation in the human brain was known since the end of nineteen century (Roy, et al. 1890), it was only toward the end of the twentieth century that this phenomena started to be explored. The hemodynamic response is defined as the dynamic regulation of the blood flow in the brain. Thus, when neurons perform some specific task, their consumption of oxygen increases and because they do not accumulate internal energy reserves, viz. glucose and oxygen, they require the rapid delivery of energy as they start firing. Consequently, after a delay of about 1-5 seconds, local blood flow increases and rises to a peak over 4-5 seconds before falling back to baseline (Raichle, et al. 2006); since this increase in blood supply exceeds the local increase in oxygen consumption, there is a local change in blood flow and oxygenation (Fox, et al. 1985).

Such changes induce temporary modifications in tissue permeability, so altering the MRI signal. Essentially, since hemoglobin is diamagnetic when oxygenated (oxyhemoglobin) but paramagnetic when deoxygenated (deoxygenated hemoglobin) (Pauling, et al. 1936) the magnetic resonance (MR) signal of blood differs slightly, depending on the oxygenation level. More specifically, the effective transverse relaxation time ($T_2^*$) increases in activated brain regions.
with decreased deoxyhemoglobin concentration (Ogawa, et al. 1990) that causes a local increase of the MRI signal (Fig. 1). This effect, called the blood oxygenation level dependence (BOLD) contrast, is the basis for most fMRI studies.

Changes in BOLD contrast can be observed by collecting data in an MRI scanner with sequence parameters sensitive to changes in magnetic susceptibility, i.e., by using $T_2^*$ sensitive imaging and fast sequences, such as Echo Planar Imaging (EPI) (Bandettini, et al. 1992). These changes can be either positive or negative depending on the relative changes in both cerebral blood flow (CBF) and oxygen consumption. Increases in CBF that exceed changes in oxygen consumption will entail an increased BOLD signal (activation); conversely, decreases in CBF that surpass changes in oxygen consumption will engender a decreased one (deactivation). Since the BOLD contrast-to-noise ratio (CNR) increases with the static magnetic field (Gati, et al. 1997, Okada, et al. 2005) recent technical improvements, such as using high magnetic fields (van der Zwaag, et al. 2009) and multichannel RF reception (Pruessmann, et al. 1999), have advanced spatial resolution to the millimeter scale. Currently functional images are usually acquired every 1–4 seconds with a spatial resolution of 2–4 millimeters on each side of the cubic voxel.

Despite hardware and software improvements to increase the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) the BOLD signal is still very small (typically 1–5%) (Caparelli, et al. 2003). Furthermore, because of the significant intra/inter subject variability, we cannot directly quantify fMRI results. Accordingly, the data must be evaluated statistically, which involves many
experimental repetitions of a thought, action, or experience to determine reliably which
areas of the brain are activated/deactivated.

**Data analysis:** The goal of fMRI data analysis is to reveal correlations between brain
activation and the task performed by a person during the scan. However, the BOLD signal is
small, and other sources of noise in the acquired data, such as small head motion, and
physiological noise, can mask the results; hence, the data must be corrected to eliminate
these unwanted effects. Accordingly, after reconstructing the resulting series of 3D images
of the brain, the output of the scanning session undergoes a series of steps starting with
correction for motion. Following this, the data is normalized to put all the images in the
same frame for a group analysis. This step puts all images for each subject into one standard
format that is set by a template; finally spatial filtering is also performed. The final outcome
is a time series of 3D scanned volumes ready to be correlated with the used task voxel-by-
voxel, which will produce a statistical map of task-dependent activation.

There are many software packages available for the statistical analysis of the fMRI data,
such as, the Statistical Parametric Mapping (SPM) (Friston 1996), Analysis of Functional
NeuroImages (AFNI) (Cox 1996), FMRIB Software Library (FSL) (Smith, et al. 2004), and
most of them also offers the data pre-processing described above.

**MRI Safety**

**Magnetic field:** The static magnetic field, present in all MRI scanners (example fig. 2), is
generated by the electrical currents that are always circulating the superconductor material
that compose the MRI scanner tunnel; it is used to align the spin of all protons (1H) by
making them move around an axis along the direction of the field, thereby generating a net
magnetization in the tissue. Although exposure of people to this magnetic field has not
resulted in permanent biological damage, it may entail in them a transient dizziness
(Chakeres, et al. 2005), vertigo (Glover, et al. 2007), and a metallic taste (Cavin, et al. 2007).
This field can also interfere with the function of electromechanical devices, and attract any
iron-containing (ferromagnetic) objects, making them move suddenly and with great force
into the scanner, thereby posing in risk anyone who is in the projectile’s (metallic “flying”
object) path. The magnetic field can also exert a pull on any ferromagnetic object in the
body, such as certain medication pumps or aneurysm clips, causing serious internal body
damages.

Therefore, any object that is brought to the scanner room needs to be MRI-compatible while
everyone who will be inside or at the vicinity of an MRI scanner, viz., staff, patients, and
study volunteers, must undergo a careful screening to avoid any incident that could lead to
serious injuries and sometimes, even to death.

**Radio frequency (RF):** RF pulses alter the alignment of the net magnetization, causing the
hydrogen nuclei to produce a rotating electromagnetic field that the receiver coil at the MRI
scanner can detect. This RF pulse can heat living tissue to the point of inducing
hyperthermia in patients/research volunteers; therefore, to avoid this problem, the specific
absorption rate (SAR) parameter was established that determines how much RF a specific
body can tolerate safely according to tissue density. SAR is defined as the power absorbed
per mass of tissue, usually averaged over a specific volume, so providing a measure of the
rate of absorbed energy by the tissue, in watts per kilogram, when exposed to a RF
electromagnetic field (Oh, et al. 2010).
RF can also heat some tattoo pigments, particularly those that contain trace metals and are frequently used for regular tattoos or tattooed eye-liner (permanent makeup), potentially causing skin burns (Stecco, et al. 2007, Wagle, et al. 2000)

**Peripheral nerve stimulation (PNS):** Magnetic field gradients encode the spatial position of the MR signal generating an MR image. Special coils designed to produce a linearly varying spatial dependence of the magnetic field along a particular axis create these gradients. Fast sequences, mainly those commonly employed for some imaging techniques, such as fMRI, and Diffusion Tensor Imaging (DTI), require these fields to be switched on and off quickly. However, such rapid switching can causing peripheral nerve stimulation, inducing symptoms from mild tingling and muscle twitching to a sensation of pain. Indeed, volunteers have reported a twitching sensation, particularly in their extremities, when exposed to rapidly switched fields. Therefore to avoid PNS incidents, regulatory $dB/dt$ (change in field per unit time) limits were specified (Glover 2009).

**Acoustic noise:** The exchanges between the readout and phase encoding currents in the gradient coils under the main static magnetic field of the MR scanner induce Lorentz forces that act on the gradient coils. Accordingly, the coils and wires buckle and bend, inducing compression waves in the surrounding gradient supports; these motions are conducted toward the MR system’s peripheral structures and launched into air as loud acoustic noises (clicking or beeping). Because the Lorentz forces increase logarithmically with the magnetic fields’ strength and with the applied gradient current, the noise levels rise with both. During echo planar imaging (EPI) the equivalent-continuous sound pressure levels (SPLs)
PET) scans; it has high (MEG) that are biased offers better spatial resolution than EEG and Neuroimaging range from 90–117 dB, with a peak level up to 130 dB at 1.5 T; at 3.0T, they range from 105–133 dB with a peak level up to 140 db (Moeler, et al. 2003). Therefore, using appropriate ear protection, such as MRI-compatible sound-suppressor headphones and ear plugs, is essential for anyone inside the MRI scanner room.

**fMRI: Pluses & Pitfalls**

fMRI is a neuroimage technique that offers several advantages: it noninvasively records brain signals without risks of radiation inherent in other scanning methods, such as computed tomography (CT) or positron emission tomography (PET) scans; it has high spatial resolution (2–3 mm) and records signals from all regions of the brain, unlike electroencephalography (EEG) and magnetoencephalography (MEG) that are biased towards the cortical surface; and, BOLD-fMRI offers better spatial resolution than EEG and MEG, and has similar spatial- and better temporal-resolution than PET. fMRI is widely used to image brain “activation” and there are standard data-analysis approaches that allow researchers from different laboratories to compare results. Cross-correlations of BOLD signal changes in the brain have been used to indirectly map the functional connectivity in the brain, including the visual (Ogawa, et al. 1992), motor (Kim, et al. 1993), and language areas (Hinke, et al. 1993). Thus, BOLD-fMRI is used extensively to study brain connectivity in humans due to MRI’s intrinsically low risks.

However, the indirectness of the fMRI connectivity measurements is a concern because the postulated interconnection pathways rely on biophysical models (Friston, et al. 2003). The lack of specificity on the direct association between the standard stimulus paradigm and the corresponding activated areas (1 cognitive function => 1 specific brain area) is another limitation in traditional fMRI studies. Pernet and colleagues recently reviewed this issue (Pernet, et al. 2007), underlining the need to use several cognitive processes to categorize objects (e.g., related to information encoding, attention, and memory); thus, a generic effect of categorization could easily pass as a brain correlate of category specificity. The solution for this non-specificity problem entails a difficult theoretical consideration, attaining the appropriate dimensionality of the design is practically unfeasible, since a true demonstration of category specificity would require exhaustively testing all possible interactions between categories and task properties. Therefore, brain activation patterns consistent with category specificity remain unidentified. In addition, a category-specificity effect is not localized to a given processing region; instead, it concerns the strength of functional connection from one area to another. Thus, as suggested by these authors, only by testing the effective connectivity, i.e., by measuring the influence that one neuronal system or cortical area exerts over another we can understand the processes at work in each module, and assert the process/information interaction. Finally, because of the complexity of the stimulation paradigms used in functional studies, frequently involving many brain regions and more than one basic function, it is unclear whether or not a specific area is essential for a particular function (Pernet, et al. 2007, Tomasi, et al. 2007). Therefore, since fMRI findings are always correlations, the direction of causality cannot be determined.

The precise relationship between neural signals and BOLD is actively researched. In general, changes in BOLD signal correlate well with changes in blood flow. In fact, the BOLD signal represents sophisticated convolution of changes in the cerebral metabolic rate of oxygen (CMRO2), the CBF, and cerebral blood volume (CBV) associated with focal neuronal activity (i.e., the energy consumption of the neuronal population); therefore, it indirectly
measures neuronal activity composed of CBF contributions from larger arteries and veins, smaller arterioles and venules, and capillaries. Experimental results indicate that the BOLD signal can be weighted to the smaller vessels, and hence, closer to the active neurons, by using alternative MRI techniques (Song, et al. 2003) or larger magnetic fields, since the size of the BOLD signal increases with the increase of the magnetic field’s strength.

fMRI has poor temporal resolution because the BOLD response peaks approximately 5 seconds after neuronal firing begins in an area, and it is difficult to distinguish BOLD responses to different events that occur within a short time. Therefore, to overcome these drawbacks, some multimodalities are under development, such as combining fMRI signals having relatively high spatial resolution with signals recorded with other techniques, such as EEG or MEG with higher temporal resolution but worse spatial resolution.

3. Introduction to TMS

History of Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation

Even though Franz Mesmer, in the eighteenth century, has proposed the use of magnets to cure disease, it was not until the end of nineteenth century that scientists started to use magnetic energy to alter brain activity. The first publications on magnetic stimulation described Jacques D’Arsonval’s experiments in 1898 stimulating the retina, and similar work by Silvanus P. Thompson in 1910 (Thompson 1910); at that time, the magnetic stimulators were powerful enough to activate the retinal cells, causing the subjects to perceive light flashes, but the fields generated were too weak to stimulate brain tissue.

In 1965, Bickford and Fremming (Bickford, et al. 1965) used a damped 500 Hz sinusoidal magnetic field to demonstrate muscular stimulation in animals and humans. Subsequently, Oberg (1973) magnetically excited nerve tissue. Polson and colleagues, in 1982, reported the first successful magnetic stimulation of superficial nerves (Polson, et al. 1982). Finally, three years later, the first Transcranial magnetic stimulation of the central nervous system and cortical regions was achieved (Barker, et al. 1985). Neurologists quickly adopted Barker’s device, and now routinely employ single-stimulus TMS instruments to measure nerve-conduction time. The therapeutic potential of TMS was unrealized until the repetitive stimulator (rTMS), which generates up to 30 pulses per second, became available in the 1990s.

Basis

TMS is based on the Faraday’s principle of electromagnetic induction, wherein a pulse of current flowing through a coil of wire generates a magnetic field. According to the Biot-Savart law (Jackson 1965, Reitz, et al. 1993) when an electric current flows through a ferromagnetic material it generates a magnetic field that is perpendicular to the current’s direction (Fig. 3). If this magnetic field varies with time, this field will induce a current in any conductive material nearby; the rate of change determines the size of the induced current (Faraday’s law). Finally, by Lenz’s law, this induced current always flows in a direction that will oppose the change in magnetic field causing it (Jackson 1965). This principle of electromagnetic induction describes how a brief, high-current magnetic pulse produced in a TMS coil induces a current on the brain region lying underneath the coil, resulting on the depolarization of the neurons (Hallett 2000, Sack, et al. 2003). However, the
current induced in the brain is not composed of free electrons but of the ions, which are responsible for tissue conductivity.

Fig. 3. Magnetic field lines, B, surrounding the current distribution, I,

TMS devices are made of two hardware components: a high-current pulse generator that produces discharge currents of about 5,000 amps (Figure 4 shows an example of the top-of-the-line instrument); and, a stimulating coil that generates magnetic pulses with field strengths of 1-2 Tesla, and duration of 200 – 400 µs, depending on the coil shape/size. Fig 5a depicts the more traditional circular TMS coil shapes that produce pulses of high-intensity magnetic fields; however, they are not as focus as the figure-of-eight coil, shown in Fig. 5b, that can stimulate a region as small as 1 cm²; however, this second coil shape is not as powerful as the circular coil (Anand, et al. 2002, Hallett 2000, Jalinosz 1998, Sack, et al. 2003). The pulses from coils shapes showed in Figure 5a and 5b can only penetrate the brain’s cortical regions, about 1.5 cm beneath the scalp (Epstein, et al. 1990, Rudiak, et al. 1994, Wassermann 1998), but alternative shapes were developed, such as the double-cone coil, Fig. 5c, that was designed to stimulate brain structures down to 3 – 4 cm (Tada, et al. 1990).

Fig. 4. Magstim super-rapid² TMS device at BNL that can deliver pulses reaching up to 100 Hz.
The TMS device can apply different stimulus intensities; for some cognitive functions, we can associate intensity with the ability to induce, or not, a specific behavioral output, which can define the threshold. For the motor area, the threshold for a motor-evoked potential (MEP) statistically is defined as the lowest intensity of stimulus needed to induce thumb movement, or to trigger MEPs of 50 mV or more in the abductor pollicis brevis muscle (thumb abductor muscle) for at least 50% of the applied pulses (Rostrup, et al. 1996, Sack, et al. 2003). Another observable output induced by TMS stimulus is the phosphene sensation. This feeling is characterized by experiencing flashes of light without light actually entering the eye; TMS induces this sensation in some people when the stimulus is applied on the occipital area. Thus, the phosphene threshold is defined as the lower intensity needed to generate the visualization of phosphenes when the stimulus is applied in the occipital area for at least 50% of the applied pulses (Stewart, et al. 2001).

![TMS coil shapes](image)

Fig. 5. TMS coil shapes: a) circular coil; b) figure-of-eight coil; c) double-cone coil

The TMS stimulus is also applied in several different protocols: as a single pulse, i.e., it is applied without repetition, generally to define or evaluate a stimulus threshold, or to disrupt a specific cognitive function; as a paired-pulse that is defined as a pair of TMS pulses applied consecutively from a single coil (one sub-threshold habituation pulse followed by a supra-threshold stimulus pulse) it is used to study intra-cortical inhibition and facilitation (Chen, et al. 1998, Kujiirai, et al. 1993). For example, when TMS is delivered to motor cortex with an inter-stimulus interval of 1–4 ms, the first pulse suppresses the amplitude of the motor potential evoked by the second pulse, consistent with intracortical inhibition. However, with intervals of 8–15 ms, the second pulse evokes a larger motor potential than an equivalent single-pulse TMS, consistent with intra-cortical facilitation. Another common setup is the double-coil wherein the TMS pulse is applied simultaneously through two coils positioned in two different brain regions; it has been used for studying intra-cortical interactions and for comparing the processing times of different brain regions. Finally, the most powerful protocol for this technique is the repetitive TMS (rTMS) that generates a train of TMS pulses separated by intervals of less than 1 second, i.e., at frequencies that range from > 1 Hz up to 25 Hz in humans. Basically, the effects of rTMS
pulses temporally summate, causing a greater change in neural activity than those changes induced by other protocols, and thereby offering a wide range of applications in basic neuroscience and as a clinical tool. For example, rTMS can induce changes in neurotransmitter systems and hormonal axes (Ben-Shachar, et al. 1997, Burt, et al. 2002, Keck, et al. 2000, Keck, et al. 2002, Kole, et al. 1999, Post, et al. 2001). It can also regulate the expression of some genes and the synthesis of some peptides that are important for neuronal plasticity and synaptic development (Keck, et al. 2000, Lisanby, et al. 2000, Schlaepfer, et al. 2004). Depending upon the intensity of the stimulus, rTMS either has anticonvulsant properties in epileptic patients, or reduces the threshold for seizure (Griskova, et al. 2006, Lisanby, et al. 2000, Wassermann, et al. 2001). rTMS is also used as a antidepressant treatment (Daskalakis, et al. 2008), and after significant positive results from numerous clinical trials, it was approved recently by the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA). Nevertheless, since rTMS can induce seizure, it poses some risk to people (Anand, et al. 2002).

Safety
Some safety issues are related to rTMS studies, mainly high-frequency protocols. Single-pulse TMS and low frequency rTMS (<1Hz) in healthy adults appears to carry little risk beyond occasionally causing local discomfort at the site of stimulation or a transient headache in susceptible subjects; no short- or long-term sequelae have been described in safety studies with either modality in presumed normal adults (Anand, et al. 2002). Also, there have been no reports of ill effects after magnetic stimulation of the peripheral nervous system and, in the case of cortical stimulation, the incidence of side effects has been extremely low, and well within that expected numbers from statistics for various patient groups (Kandler 1990).

High frequency, high-intensity repetitive TMS (rTMS) carries some risk of inducing seizure even in normal subjects (Anand, et al. 2002, Wassermann 1998). In the ten years since research with TMS started (1985), there were seven documented accidental seizures. For this reason, a group of experts gathered in 1996 to review data on the safety of rTMS and to develop guidelines for its safe use; their findings were published in 1998(Wassermann 1998), detailing all possible rTMS risks and proposing safe guidelines to minimize them. Since then, rTMS risks declined considerably; ten years later a workshop held in Italy again reviewed the safety issues of TMS application; a summary was published in 2009 (Rossi, et al. 2009).

Unwanted long-term effects are also another important safety concern with TMS studies. Even though there are no registered long-term lasting effects for single-pulse TMS (Bridgers 1991, Chokroverty, et al. 1995),(Sack, et al. 2003), some studies with high-frequency rTMS recorded mild effects persisting for about one hour after the TMS session (Flitman, et al. 1998, Little, et al. 2000, Triggs, et al. 1999), (Sack, et al. 2003). Hence, the first published guideline recommended some precautions with high frequency/intensities rTMS studies, for example, including a of pre- and post-neurological and/or neuropsychological examination, with another follow-up one (Wassermann 1998). Nevertheless there is no evidence of permanent, sustained negative sequelae of rTMS, and long-term cognitive- and neuropsychological-changes after single rTMS sessions are considered negligible in the second guideline based on the preceding bibliography. However, when cumulative daily
sessions of rTMS are administered therapeutically, the latest guideline strongly recommended employing neuropsychological monitoring (Rossi, et al. 2009). Some TMS devices have received FDA approval for peripheral nerve stimulation; cortical stimulation remains investigational. Studies performed with TMS are classified in two groups: a) Non-significant risk (NSR), and, b) significant risk (SR). The former may only require an IRB-approved protocol and consent; SR studies additionally require FDA approval.

General applications
Since 1985, when the first TMS equipment was developed, TMS has been extensively used to explore aspects of human brain physiology in basic neuroscience, and in clinic applications. Initially TMS has shown to alter excitability thresholds and response latencies in several clinical circumstances, such as in people with certain diseases (Berardelli, et al. 1991) and those taking specific medications (Ziemann, et al. 1996). Thus, it was used to measure the cortical excitability thresholds in studies of epilepsy (Werhahn, et al. 2000)], and to improve motor conduction in patients with such deficits, viz., Parkinson’s disease (Pascual-Leone, et al. 1994). Its application was also extended to studies of motor function in schizophrenic patients (Puri, et al. 1996), and for the prognosis of recovery from stroke (Rapisarda, et al. 1996). Treating depression was the major application of TMS (George, et al. 1995, George, et al. 1997, Pascual-Leone, et al. 1996); several years of clinical trials clearly demonstrated the value of this technique as an alternative treatment tool for patients who do not tolerate existing medications. Due to its great success, the FDA recently approved TMS for treating depression. TMS improves mood in depressive patients; accordingly, there was an increased interest in using TMS to clarify its effects on mood improvement that now is considered as a consequence of the production of neuroendocrine effect (Keck, et al. 2001). It was also verified recently that TMS can induce the stimulation of striatal dopamine release (Strafella, et al. 2001), the modulation of neurotransmitters (Keck, et al. 2000) and an increase of blood flow in the stimulated regions and connected areas (Speer, et al. 2000).

Researchers in the cognitive and behavioral neurosciences are exploring the ability of TMS to generate artificial lesions temporarily or to turn off the function of specific cortical regions, thereby allowing the functional identification of those brain areas more essential for a given task. Initials neuroscience studies with TMS were limited to animals or humans with pathological lesions; currently, researchers are extending their explorations to the healthy population. For instance, TMS is employed concurrently with some cognitive/behavioral tasks either to disrupt the execution of an specific task by perturbing some fundamental brain regions, or to improve performance by interrupting unimportant and/or competing brain signals (Walsh, et al. 1998). TMS impaired performance during learning and a spatial-memory task (Muri, et al. 1995), and suppressed visual perception during some visual tasks (Amassian, et al. 1989, Beckers, et al. 1995, Miller, et al. 1996). It also was used to investigate the effects of speech on the excitability of the corticospinal pathways of hand muscles (Tokimura, et al. 1996), and the response of transcallosal connections after magnetic stimulation compared with electrical stimulation(Cracco, et al. 1989). The system of callosal fibers activated by transcranial magnetic stimulation revealed the topography of fibers in the human corpus callosum mediating interhemispheric inhibition between the motor cortices (Meyer, et al. 1998). TMS was used to assess the plasticity of the cortical topography
in normal volunteers (Pascual-Leone, et al. 1994) and in patients suffering from stroke (Caramia, et al. 1996, Hamdy, et al. 1996) and amputations (Kew, et al. 1994).

4. The Simultaneous TMS & fMRI

The TMS technique rests on the implicit assumption that the induced magnetic stimulation locally disrupts neural activity at the site of stimulation, inducing changes in the correspondent behavioral performance. However, recent TMS-functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) studies imply that the neural consequences of focal TMS are not restricted to the stimulation site (Bestmann, et al. 2003, Bestmann, et al. 2004, Ruff, et al. 2006, Ruff, et al. 2008), but spread throughout different brain regions. Accordingly, the only satisfactory way to directly assess the neural effects of a TMS stimulus is by simultaneously combining TMS and functional brain-imaging techniques (Sack 2006).

This combination opens up a new venue in neuroscience research. TMS supports a focused, controlled manipulation of neural activity, while the imaging techniques allow the functional evaluation of the brain’s response to this local neuronal interference. Researchers have explored this multimodality combination of TMS and positron emission tomography (PET) (Paus, et al. 1997, Paus, et al. 1998), single-photon emission computed tomography (SPEC) (Fregni, et al. 2006), electroencephalography (EEG) (Schutter, et al. 2006, Thut, et al. 2003), near-infrared spectroscopy (NIRS) (Hada, et al. 2006), fMRI (Bastings, et al. 1998, Boroojerdi, et al. 1999, Boroojerdi, et al. 2000, Devlin, et al. 2003, Roberts, et al. 1997), either simultaneously or in separated sections. However, because the simultaneous combination of TMS and fMRI is noninvasive, this is the most promising tool for neuroimaging research, as it allows us to stimulate brain circuits while monitoring changes in the brain’s activity and behavior in humans (Bohning, et al. 1999, Caparelli 2007, Hallett 2000, Hallett 2007, Siebner, et al. 2003). This methodology can help to identify brain networks associated with a specific function, supporting causality for brain-behavior connections, and to assess directly the neural effects of a TMS stimulus across the entire brain. However, the direct interaction between the TMS pulse and the MRI scanners poses a considerable technical challenge; thus, few research groups have implemented this approach successfully (Bestmann, et al. 2003, Bohning, et al. 2003).

TMS and fMRI – Technical issues

The main technical issue in simultaneously implementing TMS and fMRI lies, in safely and correctly, positioning the TMS inside the MRI scanner. When two magnetic fields are generated at the same space they interact and induce a reaction force over the sources that will rotate them to align the source’s poles, a phenomenon called the torque reaction. For example, when a magnet is in the presence of an external magnetic field, it experiences a torque that tends to align the magnet's poles with the direction of the magnetic field’s lines. Similarly, when a TMS coil generates a time-varying magnetic field inside an MRI scanner, i.e., under another high static magnetic field, a torque reaction will act over the TMS coil (Reitz, et al. 1993). These torque reactions are proportion to the scanner’s external magnetic field, and depend on the coil’s shape and composition (ferromagnetic or non-ferromagnetic), and current direction inside the TMS coil. For example, in a figure-of-eight MRI-compatible TMS coil, using a biphasic stimulator, that generates electrical currents flowing in the opposite direction (Figure 6), the torque reaction is not considered strong (Bohning, et al.
opposite direction (Figure 6), the torque reaction is not considered strong (Bohning, et al. 1998); however, it may be significant if another coil shape, or a monophasic stimulator is used. Therefore, to accurately and safely place the TMS coil on the chosen brain site for magnetic stimulation inside the MRI scanners, each MRI center has customized the coil holders to fulfill their needs according with their experiment set up. Thus, Bestmann and colleagues (2003) attached a plastic holder to the head RF-coil that can be manually adjusted (Bestmann, et al. 2003); the wooden approach has been also used as an MRI compatible TMS coil holder (one example developed at BNL, appears in Figure 7 and another in ref. (Bestmann, et al. 2004). A further approach is the semi-automatic TMS coil positioning/holding system, developed by Bohning and colleagues; it is a compact holder, manually operated with 6 calibrated degrees of freedom and with a software package for transforming the MR images’ coordinates to the MRI scanner space coordinates (Bohning, et al. 2003).

![Fig. 6. Figure-of-eight TMS coil with the shown the current directions when used in a biphasic stimulator](image)

![Fig. 7. Picture of the TMS coil holder developed at Brookhaven National Laboratory; left: RF-coil, TMS coil, and coil holder; and, right: TMS coil and coil holder.](image)

The other technical issue associated with this multimodality combination is the interference generated by the TMS coil and the MRI’s imaging acquisition process, which was explored
by the “pioneers” in using this multimodality technique (Bestmann, et al. 2003). In a magnetic field of 2 Tesla, aliasing and/or susceptibility artifacts might occur, depending on the orientation of the TMS coil and image acquisition. Furthermore, the TMS pulse can interfere with the image acquisition if the interval between the TMS pulse and the first RF excitation pulse is less than about 100 ms. New versions of the MRI-compatible TMS coil minimize the possibility of having aliasing artifacts, while the outcomes of susceptibility artifacts (Figure 8), and the timing between the TMS pulse and image acquisition vary with different magnetic fields.

Fig. 8. Round water-phantom coronal images obtained in a 4 Tesla Varian scanner at Brookhaven National Laboratory, without the TMS coil (A), and with the TMS positioned, as shown in figure 7, perpendicular to the image orientation. Local artifacts are observed at the contact point between TMS coil and the phantom (top of fig. B).

Initial applications
The feasibility of simultaneous TMS and fMRI was initially demonstrated in 1.5 Tesla MRI scanners using low frequency TMS protocols (single-pulse TMS or 1 Hz rTMS) and it was considered relatively safe (Bohning, et al. 1998, Bohning, et al. 1999, Bohning, et al. 2000, Bohning, et al. 2000, Bohning, et al. 2003). These researchers used the simultaneous TMS-fMRI technique to evaluate brain activation induced by TMS stimuli of varying intensity applied over the motor cortex region. They directly correlated stimulus intensity and brain activation, but, even though the activated networks generated by different intensities were similar, the areas activated by supra-motor-threshold TMS displayed a bigger BOLD signal than those resulting from sub-motor-threshold TMS stimuli. They have also observed some activation in the auditory cortex from the loud noise caused by TMS pulse.

Later studies employed this combination to explore brain activation induced by TMS stimulus given in different brain regions (Nahas, et al. 2001), and with higher rTMS frequencies in higher static magnetic fields, such as 2 Tesla (Baudewig, et al. 2001, Bestmann, et al. 2003) and 3 Tesla MRI scanners (Bestmann, et al. 2004), while also varying the stimulus intensity. These groups verified once more that higher stimulus intensity induces activated areas with a larger cluster size than those activated by a stimulus of lesser intensity. Furthermore, they observed that highfrequency rTMS induces brain activation in a larger network than that induced by a lower rTMs frequency. Thus, in applying a 4 Hz rTMS stimulus at two intensities, supra- and sub-threshold, over the left supplementary motor cortex (M1/S1) in a 2 T MRI scanner, Bestmann and colleagues observed brain activation on the site of stimulation, bilaterally on the right M1/S1, supplementary motor cortex (SMA) and lateral premotor cortex (LPMC) for supra-threshold TMS stimulus. In contrast, there were no significant BOLD-fMRI responses to sub-thresholds stimulations at the stimulus site, but they were evident at distant brain regions, viz, the SMA, LPMC and contralateral M1/S1. (Bestmann, et al. 2003).
**Current situation - possibilities and limitations**
Existing research results, using the simultaneous combination of TMS and fMRI in different magnetic field intensities, already demonstrated that the technique is feasible and sufficiently safe as a routine research tool in normal volunteers. Its use was extended from the motor cortex to other brain areas, such as the premotor cortex (Bestmann, et al. 2005), frontal-eyes-field (Ruff, et al. 2006), parietal cortex (Ruff, et al. 2008) and occipital area (Caparelli, et al. 2010). The published studies show that this multimodality technique provides the ability to monitor BOLD response while allowing the precise selection of the anatomic and functional-targets through TMS stimulus, so affording a robust tool for investigating the connection between the TMS action in the cortex areas, and the subsequent BOLD response in subcortical regions.

Nevertheless, although the feasibility of this combined technique is well established, and its several advantages for neuroimaging research enumerated, simultaneous TMS and MRI still technically challenges most research centers. Accordingly, more technical development is needed to reduce the size and shape of the TMS coils so they can fit inside the current multichannel receivers RF-coils. Further, since current MRI compatible TMS coil shape restrict the areas of stimulation to the cortical region, progress is much needed to ensure we can apply a deep TMS stimulus and simultaneously measure the brain’s response.

5. References

Amassian, V. E., Cracco, R. Q., Maccabee, P. J., Cracco, J. B., Rudell, A. and Eberle, L. (1989) Suppression of visual perception by magnetic coil stimulation of human occipital cortex. Electroencephalography and clinical neurophysiology, 74, 6, (11-12/1989), 458-462, 0013-4694 (P)

Anand, S. and Hotson, J. (2002) Transcranial magnetic stimulation: neurophysiological applications and safety. Brain and Cognition, 50, 3, (12/2002), 366-386, 0278-2626 (P)

Bandettini, P. A., Wong, E. C., Hinks, R. S., Tikofsky, R. S. and Hyde, J. S. (1992) Time course EPI of human brain function during task activation. Magnetic Resonance Medicine, 25, 2, (06/1992), 390-397, 0740-3194 (P)

Barker, A. T., Jalinos, R. and Freeston, I. L. (1985) Non-invasive magnetic stimulation of human motor cortex. Lancet, 1, 8437, (05/1995), 1106-1107, 0140-6736 (P)

Bastings, E. P., Gage, H. D., Greenberg, J. P., Hammond, G., Hernandez, L., Santiago, P., Hamilton, C. A., Moody, D. M., Singh, K. D., Ricci, P. E., Pons, T. P. and Good, D. C. (1998) Co-registration of cortical magnetic stimulation and functional magnetic resonance imaging. Neuroreport, 9, 9, (06/1998), 1941-1946, 0959-4965 (P)

Baudewig, J., Siebner, H. R., Bestmann, S., Tergau, F., Tings, T., Paulus, W. and Frahm, J. (2001) Functional MRI of cortical activations induced by transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS). Neuroreport., 12, 16, (11/2001), 3543-48, 0959-4965 (P)

Beckers, G. and Zeki, S. (1995) The consequences of inactivating areas V1 and V5 on visual motion perception. Brain, 118, Pt 1, (02/1995), 49-60, 0006-8950 (P)

Ben-Shachar, D., Belmaker, R. H., Grisaru, N. and Klein, E. (1997) Transcranial magnetic stimulation induces alterations in brain monoamines. Journal of Neural Transmission, 104, 2-3, (02/1997), 191-197, 0300-9564 (P)
Berardelli, A., Inghilleri, M., Cruccu, G., Mercuri, B. and Manfredi, M. (1991) Electrical and magnetic transcranial stimulation in patients with corticospinal damage due to stroke or motor neuron disease. Electroencephalography and clinical neurophysiology, 81, 5, (10/1991), 389-396, 0013-4694 (P)

Bestmann, S., Baudewig, J. and Frahm, J. (2003) On the Synchronization of Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation and Functional Echo-Planar Imaging. Journal of Magnetic Resonance Imaging, 17, 3, (03/2003), 309-316, 1053-1807 (P)

Bestmann, S., Baudewig, J., Siebner, H. R., Rothwell, J. C. and Frahm, J. (2003) Subthreshold high-frequency TMS of human primary motor cortex modulates interconnected frontal motor areas as detected by interleaved fMRI-TMS. Neuroimage, 20, 3, (11/2003), 1685-96, 1053-8119 (P)

Bestmann, S., Baudewig, J., Siebner, H. R., Rothwell, J. C. and Frahm, J. (2004) Functional MRI of the immediate impact of transcranial magnetic stimulation on cortical and subcortical motor circuits. The European journal of neuroscience, 19, 7, (04/2004), 1950-62, 0953-816X (P)

Bestmann, S., Baudewig, J., Siebner, H. R., Rothwell, J. C. and Frahm, J. (2005) BOLD MRI responses to repetitive TMS over human dorsal premotor cortex. Neuroimage, 28, 1, (10/2005), 22-9, 1053-8119 (P)

Bickford, R. G. and Fremming, B. D. (1965). Neuronal stimulation by pulsed magnetic fields in animals and man. Digest of the 6th International Conference in Medical Electronics and Biological Engineering.p.112, IFMBE.

Bohning, D. E., Shastri, A., Nahas, Z., Lorberbaum, J. P., Andersen, S. W., Dannels, W. R., Haxthausen, E. U., Vincent, D. J. and George, M. S. (1998) Echoplanar BOLD fMRI of brain activation induced by concurrent transcranial magnetic stimulation. Investigative radiology, 33, 6, (06/1998), 336-40, 0020-9996 (P)

Bohning, D. E., Shastri, A., McConnell, K. A., Nahas, Z., Lorberbaum, J. P., Roberts, D. R., Teneback, C., Vincent, D. J. and George, M. S. (1999) A combined TMS/fMRI study of intensity-dependent TMS over motor cortex. Biological Psychiatry, 45, 4, (02/1999), 385-94, 0006-3223 (P)

Bohning, D. E., Shastri, A., McGavin, L., McConnell, K. A., Nahas, Z., Lorberbaum, J. P., Roberts, D. R. and George, M. S. (2000) Motor cortex brain activity induced by 1-Hz transcranial magnetic stimulation is similar in location and level to that for volitional movement. Investigative radiology, 35, 11, (11/2000), 676-83, 0020-9996 (P)

Bohning, D. E., Shastri, A., Wassermann, E. M., Ziemann, U., Lorberbaum, J. P., Nahas, Z., Lomarev, M. P. and George, M. S. (2000) BOLD-fMRI response to single-pulse transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS). Journal of Magnetic Resonance Imaging, 11, 6, (06/2000), 569-574, 1053-1807 (P)

Bohning, D. E., Denslow, S., Bohning, P. A., Walker, J. A. and George, M. S. (2003) A TMS coil positioning/holding system for MR image-guided TMS interleaved with fMRI. Clinical neurophysiology, 114, 11, (11/2003), 2210-2219, 1388-2457 (P)

Bohning, D. E., Shastri, A., Lomarev, M. P., Lorberbaum, J. P., Nahas, Z. and George, M. S. (2003) BOLD-fMRI response vs. transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) pulse-train length: testing for linearity. Journal of magnetic resonance imaging, 17, 3, (03/2003), 279-90, 1053-1807 (P)
Boroojerdi, B., Foltys, H., Krings, T., Spetzger, U., Thron, A. and Topper, R. (1999) Localization of the motor hand area using transcranial magnetic stimulation and functional magnetic resonance imaging. Clinical neurophysiology, 110, 4, (04/1999), 699-704, 1388-2457 (P)

Boroojerdi, B., Bushara, K. O., Corwell, B., Immisch, I., Battaglia, F., Muellbacher, W. and Cohen, L. G. (2000) Enhanced excitability of the human visual cortex induced by short-term light deprivation. Cerebral cortex, 10, 5, (05/2000), 529-534, 1047-3211 (P)

Bridgers, S. L. (1991) The safety of transcranial magnetic stimulation reconsidered: evidence regarding cognitive and other cerebral effects. Electroencephalography and clinical neurophysiology. Supplement, 43, 170-179, 0424-8155 (P)

Burt, T., Lisanby, S. H. and Sackeim, H. A. (2002) Neuropsychiatric applications of transcranial magnetic stimulation: a meta analysis. The International Journal of Neuropsychopharmacology, 5, 1, (3/2002), 51, 73-103, 1461-1457 (P)

Caparelli, E. C., Tomasi, D., Arnold, S., Chang, L. and Ernst, T. (2003) k-Space based summary motion detection for functional magnetic resonance imaging. Neurimage, 20, (10/2003) 1411-1418, 1053-8119 (P)

Caparelli, E. C. (2007) TMS&fMRI - A new neuroimaging combina tional tool to study brain function. Current Medical Imaging Reviews, 3, 2, 109-115, 1573-4056 (P)

Chakeres, D. W. and de Vocht, F. (2005) Static magnetic field effects on human subjects related to magnetic resonance imaging systems. Progress in Biophysics and Molecular Biology, 87, 2-3, (02-04/2005), 255-265, 0079-6107 (P)

Chen, R., Tam, A., Bütefisch, C., Corwell, B., Ziemann, U., Rothwell, J. C. and Cohen, L. G. (1998) Intracortical inhibition and facilitation in different representations of the human motor cortex. Journal of Neurophysiology, 80, 6, (12/1998), 2870-2881, 0022-3077 (P)

Chokroverty, S., Hening, W., Wright, D., Walczak, T., Goldberg, J., Burger, R., Belsh, J., Patel, B., Flynn, D., Shah, S. and et, a. (1995) Magnetic brain stimulation: safety studies. Electroencephalography and clinical neurophysiology, 97, 1, (2, 1995), 36-42, 0013-4694 (P)

Cox, R. W. (1996) AFNI: Software for analysis and visualization of functional magnetic resonance neuroimages. Computers and Biomedical Research, 29, 3, (6/1996), 162-173,0010-4809 (P)

Cracco, R. Q., Amassian, V. E., Maccabee, P. J. and Cracco, J. B. (1989) Comparison of human transcallosal responses evoked by magnetic coil and electrical stimulation. Electroencephalography and clinical neurophysiology, 74, 6, (11-12/1989), 417-424, 0013-4694 (P)
Daskalakis, Z. J., Levinson, A. J. and Fitzgerald, P. B. (2008) Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation for major depressive disorder: a review. Canadian Journal of Psychiatry, 53, 9, (9/2008), 555-566, 0706-7437 (P)

Devlin, J. T., Matthews, P. M. and Rushworth, M. F. (2003) Semantic processing in the left inferior prefrontal cortex: a combined functional magnetic resonance imaging and transcranial magnetic stimulation study. Journal of cognitive neuroscience, 15, 1, (1/2003), 71-84, 0898-929X (P)

Epstein, C. M., Schwartzberg, D. G., Davey, K. R. and Sudderth, D. B. (1990) Localizing the site of magnetic brain stimulation in humans. Neurology, 40, 4, (4/1990), 666-670, 0028-3878 (P)

Flitman, S. S., Grafman, J., Wassermann, E. M., Cooper, V., O’Grady, J., Pascual-Leone, A. and Hallett, M. (1998) Linguistic processing during repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation. Neurology, 50, 1, (1/1998), 175-181, 0028-3878 (P)

Fox, P. T. and Raichle, M. E. (1985) Stimulus rate determines regional brain blood flow in striate cortex. Annals of Neurology, 17, 3, (3/1985), 303-305, 0364-5134 (P)

Fregni, F., Ono, C. R., Santos, C. M., Bermpohl, F., Buchpiguel, C., Barbosa, E. R., Marcolin, M. A., Pascual-Leone, A. and Valente, K. D. (2006) Effects of antidepressant treatment with rTMS and fluoxetine on brain perfusion in PD. Neurology, 66, 11, (6/2006), 1629-1637, 0028-3878 (P)

Friston, K., Harrison, L. and Penny, W. (2003) Dynamic causal modelling. Neuroimage, 19, 4, (8/2003), 1273-1302, 1053-8119 (P)

Friston, K. J. (1996). Statistical parametric mapping and other analyses of functional imaging data. Brain mapping: The methods. A. W. Toga and J. C. Mazziotta, 363-386, Academic Press, San Diego.

Gati, J. S., Menon, R. S., Uguribil, K. and Rutt, B. K. (1997) Experimental determination of the BOLD field strength dependence in vessels and tissue. Magnetic Resonance in Medicine, 38, 296-302, (8/1997), 0740-3194 (P)

George, M. S., Wassermann, E. M., Williams, W. A., Callahan, A., Ketter, T. A., Bassir, P., Hallett, M. and Post, R. M. (1995) Daily repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation (rTMS) improves mood in depression. Neuroreport, 6, 14, (10/1995), 1853-1856, 0959-4965 (P)

George, M. S., Wassermann, E. M., Kimbrell, T. A., Little, J. T., Williams, W. E., Danielson, A. L., Greenberg, B. D., Hallett, M. and Post, R. M. (1997) Mood improvement following daily left prefrontal repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation in patients with depression: a placebo-controlled crossover trial. The American journal of psychiatry, 154, 2, (12/1997), 1752-1756, 0002-953X (P)

Glover, P., Cavin, I., Qian, W., Bowtell, R. and Gowland, P. (2007) Magnetic-field-induced vertigo: a theoretical and experimental investigation. Bioelectromagnetics, 28, 5, (07/2007), 349-361, 0197-8462 (P)

Glover, P. M. (2009) Interaction of MRI field gradients with the human body. Physics in Medicine and Biology, 54, 21, (11/2009), R99-R115, 0031-9155 (P)

Griskova, I., Hoppner, J., Ruksenas, O. and Dapsys, K. (2006) Transcranial magnetic stimulation: the method and application. Medicina (Kaunas, Lithuania), 42, 10, 798-804, 1010-660X (P)
Hada, Y., Abo, M., Kaminaga, T. and Mikami, M. (2006) Detection of cerebral blood flow changes during repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation by recording hemoglobin in the brain cortex, just beneath the stimulation coil, with near-infrared spectroscopy. Neuroimage, 32, 3, (9/2006), 1226-1230, 1053-8119 (P)

Hallett, M. (2000) Transcranial magnetic stimulation and the human brain. Nature, 406, 6792, (7/2000), 147-150, 0028-0836 (P)

Hallett, M. (2007) Transcranial magnetic stimulation: a primer. Neuron, 55, 2, (7/2007) 187-199, 0896-6273 (P)

Hamdy, S., Aziz, Q., Rothwell, J. C., Singh, K. D., Barlow, J., Hughes, D. G., Tallis, R. C. and Thompson, D. G. (1996) The cortical topography of human swallowing musculature in health and disease. Nature medicine, 2, 11, (11/1996), 1217-1224, 1078-8956 (P)

Hinke, R. M., Hu, X., Stillman, A. E., Kim, S. G., Merkle, H., Salmi, R. and Ugurbil, K. (1993) Functional magnetic resonance imaging of Broca's area during internal speech. Neuroreport, 4, 6, (6/1993), 675-678, 0959-4965 (P)

Jackson, J. D. (1965). Classical Electrodynamics. New York, John Wiley and Sons.

Jalinouz, R. (1998). Guide for Magnetic Stimulation, Magstim: http://www.magstim.com/downloads/.

Kandler, R. (1990) Safety of transcranial magnetic stimulation. Lancet, 335, 8687, (2/1990), 469-470, 0140-6736 (P)

Keck, M. E., Sillaber, I., Ebner, K., Welt, T., Toschi, N., Kaehler, S. T., Singewald, N., Philippu, A., Elbel, G. K., Wotjak, C. T., Holsboer, F., Landgraf, R. and Engelmann, M. (2000) Acute transcranial magnetic stimulation of frontal brain regions selectively modulates the release of vasopressin, biogenic amines and amino acids in the rat brain. The European journal of neuroscience, 12, 10, (10/2000), 3713-3720, 0953-816X (P)

Keck, M. E., Welt, T., Post, A., Muller, M. B., Toschi, N., Wigger, A., Landgraf, R., Holsboer, F. and Engelmann, M. (2001) Neuroendocrine and behavioral effects of repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation in a psychopathological animal model are suggestive of antidepressant-like effects. Neuropsychopharmacology, 24, 4, (4/2001), 337-349, 0893-133X (P)

Keck, M. E., Welt, T., Muller, M. B., Erhardt, A., Ohl, F., Toschi, N., Holsboer, F. and Sillaber, I. (2002) Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation increases the release of dopamine in the mesolimbic and mesostriatal system. Neuropsychopharmacology, 43, 1, (7/2002), 101-109, 0028-3908 (P)

Kew, J. J., Ridding, M. C., Rothwell, J. C., Passingham, R. E., Leigh, P. N., Sooriakumaran, S., Frackowiak, R. S. and Brooks, D. J. (1994) Reorganization of cortical blood flow and transcranial magnetic stimulation maps in human subjects after upper limb amputation. Journal of neurophysiology, 72, 5, (11/1994), 2517-2524, 0022-3077 (P)

Kim, S. G., Ashe, J. and Hendrich, K. (1993) Functional magnetic resonance imaging of motor cortex: hemispheric asymmetry and handedness. Science, 261, 5121, (7/1993), 615-617, 0193-4511 (P)

Kole, M. H., Fuchs, E., Ziemann, U., Paulus, W. and Ebert, U. (1999) Changes in 5-HT1A and NMDA binding sites by a single rapid transcranial magnetic stimulation procedure in rats. Brain Research, 826, 2, (5/1999), 309-312, 0006-8993 (P)
Kujirai, T., Caramia, M. D., Rothwell, J. C., Day, B. L., Thompson, P. D., Ferbert, A., Wroe, S., Asselman, P. and Marsden, C. D. (1993) Corticocortical inhibition in human motor cortex. The Journal of physiology, 471, (11/1993), 501-519, 0022-3751 (P)

Lisanby, S. H., Luber, B., Perera, T. and Sackeim, H. A. (2000) Transcranial magnetic stimulation: applications in basic neuroscience and neuropsychopharmacology. The international journal of neuropsychopharmacology, 3, 3, (9/2000), 259-273, 1461-1457 (P)

Little, J. T., Kimbrell, T. A., Wassermann, E. M., Grafman, J., Figueras, S., Dunn, R. T., Danielson, A., Repella, J., Huggins, T., George, M. S. and Post, R. M. (2000) Cognitive effects of 1- and 20-hertz repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation in depression: preliminary report. Neuropsychiatry, neuropsychology, and behavioral neurology, 13, 2, (4/2000), 119-124, 0894-878X (P)

Meyer, B. U., Roricht, S. and Woiciechowsky, C. (1998) Topography of fibers in the human corpus callosum mediating interhemispheric inhibition between the motor cortices. Annals of neurology, 43, 3, (3/1998), 360-369, 0364-5134 (P)

Miller, M. B., Fendrich, R., Eliassen, J. C., Demirel, S. and Gazzaniga, M. S. (1996) Transcranial magnetic stimulation: delays in visual suppression due to luminance changes. Neuroreport, 7, 11, (07/1996), 1740-1744, 0959-4965 (P)

Moelker, A. and Pattynama, P. (2003) Acoustic noise concerns in functional magnetic resonance imaging. Human Brain Mapping, 20, 3, (11/2003), 123-141, 1065-9471 (P)

Muri, R. M., Rivaud, S., Vermersch, A. I., Leger, J. M. and Pierrot-Deseilligny, C. (1995) Effects of transcranial magnetic stimulation over the region of the supplementary motor area during sequences of memory-guided saccades. Experimental brain research, 104, 1, 163-166, 0014-4819 (P)

Nahas, Z., Lomarev, M., Roberts, D. R., Shastry, A., Lorberbaum, J. P., Tenebach, C., McConnell, K., Vincent, D. J., Li, X., George, M. S. and Bohning, D. E. (2001) Unilateral left prefrontal transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) produces intensity-dependent bilateral effects as measured by interleaved BOLD fMRI. Biological psychiatry, 50, 9, (11/2001), 712-720, 0006-3223 (P)

Ogawa, S., Lee, T. M., Kay, A. R. and Tank, D. W. (1990). Brain magnetic resonance imaging with contrast dependent on blood oxygenation. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 87.9868-9872.

Ogawa, S., Tank, D. W., Menon, R. S., Ellerman, J. M., Kim, S. G., Merkle, H. and Ugurbil, K. (1992). Intrinsic signal changes accompanying sensory stimulation: Functional brain mapping with magnetic resonance imaging. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 89.5951-5955.

Oh, S., Webb, A. G., Neuberger, T., Park, B. and Collins, C. M. (2010) Experimental and numerical assessment of MRI-induced temperature change and SAR distributions in phantoms and in vivo. Magnetic Resonance in Medicine, 63, 1, (01/2010), 218-223, 1347-3182 (P)

Okada, T., Yamada, H., Ito, H., Yonekura, Y. and Sadato, N. (2005) Magnetic field strength increase yields significantly greater contrast-to-noise ratio increase: Measured using BOLD contrast in the primary visual area. Academic Radiology, 12, 2, (2/2005), 142-147, 1076-6332 (P)
Pascual-Leone, A., Grafman, J. and Hallett, M. (1994) Modulation of cortical motor output maps during development of implicit and explicit knowledge. Science, 263, 5151, (3/1994), 1287-1289, 0193-4511 (P)

Pascual-Leone, A., Valls-Sole, J., Brasil-Neto, J. P., Cammarota, A., Grafman, J. and Hallett, M. (1994) Akinesia in Parkinson's disease. II. Effects of subthreshold repetitive transcranial motor cortex stimulation. Neurology, 44, 5, (5/1994), 892-898, 0028-3878 (P)

Pascual-Leone, A., Rubio, B., Pallardo, F. and Catala, M. D. (1996) Rapid-rate transcranial magnetic stimulation of left dorsolateral prefrontal cortex in drug-resistant depression. Lancet, 348, 9022, (7/1996), 233-237, 0140-6736 (P)

Pauling, L. and Coryell, C. D. (1936) The Magnetic Properties and Structure of Hemoglobin, Oxyhemoglobin and Carbonmonoxyhemoglobin. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 22, 4, (03/1936), 210-216, 0027-8424 (P)

Paus, T., Jech, R., Thompson, C. J., Comeau, R., Peters, T. and Evans, A. C. (1997) Transcranial magnetic stimulation during positron emission tomography: a new method for studying connectivity of the human cerebral cortex. The Journal of neuroscience, 17, 9, (5/1997), 3178-84, 0270-6474 (P)

Paus, T. and Wolfarth, M. (1998) Transcranial magnetic stimulation during PET: reaching and verifying the target site. Human brain mapping, 6, 5-6, 399-402, 1065-9471 (P)

Pernet, C., Schyns, P. G. and Demonet, J. F. (2007) Specific, selective or preferential: comments on category specificity in neuroimaging. Neuroimage, 35, 3, (4/2007), 991-997, 1053-8119 (P)

Polson, M. J., Barker, A. T. and Freeston, I. L. (1982) Stimulation of nerve trunks with time-varying magnetic fields. Medical & Biological Engineering & Computing, 20, 2, (3/1982), 243-244, 0140-0118 (P)

Post, A. and Keck, M. E. (2001) Transcranial magnetic stimulation as a therapeutic tool in psychiatry: what do we know about the neurobiological mechanisms? Journal of Psychiatric Research, 35, 4, (7-8/2001), 193-215, 0022-3751 (P)

Pruessmann, K., Weiger, M., Scheidegger, M. and Boesiger, P. (1999) SENSE: sensitivity encoding for fast MRI. Magnetic Resonance in Medicine, 42, 5, (11/1999), 952-962, 0740-3194 (P)

Puri, B. K., Davey, N. J., Ellaway, P. H. and Lewis, S. W. (1996) An investigation of motor function in schizophrenia using transcranial magnetic stimulation of the motor cortex. The British journal of psychiatry, 169, 6, (12/1996), 690-695, 0007-1250 (P)

Raichle, M. E. and Mintun, M. A. (2006) Brain work and brain imaging. Annual review of neuroscience, 29, (7/2006), 449-476, 0147-006X (P)

Rapisarda, G., Bastings, E., de Noordhout, A. M., Pennisi, G. and Delwaide, P. J. (1996) Can motor recovery in stroke patients be predicted by early transcranial magnetic stimulation? Stroke, 27, 12, (12/1996), 2191-2196, 0147-006X (P)

Reitz, J. R., Milford, F. J. and Christy, R. W. (1993). Foundations of Electromagnetic Theory. New York, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc.

Roberts, D. R., Vincent, D. J., Speer, A. M., Bohning, D. E., Cure, J., Young, J. and George, M. S. (1997) Multi-modality mapping of motor cortex: comparing echoplanar BOLD fMRI and transcranial magnetic stimulation. Short communication. Journal of neural transmission, 104, 8-9, 833-843, 0300-9564 (P)
Rossi, S., Hallett, M., Rossini, P. M. and Pascual-Leone, A. (2009) Safety, ethical considerations, and application guidelines for the use of transcranial magnetic stimulation in clinical practice and research. Clinical neurophysiology 20, 12, (12/2009), 2008-2039, 1388-2457 (P)

Rostrup, E., Larsson, H. B., Toft, P. B., Garde, K., Ring, P. B. and Henriksen, O. (1996) Susceptibility contrast imaging of CO2-induced changes in the blood volume of the human brain. Acta Radiologica, 37, 5, (9/1996), 813-822, 0001-6926 (P)

Roy, C. S. and Sherrington, C. S. (1890) On the Regulation of the Blood-supply of the Brain. The Journal of physiology, 11, 1-2, (1/1890), 85-158.17, 0022-3751 (P)

Rudiak, D. and Marg, E. (1994) Finding the depth of magnetic brain stimulation: a re-evaluation. Electroencephalography and Clinical Neurophysiology, 93, 5, (10/1994), 358-371, 0013-4694 (P)

Ruff, C. C., Blankenburg, F., Bjoertomt, O., Bestmann, S., Freeman, E., Haynes, J. D., Rees, G., Josephs, O., Deichmann, R. and Driver, J. (2006) Concurrent TMS-fMRI and psychophysics reveal frontal influences on human retinotopic visual cortex. Current biology, 16, 15, (8/2006), 1479-88, 0960-9822 (P)

Ruff, C. C., Bestmann, S., Blankenburg, F., Bjoertomt, O., Josephs, O., Weiskopf, N., Deichmann, R. and Driver, J. (2008) Distinct causal influences of parietal versus frontal areas on human visual cortex: evidence from concurrent TMS-fMRI. Cerebral cortex 18, 4, (4/2008), 817-27, 1047-3211 (P)

Sack, A. T. and Linden, D. E. (2003) Combining transcranial magnetic stimulation and functional imaging in cognitive brain research: possibilities and limitations. Brain research. Brain research reviews, 43, 1, (9,2003), 41-56.

Sack, A. T. (2006) Transcranial magnetic stimulation, causal structure-function mapping and networks of functional relevance. Current Opinion in Neurobiology, 16, 5, (10/2006), 593-599, 0959-4388 (P)

Schlaepfer, T. E. and Kosel, M. (2004). Transcranial magnetic stimulation in depression. Brain stimulation in psychiatric treatment. S. H. Lisanby, 1-22, American Psychiatric Publishing, Washington DC.

Schutter, D. J. and van Honk, J. (2006) An electrophysiological link between the cerebellum, cognition and emotion: Frontal theta EEG activity to single-pulse cerebellar TMS. Neuroimage, 33, 4, (12/2006), 1227-1231, 1053-8119 (P)

Siebner, H. R., Lee, L. and Bestmann, S. (2003) Interleaving TMS with functional MRI: now that it is technically feasible how should it be used? Clinical neurophysiology, 114, 11, (11/2003), 1997-99, 1388-2457 (P)

Smith, S. M., Jenkinson, M., Woolrich, M. W., Beckmann, C. F., Behrens, T. E., Johansen-Berg, H., Bannister, P. R., De Luca, M., Drobnjak, I., Flitney, D. E., Niazy, R. K., Saunders, J., Vickers, J., Zhang, Y., De Stefano, N., Brady, J. M. and Matthews, P. M. (2004) Advances in functional and structural MR image analysis and implementation as FSL. Neuroimage, 23, Suppl1, S208-S219, 1053-8119 (P)

Song, A. W., Harshbarger, T., Li, T., Kim, K. H., Ugurbil, K., Mori, S. and Kim, D. S. (2003) Functional activation using apparent diffusion coefficient-dependent contrast allows better spatial localization to the neuronal activity: evidence using diffusion tensor imaging and fiber tracking. Neuroimage, 20, 2, (10/2003), 955-961, 1053-8119 (P)
Sack, A. T. (2006) Transcranial magnetic stimulation, causal structure-function mapping and Schlaepfer, T. E. and Kosel, M. (2004). Transcranial magnetic stimulation in depression. Siebner, H. R., Lee, L. and Bestmann, S. (2003) Interleaving TMS with functional MRI: now Smith, S. M., Jenkinson, M., Woolrich, M. W., Beckmann, C. F., Behrens, T. E., Johansen-

Ruff, C. C., Blankenburg, F., Bjoertomt, O., Bestmann, S., Freeman, E., Haynes, J. D., Rees, G., Rudiak, D. and Marg, E. (1994) Finding the depth of magnetic brain stimulation: a re-

networks of functional relevance. Current Opinion in Neurobiology, 16, 5, (9,2003), 41-56.

cognition and emotion: Frontal theta EEG activity to single-pulse cerebellar TMS.

Ruff, C. C., Bestmann, S., Blankenburg, F., Bjoertomt, O., Josephs, O., Weiskopf, N.,

(10/2006), 593-599, 0959-4388 (P)

imaging in cognitive brain research: possibilities and limitations. Brain research reviews, 43, 1, (9,2003), 41-56.

neurophysiology, 114, 11, (11/2003), 2071-2080, 1388-2457 (P)

Tokimura, H., Tokimura, Y., Oliviero, A., Asakura, T. and Rothwell, J. C. (1996) Speech-induced changes in corticospinal excitability. Annals of neurology, 40, 4, (10/1996), 628-634, 0364-5134 (P)

Tomasi, D., Chang, L., Caparelli, E. C. and Ernst, T. (2007) Different activation patterns for working memory load and visual attention load. Brain research, 1132, 1, (2/2007), 158-165, 0006-8993 (P)

Triggs, W. J., McCoy, K. J., Greer, R., Rossi, F., Bowers, D., Kortenkamp, S., Nadeau, S., E, Heilman, K., M and Goodman, W. K. (1999) Effects of left frontal transcranial magnetic stimulation on depressed mood, cognition, and corticomotor threshold. Biological psychiatry, 45, 11, (6/1999), 1440-1446, 0006-3223 (P)

van der Zwaag, W., Francis, S., Head, K., Peters, A., Gowland, P., Morris, P. and Bowtell, R. (2009) fMRI at 1.5, 3 and 7 T: characterising BOLD signal changes. Neuroimage, 47, 4, (10/2009), 1425-1434, 1053-8119 (P)

Wagle, W. A. and Smith, M. (2000) Tattoo-induced skin burn during MR imaging. AJR. American journal of roentgenology, 174, 6, (06/2000), 1795, 0361-803X (P)

Walsh, V. and Cowey, A. (1998) Magnetic stimulation studies of visual cognition. Trends in Cognitive Sciences, 2, 3,(3/1998), 103-110, 1364-6613 (P)

Wassermann, E. M. (1998) Risk and safety of repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation: report and suggested guidelines from the International Workshop on the Safety of Repetitive Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation, June 5-7, 1996. Electroencephalography and Clinical Neurophysiology, 108, 1, (1/1998), 1-16, 0013-4694 (P)

www.intechopen.com
Wassermann, E. M. and Lisanby, S. H. (2001) Therapeutic application of repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation: a review. Clinical neurophysiology: official journal of the International Federation of Clinical Neurophysiology, 112, 8, (8/2001, 1367-1377, 1388-2457 (P)
Werhahn, K. J., Lieber, J., Classen, J. and Noachtar, S. (2000) Motor cortex excitability in patients with focal epilepsy. Epilepsy research, 41, 2, (9/2000), 179-189, 0920-1211 (P)
Ziemann, U., Lonnecker, S., Steinhoff, B. J. and Paulus, W. (1996) Effects of antiepileptic drugs on motor cortex excitability in humans: a transcranial magnetic stimulation study. Annals of neurology, 40, 3, (9/1996), 367-378, 0364-5134 (P)
Neuroimaging has become a crucial technique for Neurosciences. Different structural, functional and neurochemical methods, developed in recent decades, have allowed a systematic investigation on the role of neural substrates involved in functions performed by the central nervous system, whether normal or pathological. This book includes contributions from the general area of the neuroimaging to the understanding of normal functions and abnormalities of the central nervous system.

How to reference
In order to correctly reference this scholarly work, feel free to copy and paste the following:

Elisabeth De Castro Caparelli (2010). Exploring Brain Circuitry: Simultaneous Application of Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation and Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging, Neuroimaging, Cristina Marta Del-Ben (Ed.), ISBN: 978-953-307-127-5, InTech, Available from: http://www.intechopen.com/books/neuroimaging/exploring-brain-circuitry-simultaneous-application-of-transcranial-magnetic-stimulation-and-function