Biomagnetism:

Detection and Imaging Weak Magnetic Fields from the Human Body





Senior Scientific, LLC:

A private business with NIH SBIR funding. Primary Mission: Disease detection using magnetic nanotechnology. PI: Edward R. Flynn, PhD Physicist





Outline of Talk

Detection and Imaging of Weak Biomagnetic Fields

SQUID Sensors
 Experimental Apparatus
 Imaging the Brain
 Imaging the Mind
 Detection and Imaging Disease





Magnetic Field Strengths of various sources and Sensor Sensitivities



Magnetic Field Strength







Measurement of the natural magnetic fields From the brain arising from neuronal currents

A: Instrumentation





What is a SQUID?

Superconducting Quantum Interference Device (SQUID)

Quantum Mechanical (Josephson) Tunneling in a Superconductor

Sensor must have no resistive noise so superconducting material is used.









Basics of SQUID Operation

$$I = I_c \sin\theta ,$$

$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} = 2\pi V \frac{2e}{h} = \frac{2\pi V}{\Phi_0}$$

Josephson Equations: Θ is phase across junction, I=current, V= junction voltage, $\Phi_a = h/2e=2.07$ fWb (flux quanta)



(a) Schematic diagram of DC SQUID, L_s is superconducting flux transformer
(b) Voltage across SQUID depends on bias I, and is periodic function of the incident flux Φ_a.



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Reviews of Modern Physics, Vol. 65, No. 2, April 1993

Magnetoencephalography — theory, instrumentation, and applications to noninvasive studies of the working human brain



Matti Hämäläinen, Riitta Hari, Risto J. Ilmoniemi, Jukka Knuutila, and Olli V. Lounasmaa

Field amplitude vs time for a sensor array - Evoked Response



Principles of MEG



The SISG MEG System

Superconducting "helmet" made of a thin lead sheet.





A large array sensor for MEG based on the superconducting imaging surface gradiometer concept. 155 ch SQUID array installed inside superconducting imaging surface "helmet"

> Integrated SQUID sensors and pickup coils







248 axial gradiometers (low noise)
1 kHz sampling rate



The MEG instrument at the Minneapolis Domenici Center (Magnes 3600WH, 4-D Neuroimaging, San Diego, CA)



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MEG Magnetoencephalography

Imaging the Brain

SpatioTemporal Analysis of Sensor Magnetic Fields to Image Brain Sources using EM Inverse Solutions





SQUIDs Measure Both Space and Time



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Magnetic field contour lines, plotted here as a function of time, are used to determine neural sources.

Response of the brain to a visual stimulus.



Finding the Sources with a Spatial-Temporal algorithm





Graphics by Ranken LANL



MEG Magnetoencephalography

Imaging the Mind Examine correlations between magnetic field magnitude and time in sensor space (No inverse problem)





Data Analysis - 1

Analyses are performed to estimate quantitatively the synchronous (i.e. zero-lag) interactions between signals from pairs of sensors to assess dynamic brain function.

- <u>Step 1</u>: Calculate all pairwise zero-lag crosscorrelations
 - <u>Step 2</u>: Calculate the <u>partial</u> zero-lag crosscorrelations within the 248-sensor network



Langheim, F.J.P., Leuthold, A.C. and Georgopoulos, A.P. (2006) Synchronous dynamic brain networks revealed by magnetoencephalography (MEG) <u>Proceedings of the National</u> <u>Academy of Sciences USA</u> 103: 455-459.



Data Analysis - 2

 The MEG time series are "prewhitened" by fitting an ARIMA (AutoRegressive Integrative Moving Average) Box-Jenkins model and taking the residuals

This procedure yields practically stationary series from which CCF is estimated





Zero-lag (1-ms synchronous) Partial Correlations Of Prewhitened (stationary) MEG Time Series



Predictions from raw MEG signals: Music Perception

- Subjects listened to a musical piece while MEG was recorded
- Single trials analyzed using multivariate regression of MEG data on MIDI notes of the piece
 Predicting MIDI notes listened to





Music Stimulus A



Music Prediction A



Assessment of Dynamic Brain Function: Synchronous Neural Networks

- Examine correlations between magnetic field magnitude and time in sensor space
- All possible zero-lag <u>partial</u> cross-correlations between 248 sensors (= 30,628)
- Positive or negative
 - 1-ms temporal resolution = true synchronicity
- Simple fixation look at a dot for 45 60 sec





Discriminant classification analysis

- Linear discriminant analysis
- Robust, cross-validated leave-one-out method
- 100% correct classification of 52 subjects to one of 6 groups (healthy control, Alzheimer's Disease, schizophrenia, chronic alcoholic, multiple sclerosis, Sjögren's syndrome) using as few as 10 zero-lag cross-correlations as
 predictors!

Such sets are found in numbers far in excess of those expected by chance







Superparamagnetic Particles and the Detection and Imaging of Disease using Magnetic Sensors

Superparamagnetism





Magnetic Nanoparticle with antibody attached

Typical magnetic core diameter is 20 - 30 nm.

Typical bio-coatings are: Carboxyl, starch, streptavidin, PEG

Antibodies are specific markers for various types of cells; e.g., T-cells, various types of cancer cells, etc.







Superparamagnetism

Iron-oxide nanoparticles <100 nm diameter

Particles consist of a single magnetic domain.

All internal atomic magnetic moments are aligned (homogeneous magnetization)

Free particles randomize quickly by Brownian Motion

Bound particles decay by Néel Mechanism

Rarticles exhibit large magnetic moments when magnetized

Particles behave as paramagnetic when not magnetized (they do not agglomerate)



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Scanning Electron Microscope View of Nanoparticles

Monodisperse magnetite 20 nm diameter, made at Center for Integrative Nanotechnology at Sandia National Laboratory (Dale Huber)







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Nanoparticles form a Magnetic Dipole when a magnetizing pulse is applied

• An induced collective dipole moment $\mu(t)$ is the result of alignment of a collection of N particles each with a moment μ_p by an external pulsed field B for a duration t_0 .

u(t) decays as the individual particle orientations relax, this is called the remanence time.





The interaction of a nanoparticle of magnetic moment μ with a magnetic field

$$U = - \vec{\mu} \cdot \vec{B}$$

The average value of the cosine of the angle between is

$$\overline{\cos\theta} = \int e^{-U/kT} \cos\theta d\Omega / \int e^{-U/kT} d\Omega$$

The Langevin function, L(x) gives the average value of $\cos \theta$ where x= $\mu B/kT$

 $L(x) = \coth(x) - 1/x$



Langevin function L(x) vs x





Dipole formed by the magnetic pulse and its decay

Each nanoparticle of radius r is aligned by the field of pulsed Helmholtz coils to form an initial moment determined by the Langevin function and the Néel relaxation time:

$$\mu_{0}(r,t_{0},B) = \mu_{p}L(x)[1 - \exp(t_{0}/\tau(r,B))]$$

The decaying dipole seen by a SQUID is the sum of all the aligned nanoparticle moments as they randomize when the field is quenched.



L

$$u(t,t_0,B) = N \int_{0}^{\infty} dr P(r) \mu_0(r,t_0,B) \exp(-t/\tau(r,0))$$



Brownian vs Néel Relaxation Times Free Particles Bound Particles



Superparamagnetic Particles and the Detection and Imaging of Disease

Measuring the Remanence Fields







Second-order gradiometer Sensor Array





Measures 2nd derivative of magnetic field to minimize background pickup of external fields. Permits operation without the need for a magnetically shielded room.





Methodology

Procedure for Measuring Remanence Fields

Antibody-nanoparticles injected into subject (< 1mg Fe).
 Subject placed under sensor system
 Magnetizing pulse applied (38 Gauss applied for 0.30 sec)
 Remanence fields measured for two Seconds
 Magnetic moment and location of source(s) obtained
 Number of detected cells determined



E R Flynn and H C Bryant, "A biomagnetic system for *in vivo* cancer imaging," Physics in Medicine and Biology **50** (2005) 1273-1293



Example of 7-channel SQUID remanence fields



Disease detection procedure Calibrate Cell Sensitivity:

- Measure magnetic moment per particle by fitting magnetization curve to Langevin function
- Measure magnetic moment of cell sample with known number of cells

Calculate number of nanoparticles/cell for each cell type





Superparamagnetic Particles and the Detection and Imaging of Disease

Detecting and Locating Cancer







Growth of human tumor



Breast Cancer

Breast Phantom with two vials of live breast Cancer cells (MCF-7) Coupled to Magnetic nanoparticles with HER-2 antibodies





Sensitivity for breast cancer cells = 10^5 cells for depths up to 8 cm into breast. Imaging accuracy is +/- 3 mm.



Breast Cancer Markers and Cell Lines currently under study

Antibodies:

HER-2 antibodies

CA27.29 Breast Tumor Marker present on epithelial cells and elevated in breast cancer (33% in early and 67% in late stage cancer)

CA15-3 also elevated but not as specific

Angiogenesis:

VIPO1 (vascular imaging peptide O1) binds to the integrin $\alpha_{v}\beta_{3}$ shown to be overexpressed at sites of neovascularization and metastasis.

Cell Lines Available:

BT-549, MDA-MB-436, MDA-MB-134-VI, HCC202, HCC1008, ZR-75-1, T-47D, MDA-MB-231, and BT-474.





Mouse Model of Human breast cancer

SCID Mouse with human breast cancer Xenograft on flank.

MCF7 Cancer Cells

Mouse injected with Nanoparticles coupled to HER-2 antibodies







Results of Mouse Tumor Study

Magnetic moment (x 1E+07 A-m²) as a function of time from mouse tumor after injection of nanoparticles. $\mu = 1.0 = 2.6 \times 10^{10}$ nanoparticles = ~ 3 x 10⁶ cancer cells

 $(\sim 1 \times 10^4 \text{ np/cell})$







Labeling of Breast Cancer Cells with magnetic NP

BT474 breast tumor cells, labeled with SiMag 1411 Carboxyl magnetic NP, coupled to anti-her2 Ab. Left is bright-field image of BT474 cells showing NP bound to surface, Right image is dark-field image.







Ovarian Cancer

Anatomical Model under sensor system.

Ovary with Carcinomas







Nanoparticle in-vivo imaging permits several consecutive injections of different markers to improve sensitivity and specificity; e.g., CA125 & HMFG1/G2 give 95% sensitivity 93% specificity



7-channel SQUID remanence fields from 500,00 live ovarian cells coupled to nanoparticles with CA-125 markers.



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Live Ovarian Cell lines



Superparamagnetic Particles and the Detection and Imaging of Disease

Detecting Rejection of Transplanted Organ





In-Vivo Detection of the Rejection of a Transplanted Organ

- Rejection of a transplanted organ occurs by T-cells that attach to foreign Human-Leukocyte-Associated antigens on the donor cells and kill them.
- 2) T-cells accumulate in small nodules within the organ.
- T-cells can be targeted with specific antibodies, conjugated to magnetic nanoparticles, and detected in-vivo by SQUID sensors.

Method minimizes the need for painful biopsies.

5) Monitoring for T-cell presence will be used to determine the amount of anti-immune system drugs being administered.





Each T-cell will have 5 x 10⁴ CD3 Antibodies conjugated to nanoparticles

- 1) Current SQUID system detects 10⁵ cells at 4 cm and 10⁶ at 8cm.
- 2) This corresponds to the amount in ~100 micron diameter nodules.
- 3)Completely rejected organ may contain 10¹⁰ 10¹¹ T-cells.
- Transplanted organs include kidney, heart, liver and lung.





Specific Binding of Nanoparticles to Cells

Jurkat T-Cells CD2 Antibody (non-specific) Jurkat T-Cells +CD3 Antibody (specific)





Kidney Phantom containing two sources of Live Jurkat T-cells under SQUID sensor



Magnetic Field Contours of Data and Theory for two Live Cell Sources in Kidney Phantom

50

40

30

20

10

D

D

10

y axis

79.7

150 0

155.3





Theory Contours

ະ ສະເຣ

20

30

40

50

tran_02_22_10_cont theory



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Superparamagnetic Particles and the Detection and Imaging of Disease

Diseases of the Brain





Diseases of the Brain

Nanoparticles and SQUID detection can be used to detect, and potentially treat, disease's of the brain; e.g., Alzheimer's and Multiple Sclerosis.



Methodology of Detection and Treatment of AD

 Use nanoparticles coated with PEG to get by BBB
 Use antibodies for Amyloid Plaque and Tau
 Inject into patient and detect and localize plaque and Tau deposits
 Determine presence and state of AD
 Inject nanoparticles with antibodies and anti-plaque drug
 Magnetically concentrate particles over localized plaque sites





Measuring Sources in the Brain



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Model of brain placed in skull with multiple diffuse nanoparticle sources to measure multiple extended sources





Localization of Nanoparticle Sources in the Brain

Experimental Fields



Theoretical Fields



Dipole1: X Ζ Μ Ν Y -3.12 0.70 4.53 3.26 7.2E+10 Dipole2: Μ Ζ 1.85 4.31 4.07 9 **Senior Scientific**



Alzheimer Disease Status

 Primary Imaging analysis completed
 Antibodies for Amyloid Plaque and Tau
 Antibodies coupled to Nanoparticles
 Flash-frozen brain slices of AD Patients
 AD Mouse model under development (UMN have developed AD mouse)





Summary

 SQUID sensor sensitivity can detect and image brain magnetic fields and targeted nanoparticles in disease.
 Measurement of natural biomagnetic fields can be used to understand brain function
 Measurement of natural biomagnetic fields can be used to understand the working mind
 Magnetic nanoparticles and weak field sensors can be used for early disease detection.
 Nanoparticle applications include cancer, leukemia, transplant rejection, and brain diseases.
 Treatment options include multi-function nanoparticles for localization and magnetic concentration or hyperthermia.



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