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Muriel Panouillères, Solène Frismand, Olivier Sillan, Christian Urquizar, Alain Vighetto, et al.. Saccades and Eye–Head Coordination in Ataxia with Oculomotor Apraxia Type 2. The Cerebellum, 2013, 12 (4), pp.557-567. 10.1007/s12311-013-0463-1. hal-02196702

HAL Id: hal-02196702 https://hal.science/hal-02196702

Submitted on 26 Apr 2023

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The Cerebellum

Saccades and eye-head coordination in ataxia with oculomotor apraxia type 2 --Manuscript Draft--

Manuscript Number:	
Full Title:	Saccades and eye-head coordination in ataxia with oculomotor apraxia type 2
Article Type:	Original Article
Corresponding Author:	Muriel Panouilleres
	FRANCE
Corresponding Author Secondary Information:	
Corresponding Author's Institution:	
Corresponding Author's Secondary Institution:	
First Author:	Muriel Panouilleres
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Abstract:	Ataxia with oculomotor apraxia type 2 (AOA2) is one of the most frequent autosomal recessive cerebellar ataxias. Oculomotor apraxia refers to horizontal gaze failure due to deficits in voluntary/reactive eye movements. These deficits can manifest as increased latency and/or hypometria of saccades with a stair-case pattern and are frequently associated with compensatory head thrust movements. Oculomotor disturbances associated with AOA2 have been poorly studied mainly because the diagnosis of oculomotor apraxia was based on the presence of compensatory head thrusts. The aim of this study was to characterize the nature of horizontal gaze failure in patients with AOA2 and to demonstrate oculomotor apraxia even in the absence of head thrusts. Five patients with AOA2, without head thrusts, were tested in saccadic tasks with the head restrained or free to move and their performance were compared to a group of six healthy participants. The most salient deficit of the patients was saccadic hypometria with a typical stair-case pattern. Saccade latency in the patients was longer than controls only for memory-guided saccades. In the head-free condition, head movements were delayed relative to the eye and their amplitude and velocity were strongly reduced compared to controls. Our study emphasizes that in AOA2, hypometric saccades with a stair-case pattern are a more reliable sign of oculomotor apraxia than head thrust movements. In addition, the variety of eye and head movements' deficits suggests that, although the main neural degeneration in AOA2 affects the cerebellum, this disease affects other structures.
Suggested Reviewers:	

in ataxia with oculomotor apraxia type 2

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Conflict of interest statement

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest

Abstract

Ataxia with oculomotor apraxia type 2 (AOA2) is one of the most frequent autosomal recessive cerebellar ataxias. Oculomotor apraxia refers to horizontal gaze failure due to deficits in voluntary/reactive eye movements. These deficits can manifest as increased latency and/or hypometria of saccades with a stair-case pattern and are frequently associated with compensatory head thrust movements. Oculomotor disturbances associated with AOA2 have been poorly studied mainly because the diagnosis of oculomotor apraxia was based on the presence of compensatory head thrusts. The aim of this study was to characterize the nature of horizontal gaze failure in patients with AOA2 and to demonstrate oculomotor apraxia even in the absence of head thrusts. Five patients with AOA2, without head thrusts, were tested in saccadic tasks with the head restrained or free to move and their performance were compared to a group of six healthy participants. The most salient deficit of the patients was saccadic hypometria with a typical stair-case pattern. Saccade latency in the patients was longer than controls only for memory-guided saccades. In the head-free condition, head movements were delayed relative to the eye and their amplitude and velocity were strongly reduced compared to controls. Our study emphasizes that in AOA2, hypometric saccades with a stair-case pattern are a more reliable sign of oculomotor apraxia than head thrust movements. In addition, the variety of eye and head movements' deficits suggests that, although the main neural degeneration in AOA2 affects the cerebellum, this disease affects other structures.

Keywords: AOA2, Oculomotor apraxia, Stair-case saccade, Eye-head coordination, Cerebellum

Introduction

Ataxia with oculomotor apraxia type type 2 (AOA2) belongs to the autosomal recessive cerebellar ataxias, which are rare and early-disabling neurodegenerative diseases. AOA2 was first described in a Japanese family [1] and the defective gene, the Senataxin [2, 3] has been mapped on chromosome 9q34 [4]. The typical clinical presentation of AOA2 associates an age of onset around 10-22 years, a progressive cerebellar ataxia, a sensory-motor axonal neuropathy, an elevated level of serum alpha-feto-protein (AFP) and an oculomotor apraxia [5, 6].

Oculomotor apraxia is a term that has been used loosely to describe difficulty changing gaze, often associated with abnormal patterns of eye-head coordination including conspicuous overshooting, thrusting head movements. The head thrusts are a compensatory mechanism to facilitate changes in gaze [7-9]. While the head thrusts in patients with oculomotor apraxia have sometimes been used as the main diagnostic criterion for the condition, it is the precise characteristics of the ocular motor disturbances that should be used to define the condition and to clarify the underlying pathophysiology.

The gaze abnormality in oculomotor apraxia might primarily be characterized by a deficit of voluntary/reactive saccades and smooth pursuit while quick phases of nystagmus in response to vestibular or optokinetic stimulation are relatively preserved [7-9]. This relative specificity of the deficits indicates that the brain regions responsible for the oculomotor apraxia are located upstream from the saccadic premotor nuclei in the brainstem [10], and would possibly include the fronto-parietal cortical areas, the basal ganglia, the cerebellum and/or the superior colliculus. Deficits in voluntary/reactive eye movements can manifest as increased latency and/or hypometria of saccades and jerky smooth pursuit [11]. When saccades are hypometric, multiple small saccades are sometimes required to reach the target. This pattern, called stair-case saccades, has been described in the congenital forms of oculomotor apraxia [11].

The presence and frequency of occurrence of oculomotor apraxia in AOA2 are probably under-estimated. Indeed, some studies claiming that oculomotor apraxia is rare in this pathology have provided a poor description of the deficits without mentioning whether voluntary/reactive saccades were impaired and quick phases preserved [1, 5, 12]. Moreover, other recent studies restricted the definition of oculomotor apraxia to the head thrust as the main criterion, and reported a 20% to 100% of incidence [6, 13-16]. The only team that investigated the saccadic disturbances associated with AOA2 [15] reported that patients' saccades had normal latency but were hypometric. Moreover, the authors also noted that, in contrast to AOA1 [17], these patients with AOA2 did not show stair-case saccades [15]. Whether true oculomotor apraxia without head thrust can occur in AOA2 has never been asked in previous studies.

The aim of the present study was to characterize the nature of horizontal gaze failure in five patients with AOA2 and to demonstrate oculomotor apraxia in the absence of compensatory head thrust. We recorded eye and head movements while the AOA2 patients performed horizontal reactive saccades and voluntary saccades (scanning saccades, memory-guided saccades and anti-saccades) with their head restrained or free to move.

Materials and Methods

Subjects

Five patients were recruited (mean age at examination: 31.2 ± 7.6 years). Their genetic and clinical features are summarised in Table 1. The patients presented a similar clinical oculomotor phenotype including stair-case hypometria of horizontal and vertical saccades,

gaze-evoked nystagmus, saccadic smooth pursuit and absent visual suppression of vestibuloocular reflex. None of them was using head thrust to change his line of sight.. Patients I-1 and I-2 also presented exophoria and convergence insufficiency and Patient II-1 had right hypertropia in far vision, without any limitation. Three siblings patients (family I) also presented positional vestibular nystagmus, and high gain of the vestibulo-ocular reflex (VOR). Six healthy subjects with no history of neurological disease served as the control group (two males, mean age: 32.5 ± 7.0 years).

Approval was received from the National French ethical committee on human experimentation, in agreement with French law (March 4, 2002) and the Declaration of Helsinki (2003-036B). Written informed consents were obtained from all participants.

Experimental set-up

Participants were seated at a distance of 57 cm from a computer screen (refresh rate: 60 Hz – visual angle: $60^{\circ} \times 34^{\circ}$). Movements of both eyes were recorded at 250 Hz with helmet-mounted infrared eye trackers (Eyelink 2, SR-Research, Canada). In the head-restrained condition, head movements were restrained with a chin and cheekbone rests. In the head-free condition, the position of three infrared emitting diodes placed on the helmet was recorded at 200 Hz (Optotrak 3020, Northern Digital Inc., Ontario, Canada). In-house software controlled the stimuli presentation (black circles, cross or arrows of 6 mm diameter on a grey background) and recorded eye and head movements for off-line analysis.

Experimental paradigms in the head-restrained condition

Reactive, scanning and memory-guided saccades toward targets located $\pm 10^{\circ}$ or $\pm 20^{\circ}$ along the horizontal meridian, as well as anti-saccades in response to $\pm 10^{\circ}$ targets, were elicited in paradigms described in supplementary material 1A. In all tasks, leftward-saccades trials were randomly intermingled with rightward-saccades trials. Fifteen trials for each direction and for each target eccentricity were recorded in all tasks.

Experimental paradigms in the head-free condition

For the eye-head coordination tasks, patients and control subjects were instructed to move their head as naturally as possible. However, because patients produced small head movements, they were encouraged to mobilize their head more while changing gaze direction. In separate reactive and scanning tasks, eye-head movements were elicited *from an eccentric* fixation point ($\pm 25^{\circ}$) toward a target presented in the opposite hemifield at 5° or 25° (i.e. at a distance of 30° or 50° from fixation, respectively). In both tasks, ten trials with a fixation located at $\pm 25^{\circ}$ (leftward movements) alternated with ten trials with a fixation at $\pm 25^{\circ}$ (rightward movements), until 60 trials were recorded. The paradigms are detailed in supplementary material 1B.

Data analysis

In the head-restrained condition, the primary saccade and all subsequent corrective saccades directed toward the target were analysed. The latency, gain and velocity peak of the primary saccade and the total displacement gain were computed (see supplementary material 1C)

In the head-free condition, the latency and amplitude of the primary eye saccade, the amplitude, duration and velocity peak of the head movement, the eye-head delay, the gain and duration of the gaze displacement were calculated as described in the supplementary method 1C.

Statistical analysis

Non-parametric statistical analyses were performed with the R software [18], using Kruskal-Wallis tests ("coin" package [19, 20]) and non-parametric ANOVA-type statistics ("nparLD" package [21]). Significant ANOVAs were followed by nonparametric Behrens-Fisher problem ("nparcomp" package [22]). Significance level was set at p<0.05. Unless mentioned otherwise, numeric values reported in the main text, tables and figures correspond to median values.

Results

Errors and anticipations

Patients with AOA2 made significantly more anti-saccades direction errors (36% of trials) than controls (3% of trials) (Kruskal-Wallis test: p<0.01). Moreover, in the memory-guided saccade task, patients anticipated the extinction of the fixation point in about 16% of the trials, whereas healthy subjects anticipated in only 5% of the cases (Kruskal-Wallis test: p<0.05). Finally, in the scanning task of the head-free condition, patients anticipated the appearance of the go signal in 20% of trials whereas healthy subjects never anticipated (Kruskal-Wallis test: p<0.05). In sum, patients with AOA2 had more difficulty than controls in inhibiting automatic responses to the visual targets in these three tasks.

Saccadic performance in the head-restrained condition

A representative example of hypometria with stair-case pattern is illustrated in one patient for leftward reactive response (Fig 1B – see for comparison the response of a control subject in Fig 1A). This saccadic stair-case pattern was observed in all patients except in patient I-3 who has the shortest disease duration (Table 1). In the following section, we first quantify the parameters of the primary saccade performed by patients in the different tasks, and then describe the characteristics of the secondary saccades.

No latency difference was observed between subjects groups for reactive saccades and scanning saccades (Fig 2A –non-parametric ANOVA with saccade type, target eccentricity and group factors, no group effect, nor any interaction: p>0.07) as well as for anti-saccades (Kruskal-Wallis tests: p>0.20). In contrast, the latency of memory-guided saccades was longer in patients than in controls (non-parametric ANOVA, group effect: p<0.05).

The gain of primary saccades was compared between controls and patients (Fig 2B). No group difference was highlighted for anti-saccades (Kruskal-Wallis test: p>0.58). However, for reactive and scanning saccades, the gain was significantly smaller in patients with AOA2 than in controls (non-parametric ANOVA with saccade type, eccentricity and group factors, group effect: p<0.001). Similarly, memory-guided saccades directed toward the $\pm 20^{\circ}$ target were significantly smaller in patients than in controls (non-parametric ANOVA, group × eccentricity interaction: p<0.001; nonparametric Behrens-Fisher problem: p<0.01).

To determine if the stereotyped relationship between saccade amplitude and saccade peak velocity was altered in patients with AOA2, we compared between groups the peak velocity of reactive, scanning and memory-guided saccades with matched amplitude (8°-12°). We found that whereas the velocity of memory-guided saccades was similar between the two groups (Kruskal-Wallis test: p>0.39), reactive and scanning saccades of similar amplitudes were slower in patients than in controls (Table 2 – non-parametric ANOVA, group effect: p<0.05).

In the example presented in Figure 1B, patient II-2 was able to compensate for his primary saccade hypometria by making multiple corrective saccades. We found that in the group of patients, this compensation was complete, as total eye gain (primary and corrective saccades) was close to 1. This last parameter was similar to control values (Fig 2C) for reactive and scanning saccades (non-parametric ANOVA, p=0.08) and for anti-saccades (Kruskal-Wallis tests: p=0.27) or, for memory-guided saccades toward the 10° target, it was even slightly

larger than in controls (non-parametric ANOVA, group × eccentricity interaction: p<0.001; nonparametric Behrens-Fisher problem: p<0.01). The number of corrective saccades required to reach the target (Fig 2D) was significantly larger in patients than in controls, for reactive, scanning and memory-guided saccades (non-parametric ANOVA, group effect: p<0.01), but not for anti-saccades (Kruskal-Wallis test: p>0.41).

In summary, latencies were similar between groups for reactive saccades, scanning saccades and anti-saccades while they were longer for memory-guided saccades in patients compared to controls. Patients made hypometric primary saccades followed by stair-case corrective saccades. Saccade dynamics were slightly affected in patients and characterised by slower reactive and scanning saccades compared to controls.

Eye-head coordination

Representative examples of eye-head coordination impairments are illustrated in two patients for a rightward reactive response (Fig 3B, 3C – see for comparison the response of a control subject in Fig 3A). Several parameters were calculated to compare eye-head coordination in patients relative to the controls. First, we found that, as in head-restrained tasks, eye latency did not differ between groups of subjects (Table 3 – non-parametric ANOVA: p>0.16) and that the amplitude of eye movements was smaller in patients than in controls (non-parametric ANOVA, group effect: p<0.001).

Second, the head movements' characteristics were scrutinized. Patients with AOA2 started moving their head more than 100 ms after eye movement initiation (Fig 4A). This delay between head and eye movement initiation was significantly larger than in healthy participants (non-parametric ANOVA, group effect: p<0.001). The amplitude of head movements was significantly smaller than in control subjects (Fig 4B – non-parametric ANOVA, group effect: p<0.001). Despite this hypometria, head movements lasted longer in

patients than in controls, a difference that reached significance in the scanning task for the 50° target (Fig 4C – non-parametric ANOVA, group × movement type interaction: p<0.01). Patients always had slower head displacements than controls (Fig 4D – non-parametric ANOVA, group factor: p<0.001; nonparametric Behrens-Fisher problem: p<0.001).

Lastly, we analysed the gaze displacement resulting from combined eye-head movements. We first estimated the gaze accuracy at the end of the primary saccade (Fig 5A). In controls, gaze landed on target (gain around 1) for the small target eccentricity (30°) and close to the target for the large eccentricity (50°). In contrast, gaze gain was only around 0.4-0.6 in patients. This gaze hypometria in patients relative to controls was larger for the 50° than for the 30° eccentricity (non-parametric ANOVA, group and eccentricity interaction: p<0.001; nonparametric Behrens-Fisher problem: p<0.001). Contrary to controls (Fig 5B), the gaze of patients had still not reached the target at the end of head movement and gaze gain (0.8-0.9) was still significantly smaller than in controls (non-parametric ANOVA, group effect: p<0.001). Finally, when stabilised, gaze was on target both in controls and patients (Fig 5C), as revealed by gain values close to 1 in all participants and by the lack of significant difference between groups (non-parametric ANOVA: p>0.07). Interestingly, the total gaze shift duration (Fig 5D) in AOA2 patients (exceeding 1500 ms) significantly differed from that of control subjects (200 to 400 ms – non-parametric ANOVA, group effect: p<0.001).

To summarize, eye-head coordination was severely impaired in our patients with AOA2. The head movement was delayed by around 100 ms relative to the eye movement. The amplitudes of the eye and head movements were smaller in patients than in controls, leading to a marked gaze hypometria. The head velocity was decreased in all patients. Finally the duration of the head displacement was unaffected for reactive movements but larger for scanning movements in patients compared to controls. Because of all these deficits, the patients required highly longer times than controls to reach the target.

Discussion

Saccade inhibition

Patients with AOA2 made more anticipatory errors than controls in the memory-guided task and more directional errors in the anti-saccade task. These errors reflect a deficiency of a saccade inhibition process common to both tasks, classically associated with an impairment of the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex [23-25]. Poor performance in the anti-saccade task has been reported earlier in patients with AOA2 [15] and in patients with AOA1 [17]. Moreover, an increased error frequency in the anti-saccade and memory-guided saccade tasks has also been described in patients with Friedreich ataxia [26], in spinocerebellar ataxia type 17 [27] and in patients with cerebellar atrophy [28]. Finally, an increased percentage of errors in antisaccades was also found in spinocerebellar ataxia type 1, 2 and 3 [29]. Fielding et al [26] suggested that: "Given that the primary site of pathology in FDRA is within the cerebellum, it is conceivable that disruption to cerebro-ponto-cerebello-thalamo-cerebral circuitry may be involved in the manifestation of these deficits". Thus, poor performance in anti-saccades and memory-guided saccades observed in these various cerebellar ataxic syndromes, as well as in our AOA2 patients, may be taken as evidence of dysfunction at the level of the cerebellofrontal neural network. Dysfunction outside of the cerebellum in AOA2 is further strengthened by dystonic movements and mild cognitive defects observed in some patients with AOA2 [5].

Saccade dynamics

We found that the dynamics of reactive and scanning saccades were slightly altered in patients with AOA2. Indeed, for saccades of matched amplitude, peak velocity was about 10% lower than in healthy participants. This observation contrasts with a previous study which reported normal saccade velocity in patients with AOA2 [15]. However, this lack of

velocity deficits might be linked to the limited impairment of saccadic accuracy found in this previous study. Disturbance of saccadic dynamics is a sensitive marker of brainstem involvement in neurodegenerative diseases [30]. Thus, our results suggest a partial brainstem dysfunction in patients with AOA2.

Saccade accuracy

The most striking oculomotor deficit found in patients with AOA2 was a saccadic hypometria, which increased with target distance, and which was observed regardless of whether the head was restrained or free to move. Hypometria in patients with AOA2 was reported in a previous study, but to a smaller extent [15]. This study has additionally suggested that saccadic stair-case specifically characterizes AOA1 but not AOA2 [15]. Our results instead suggest for the first time that stair-case saccades are a common feature of AOA1 and AOA2. The observation of saccadic hypometria and stair-case saccades is consistent with a cerebellar impairment in such patients [31]. However, both deficits of the superior colliculus [32, 33] and of the basal ganglia [34-36] can also lead to saccadic stair-cases. Thus, a dysfunction at the level of one of these two areas cannot be ruled out in patients with AOA2.

Eye-head coordination

Patients with AOA2 tested in the present study did not exhibit head thrusts, but their eye-head coordination was strongly impaired. First, a marked increase of head movement latency led to an abnormally long delay (~100 ms) between eye and head, disrupting the normal eye-head coordination. Second, head movements in patients were markedly smaller and slower than in control subjects. Consequently, the head contributed very little to the overall gaze shift. Because of this altered eye-head coupling and of the marked hypometria of eye and head

movements, patients needed more time than controls to shift their gaze onto the targets. Note that in family I, the high gain of the VOR further interfered with orientation and stabilisation of gaze.

The observed deficits of eye-head coordination could directly result from a role of the cerebellum in head-orienting movements, according to lesion data in the cat [37]. Note that a similar pattern of head movements' deficits (i.e. increased latency, reduced size and velocity) has been identified earlier in patients with Parkinson's disease [35, 38]. These deficits might originate from an alteration of the pathway from the basal ganglia to the superior colliculus, as this structure is known as a key area for orienting head movements (for review see [39]). Thus, in the case of patients with AOA2, and in addition to a direct cerebellar impairment, deficits in head movements might also be linked to a dysfunction of the basal ganglia-superior colliculus network.

Global brain deficits in AOA2

In the previous parts of the discussion, we suggested that deficits in our patients could result from dysfunction scattering in various brain areas. Indeed, cerebellar damages can be responsible for the saccadic hypometria with a stair-case pattern and for the deficits in head movements. However, dysfunction in the basal ganglia-superior colliculus network can result in similar deficits. Moreover, alterations of saccade dynamics are classically attributed to brainstem dysfunction whereas deficits in saccadic inhibition are usually characteristic of lesion of the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex. Thus, the oculomotor and head movements abnormalities reported in the present study suggest that patients with AOA2 suffer from impairments involving a much wider network than the cerebellum. Because the cerebellum sends direct or indirect projections to this network, and is primarily implicated by the pathological degeneration, all these ocular motor deficits might be due to an abnormal cerebellar drive to this network.

Oculomotor apraxia

Our patients with AOA2 presented deficits of voluntary/reactive saccades (hypometria with stair-case pattern, increased latency of memory-guided saccades) in agreement with the definition of oculomotor apraxia. Instead of compensatory head thrusts, they showed strongly altered head movements characterised by long latency, small amplitude and reduced velocity. Under natural conditions, patients produced rare and small head movements, and none of them made head thursts movements. Our study therefore emphasizes that head thrust is not a mandatory symptom of oculomotor apraxia and that instead, the eye movements' deficits best characterize the pathology and are the most clinically relevant criteria to determine if patients suffer from oculomotor apraxia. When the description of oculomotor performance is used as a criterion, the prevalence of oculomotor apraxia in AOA2 is expected to be higher than what has been reported in previous studies.

Conclusion

This study showed for the first time that gaze disorder in patients with AOA2 mainly originates from the production of stair-case saccades. This result emphasizes that in AOA2, hypometric saccades with a stair-case pattern are a more reliable sign of oculomotor apraxia than head thrust movements. A direct comparison of the oculomotor deficits of AOA2 patients with and without head thrust would be necessary to understand the origin of these head thrusts. Moreover, the various saccadic and eye-head coordination deficits reported here suggest dysfunctions of the different brain structures such as cerebellum, brainstem, superior

colliculus, basal ganglia and/or frontal lobe. Thus, although the main neural degeneration in AOA2 affects the cerebellum, this disease seems to impact other structures indirectly, probably through reduced input from the cerebellum.

Acknowledgements

The authors thank the patients and the healthy subjects for contributing to this study. The authors thank Pr S. Thobois, Dr I. Roullet-Solignac and Dr A. Poisson for referring the patients. The authors are really grateful to Pr. D. Zee for a helpful discussion. This work was promoted by the Hospices Civils de Lyon (2002-303).

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Tables

Table 1: Characteristics of the AOA2 patients

Family 12 13	Mutation	Patient	Sex	Age at onset (yrs)	Disease Duration (in yrs)	Initial symptom	Funct score	Tendon reflexes	Deep sensory loss	MMSE (/30)	FAB (/18)	Chorea/ Dystonia	ICAR S total (/100)	AFP level (µg/L)	HIT- VOR (gain)
14 15 F16 17	homozygous for missense mutation	I-1	F	18	10	Gait ataxia Writing ataxia Dysarthria	5	Absent	Present	29	18	Absent	69	60	1.39
18 19	5413C→T (P1805S)	I-2	М	12	14	Dysarthria	4	Absent	Present	29	17 (Luria)	Chorea left hand	50	45.9	1.26
20		I-3	F	20	3	Gait ataxia	3	Absent	Present	29	18	Absent	39	78.6	1.49
22 F 2 3 24	homozygous for missense mutation	II-1	F	10	27	Gait ataxia	6	Absent	Present	24/28	13	Absent	69	15.1	NA
26	(G2423R)	II-2	М	17	24	Gait ataxia	6	Absent	Present	24	18	Absent	68	22.5	0.69

	Reactive	saccades	Scannin	g saccades	Memory-guided saccades		
	Ctrl Patients		Ctrl	Patients	Ctrl	Patients	
Amplitude (°)	10.0	10.2	10.2	10.3	9.4	10.0	
Peak vel (°/s)	375	336*	357	313*	297	318	

Median values are presented. Asterisks indicate significant differences of velocity (Vel) between controls (Ctrl) and patients (non-parametric ANOVA, group factor: p<0.05).

Table 3:	Eye	movement	latency	and	amplitude	in the	e head-free	condition

		Reactive	saccade		Scanning saccades					
	2	30°	5	50°	3	80°	50°			
	Ctrl Patients		Ctrl	Patients	Ctrl Patients		Ctrl	Patients		
Lat (ms)	290	249	307	267	464	465	468	513		
Amp (°)	29.1	14.8***	39.1	19.4***	29.0	18.3***	38.4	20.7***		

Median values are presented. Asterisks indicate significant differences of amplitudes between controls (Ctrl) and patients (post-hoc Behrens-Fisher comparisons: p<0.05). Lat= latency, Amp= amplitude

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Figure 1: Examples of saccadic recordings in the head-restrained condition for a representative control subject (A) and for a patient (B).

The horizontal eye position (black for control and dark grey for patient) during a reactive saccade trial is presented as a function of time and is aligned on target appearance (light grey). In these recordings, the target was presented at -20° . One single saccade of about 20° , initiated after a latency of approximately 200 ms, allows the control subject to accurately fixate the target. For the patient, the primary saccade is initiated after a similar latency, however this saccade is small ($<5^{\circ}$) and is followed by six other saccades ("stair-case") directed toward the target.

Figure 2: Saccade parameters in the head-restrained condition.

The saccade latency (A), the gain of primary saccade (B), the total gain (C) and the number of corrective saccades per trial (B) are represented as a function of the different categories of saccades for control subjects (white boxes) and for the patients (gray boxes). On the left panel are depicted the saccades toward targets at an eccentricity of 10° and on the right panel are presented the saccades toward targets located at an eccentricity of 20°. The band in the whisker box is the median, the bottom and the top of the box are the lower and upper quartiles and the ends of the whiskers are the minimum and maximum values without outliers.

Asterisks indicate significant differences between controls and patients (see text for the statistical tests): * p<0.05; ** p<0.01 and *** p<0.0001.

Figure 3: Examples of recordings of gaze shift in the head-free condition for a representative control subject (A), for a patient from family I (B) and for a patient from family II (C).

The eye (top), head (middle) and gaze (bottom) horizontal positions during a reactive eyehead movements' trial are presented as a function of time. The vertical arrow indicates the time of target appearance, corresponding to the go signal. In these recordings, the fixation point was located at -25° and the target was presented at $+25^{\circ}$. The vertical dashed line indicates the initiation of the eye movements.

For the control (Fig 3A), the eye (top panel) started moving slightly before the head (middle panel) and a total saccadic eye movement of about 30° was produced. When the gaze approached the target (bottom panel), it stabilised despite the continuing head movement thanks to a counter-rotation of the eyes in the orbit resulting from the vestibulo-ocular reflex (VOR). For the patients (Fig 3B and 3C), the latency of the first eye movement was similar to that of the control subject, but the eye-head movements revealed a strong disruption of eye-head coordination. For patient I-3 (Fig 3B), the latency of the head movement was slightly longer, and its amplitude much smaller, compared to the control. Also, a high gain of the VOR caused a marked instability of gaze, drifting in the direction opposite to the head. For the patient II-1 (Fig 3C), the head started moving only after three eye saccades were completed. The size of head movement was excessively small and thus barely contributed to the gaze displacement.

Figure 4: Head movements' parameters in the head-free condition

The latency of the head relative to eye latency (A), the head amplitude (B), the head movement duration (C) and the head velocity (D) are represented separately for the two categories of movements (reactive and scanning) and for control subjects (white boxes) and for patients (gray boxes). On the left panel are depicted the movements toward the targets at a distance of 30° and on the right panel are presented the movements toward the targets at a distance of 50° . The band in the whisker box is the median, the bottom and the top of the box

are the lower and upper quartiles and the ends of the whiskers are the minimum and maximum values without outliers.

Asterisks indicate significant differences between controls and patients (see text for the statistical tests): ** p<0.01 and *** p<0.0001.

Figure 5: Gaze shift parameters in the head-free condition.

The gain of the gaze at the end of the primary saccade (A), at the end of the head movement (B), and after its own stabilisation (C), as well as the total duration of gaze shift (D) are represented separately for the two categories of movements (reactive and scanning), for control subjects (white boxes) and for patients (gray boxes). On the left panel are depicted the movements toward the targets at a distance of 30° and on the right panel are presented the movements toward the targets at a distance of 50° . The band in the whisker box is the median, the bottom and the top of the box are the lower and upper quartiles and the ends of the whiskers are the minimum and maximum values without outliers.

Asterisks indicate significant differences between controls and patients (see text for the statistical tests): *** p<0.0001.









Figure5 Click here to download high resolution image



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