



# Somatosensory evoked high-frequency oscillations in migraine patients

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## Abstract

**Objective:** To explore additional evidence concerning generators of somatosensory evoked high-frequency oscillations (HFOs).

**Methods:** We recorded HFOs in migraine patients. Subjects were 19 healthy normal subjects and 19 migraineurs. Electrical stimuli were delivered alternately to the right and left median nerves at their wrists. EEGs were recorded from C3'-Fz, C4'-Fz, Erb1–Erb2, Erb2–Erb1 and Cv6-Fz using a 0.3 Hz low-frequency filter and a 3000 Hz high-frequency filter. Responses to 5000 stimuli were averaged. For separation of HFOs from underlying N20, the digitized wide-band signals were digitally bandpass filtered (400–800 Hz) and averaged.

**Results:** There were no significant differences in peak latencies and amplitudes for N9, N13, N20 and P25 components between normal controls and migraineurs. Root-mean-square amplitudes for HFOs in migraineurs were significantly diminished compared with normal controls.

**Conclusions:** A diminished inhibitory mechanism in the somatosensory system may exist in migraineurs. It remains to determine what cell populations contribute to generating HFOs.

**Significance:** This indicates that there is a dysfunction in cortical information processing in the somatosensory cortex of migraineurs.

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**Keywords:** Somatosensory evoked potentials; High-frequency oscillations; Migraine; Inhibitory interneurons; Sodium valproate; Gamma-aminobutyric acid

## 1. Introduction

Migraine is a common form of head pain, with a prevalence of 15% in Western Europe. Neurophysiological investigations are a useful non-invasive method for attempting to understand the pathophysiology of migraine. Studies using sensory evoked potentials and transcranial magnetic stimulation have disclosed abnormalities of cortical excitability in migraine patients (Ambrosini et al., 2003). These studies have focused mainly on the visual system. Somatic evoked potentials do not show habituation in migraine patients (Ozkul and Uckardes, 2002). This indicates that there is a dysfunction in cortical information processing not only in the visual cortex, but also in the somatosensory cortex.

Low-amplitude, high-frequency primary cortical oscillations in the frequency range of 500–800 Hz superimposed on the ascending slope of the N20 primary response following stimulation of the median nerve have been reported (Curio et al., 1994; Hashimoto et al., 1996b; Yamada et al., 1988). Although several studies using electroencephalography (EEG) or magnetoencephalography (MEG) have provided a wide range of information about the generator of these high frequency wavelets: from thalamus (Eisen et al., 1984; Klostermann et al., 2002), thalamocortical presynaptic action potentials (Gobbele et al., 1998) to somatosensory cortex (Curio et al., 1997; Hashimoto et al., 1999; Sakuma et al., 1999; Shimazu et al., 2000), the precise anatomical location of the generator remains unclear. The second point of debate is the physiological mechanism of the high-frequency oscillations (HFOs) generation. Although it is generally supposed that the N20 component is generated by excitatory postsynaptic potentials (EPSPs) of pyramidal neurons in area 3b, specialized neuronal classes in the somatosensory cortex

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are presumed to be related to HFO generation. The cell populations convincingly proposed to be involved in HFO generation are 'chattering cells' in layer III, fast-spiking GABAergic inhibitory interneurons, regular-spiking cells and intrinsically bursting cells (Curio, 2000). The anatomical and physiological origins of HFOs are still a matter of considerable debate.

In this study, we recorded somatosensory evoked HFOs in patients with migraine to explore additional evidence concerning HFO generators.

## 2. Subjects and methods

Nineteen healthy normal subjects (12 females and 7 males; mean age 34.4 years, range 20–75 years) and 19 age-matched patients with migraine recruited from a specialized headache clinic (14 females and 5 males; mean age 38.5 years, range 15–67 years) were studied. Migraine was diagnosed according to the International Headache Society criteria. The migraine group comprised patients with migraine with aura (code 1.2; MA;  $n = 6$ ) and migraine without aura (code 1.1; MO;  $n = 13$ ) (Table 1). Patients received no prophylactic therapy or sodium valproate. Recordings were taken during attack-free intervals. At least a 3-day attack-free phase before and after the study was verified from each participant's record. Informed consent was obtained from each participant prior to the study.

Electrical stimuli with a 0.2 ms duration were delivered alternately to the right and left median nerve at the subjects' wrists (cathode proximal). The stimulus intensity was set at 3 times the sensory threshold. The stimuli were delivered at irregular intervals with intervals between 211 and 262 ms. Recording electrodes were placed on C3', C4' (2 cm posterior to C3, C4), Fz of the International 10–20 System,

Erb1, Erb2 and the sixth cervical spinous process (Cv6). Electrode impedance was maintained below 5 k $\Omega$ . EEG was recorded from C3'-Fz, C4'-Fz, Erb1–Erb2, Erb2–Erb1 and Cv6-Fz using a 0.3 Hz low-frequency filter and a 3000 Hz high-frequency filter, then digitized with an analogue to digital converter (micro1401, CED, Cambridge, UK) at a sampling rate of 20 kHz and stored on disk for further analysis. We used C3'-Fz montage for recording HFOs because it is known to be the best method from our experience and previous studies (Mochizuki et al., 1999). An epoch of 50 ms duration was obtained sequentially. Responses to 5000 stimuli were averaged offline using Spike2 software (CED, Cambridge, UK). For separation of HFOs from underlying N20, the digitized wide-band signal was digitally bandpass filtered (400–800 Hz), and averaged.

In wide-band recordings, N20 onset latency, amplitudes and peak latencies for N9, N13, N20 and P25 components were measured and analyzed.

The size of HFOs was calculated from their root-mean-square (RMS) amplitude from the onset to the offset of the HFOs. Onset/offset criteria for HFOs was where they exceeded the averaged background noise level for the subject's control session by 3SD. The number of negative peaks was also counted. All these parameters were separated into two parts: (1) the first half of HFOs (onset to N20 peak) and (2) the latter half (N20 peak to endpoint).

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was employed to analyze somatosensory evoked potentials (SEPs) and HFO data from the patients and normal control subjects. Post hoc comparisons were made using the Bonferroni method. A value of  $P < 0.05$  was considered to be statistically significant.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Conventional somatosensory evoked potentials

In all subjects N9, N13, N20 and P25 were clearly identified in wide-band recordings. There were no significant differences in peak latencies and amplitudes between normal controls and migraineurs (Table 2).

### 3.2. Number of HFO peaks

Fig. 1 shows a typical SEP waveform obtained by wide-band recording. In the ascending and descending slope of the cortical N20 response, small notches, which were thought to be HFOs, were detected (open triangles). After applying a 400–800 Hz digital filter, HFOs superimposed on N20 were clearly identified (Fig. 1, arrows). Though the number of HFO peaks had a tendency to be smaller in migraineurs, the difference did not reach statistical significance (Table 3, Fig. 2).

Table 1  
Characteristics of migraineurs

Feature	Migraine ( $n = 19$ )
Sex	
Female	14
Male	5
Age, mean (SD) (years)	38.5 (17.6)
Type of headache	
Migraine with aura	6
Migraine without aura	13
Headache frequency (attacks/month)	
< 3	8
3	2
4	2
> 4	7
Duration of attacks (h)	
< 12	3
12–24	4
25–48	10
49–72	2

Table 2  
Wide-band SEPs

	Normal (n = 19)	MA (n = 6)	MO (n = 13)	MA + MO (n = 19)
<i>SEPs by right median nerve</i>				
N20 onset latency (ms)	14.97 ± 0.89	15.41 ± 1.40	14.50 ± 1.12	14.79 ± 1.25
N20 peak latency (ms)	18.86 ± 0.95	19.04 ± 1.43	18.51 ± 0.95	18.68 ± 1.11
P25 peak latency (ms)	23.99 ± 2.58	24.54 ± 3.22	24.59 ± 2.50	24.57 ± 2.65
N20 duration (N20 onset–N20 peak) (ms)	3.89 ± 0.81	3.63 ± 0.48	4.00 ± 0.69	3.89 ± 0.64
P25 duration (N20 peak–P25 peak) (ms)	5.13 ± 2.35	5.50 ± 2.02	6.08 ± 2.03	5.90 ± 1.99
N20 amplitude (μV)	2.07 ± 1.79	1.75 ± 1.34	2.59 ± 2.26	2.32 ± 2.02
P25 amplitude (μV)	5.19 ± 6.25	1.96 ± 0.87	2.02 ± 1.18	2.00 ± 1.07
N9 latency (ms)	9.41 ± 0.68	9.39 ± 0.29	8.86 ± 0.60	9.04 ± 0.57
N9 amplitude (μV)	3.49 ± 2.07	4.47 ± 2.32	5.64 ± 2.21	5.25 ± 2.24
<i>SEPs by left median nerve</i>				
N20 onset latency (ms)	15.23 ± 0.91	14.12 ± 0.76	14.66 ± 1.14	14.49 ± 1.04
N20 peak latency (ms)	18.79 ± 1.18	18.11 ± 0.90	18.37 ± 1.02	18.29 ± 0.97
P25 peak latency (ms)	24.3 ± 2.87	23.77 ± 1.82	24.70 ± 1.79	24.40 ± 1.80
N20 duration (N20 onset–N20 peak) (ms)	3.56 ± 0.98	3.98 ± 0.54	3.71 ± 0.66	3.80 ± 0.62
P25 duration (N20 peak–P25 peak) (ms)	5.51 ± 2.64	5.66 ± 1.33	6.33 ± 1.64	6.12 ± 1.55
N20 amplitude (μV)	2.59 ± 1.44	2.23 ± 0.68	2.25 ± 1.83	2.24 ± 1.54
P25 amplitude (μV)	4.17 ± 4.79	2.70 ± 1.55	1.80 ± 1.60	2.08 ± 1.60
N13 latency (ms)	12.97 ± 1.02	12.71 ± 0.36	12.05 ± 1.19	12.26 ± 1.04
N13 amplitude (μV)	1.76 ± 1.16	2.94 ± 0.76	2.58 ± 0.76	2.70 ± 0.76
N9 latency (ms)	9.36 ± 0.68	9.07 ± 0.42	8.80 ± 0.68	8.88 ± 0.61
N9 amplitude (μV)	4.92 ± 2.37	3.71 ± 0.79	4.74 ± 2.52	4.42 ± 2.15

Means ± SD.

### 3.3. RMS amplitude of HFOs

The mean value of RMS amplitude of HFOs was significantly lower in migraineurs than controls (0.098 vs. 0.063 from C3' electrode and 0.097 vs. 0.059 from C4' electrode) ( $P < 0.05$ ). The late part, as well as the early part, of HFOs showed a significant reduction in RMS amplitude in migraine patients (Table 3, Fig. 2).

### 3.4. Aura

Migraineurs were divided into two groups: those with (MA) and those without (MO) aura. There were 6 MA patients and 13 MO patients (Table 1). None of the parameters for SEP components or HFO components showed any significant difference between the two groups (Tables 2 and 3). Though the RMS amplitudes for HFOs

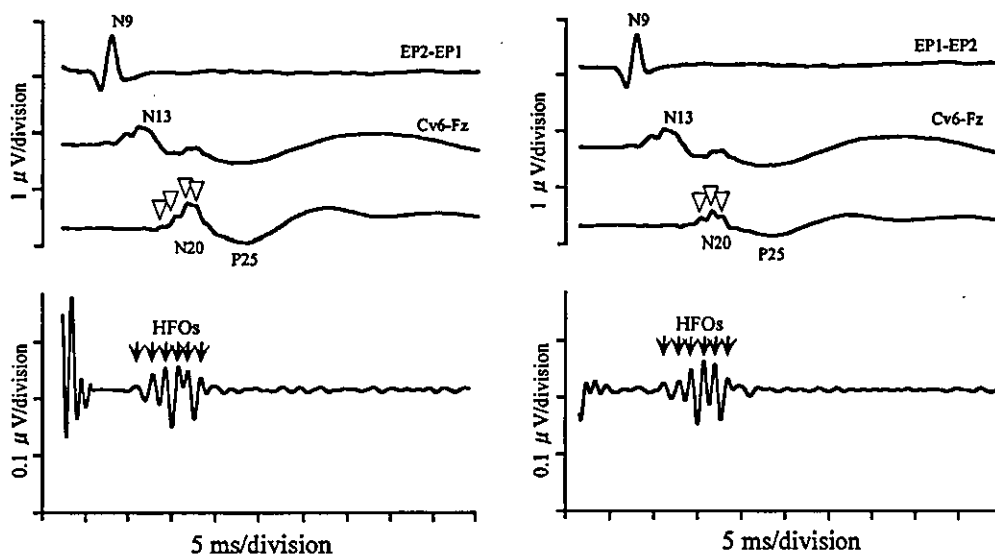


Fig. 1. Typical waveforms for SEPs and HFOs stimulated by right median nerves (left) and left median nerves (right). On the ascending slope of the cortical N20 component, small notches that correspond to HFO components are detected.

Table 3  
HFO parameters in normals and patients

	Normal (n = 19)	MA (n = 6)	MO (n = 13)	MA + MO (n = 19)
<i>HFOs by right median nerve</i>				
HF Nr of peaks	5.56 ± 1.76	4.83 ± 0.98	5.08 ± 1.32	5.00 ± 1.20
HF Nr of peaks (onset–N20 peak)	3.33 ± 1.28	2.50 ± 0.55	3.08 ± 1.26	2.89 ± 1.10
HF Nr of peaks (N20 peak–endpoint)	2.22 ± 1.26	2.33 ± 0.52	2.00 ± 1.35	2.11 ± 1.15
RMS of HF	0.098 ± 0.055	0.065 ± 0.008	0.062 ± 0.027	0.063 ± 0.023*
RMS of HF (onset–N20 peak)	0.106 ± 0.05	0.073 ± 0.021	0.054 ± 0.031*	0.060 ± 0.029*
RMS of HF (N20 peak–endpoint)	0.096 ± 0.05	0.064 ± 0.018	0.063 ± 0.027	0.063 ± 0.024*
<i>HFOs by left median nerve</i>				
HF Nr of peaks	5.06 ± 1.89	4.67 ± 0.82	4.54 ± 1.56	4.58 ± 1.35
HF Nr of peaks (onset–N20 peak)	2.41 ± 1.50	3.00 ± 1.26	3.00 ± 1.22	3.00 ± 1.20
HF Nr of peaks (N20 peak–endpoint)	2.65 ± 1.41	1.67 ± 0.82	1.54 ± 1.05	1.58 ± 0.96
RMS of HF	0.097 ± 0.057	0.074 ± 0.013	0.053 ± 0.027*	0.059 ± 0.025*
RMS of HF (onset–N20 peak)	0.100 ± 0.076	0.062 ± 0.019	0.059 ± 0.029*	0.060 ± 0.026*
RMS of HF (N20 peak–endpoint)	0.106 ± 0.049	0.073 ± 0.030	0.055 ± 0.037*	0.061 ± 0.035*

Means ± SD. \**P* < 0.05 vs. control.

tended to be small in MA compared with normal controls, the difference did not reach statistical difference (Table 3).

#### 4. Discussion

In this study, EEG HFOs in migraine patients were diminished in amplitude, but uncorrelated with aura.

Several lines of research concerning the high frequency oscillation superimposed mainly on the ascending slope of the N20 primary cortical responses of median SEPs have been followed. Reported generators for the HFOs are as follows: thalamus (Eisen et al., 1984), thalamocortical radiation (Gobbele et al., 1999; Yamada et al., 1988) and cortex (Curio et al., 1997; Hashimoto et al., 1996a, 1999; Sakuma and Hashimoto, 1999; Sakuma et al., 1999). However, the origin of HFOs remains controversial. Possible cell populations generating high frequency bursts have been proposed, such as pyramidal chattering cells, cortical fast-spiking inhibitory interneurons and some thalamocortical relay cells. HFOs vary morphologically during the sleep–wake cycle (Emerson et al., 1988; Hashimoto et al., 1996b; Yamada et al., 1988). They show a marked attenuation in amplitude and also a reduction in the number of peaks, while the N20m amplitude exhibited a moderate increment during sleep (Hashimoto et al., 1996b). Based on the reciprocal relationship between HFOs and N20m representing ensemble EPSPs of the pyramidal neurons in the 3b area, it has been postulated that the HFOs represent a localized activity of GABAergic inhibitory interneurons in layer 4 of area 3b (Hashimoto et al., 1996b). In animal studies, inhibitory interneurons of the primary sensory cortex receive a potent monosynaptic thalamic input (Swadlow, 1995). Using an intracellular recording method, inhibitory interneurons have been identified by a high-frequency (> 600 Hz) burst of 3 or

more spikes elicited by thalamic stimulation (Swadlow et al., 1998). These characteristics were seen in GABAergic fast-spiking non-pyramidal cells which show repetitive firing without adaptation. These animal data are consistent with human HFO data.

The attenuation of the N20 primary response of SEPs by simultaneous tactile stimulation of the hand (Kakigi et al., 1995) or by exploratory finger movements of the hand

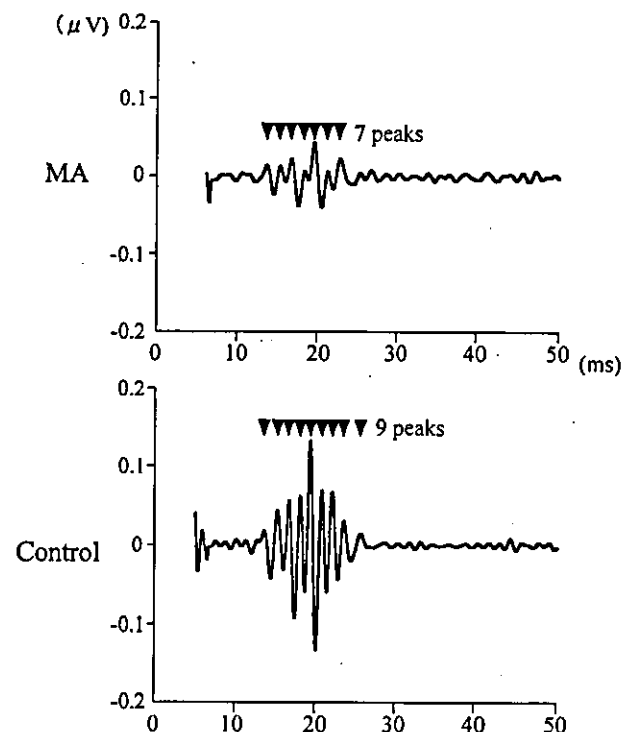


Fig. 2. HFOs obtained from a migraineur without aura (top) and a normal control (bottom). The number of HFO peaks is relatively smaller in the MO patient than in the normal control (7 vs. 9 peaks). The amplitude of HFOs in MO is attenuated compared with that in normal controls.

(Schnitzler et al., 1995) is known as 'gating'. By interfering with palm-brushing stimulation, the number of HFO peaks increases moderately, whereas N20m amplitude decreases dramatically (Hashimoto et al., 1999). Similarly, the HFO/N20m amplitude index was greater in a finger movement task (Tanosaki et al., 2002). Another study showed that HFOs were modulated neither in amplitude nor in latency by isometric motor interference, though the N20 and P25 component of SEPs was attenuated (Klostermann et al., 2001). The discrepancies between N20 and HFO amplitudes by interference are additional evidence supporting the inhibitory interneuron theory as an HFO generator (Hashimoto et al., 1999; Tanosaki et al., 2002). On the other hand, other studies have provided evidence that other cell populations contribute to generating HFOs. 'Chattering' pyramidal cells in layer III can discharge with intraburst frequencies as high as 800 Hz (Gray and McCormick, 1996). The probability of detecting chattering cells in cortical slices was enhanced by cholinergic agonists. Recently, it was shown that HFOs were significantly enhanced after administration of rivastigmine, an acetylcholinesterase inhibitor (Restuccia et al., 2003). It is known that GABAergic cells are also influenced by acetylcholine. Cholinergic or muscarinic agonists induce GABAergic postsynaptic currents. However, there are several GABAergic cell subtypes having different physiological functions. Fast-spiking GABAergic cells containing the calcium-binding protein parvalbumin, proposed as candidates for HFO generator cells, were not influenced by a cholinergic agonist (Kawaguchi, 1997). Consequently, Restuccia concluded that chattering pyramidal cells rather than GABAergic fast-spiking cells play a significant role in the generation of high-frequency spike bursts (Restuccia et al., 2003).

Studies with transcranial magnetic stimulation have provided important, but rather controversial, information about changes in excitability of cerebral cortex in migraine patients (Ambrosini et al., 2003). Several studies showed that the magnetophosphene threshold was lower in migraineurs than in controls (Aurora et al., 1998). This phenomenon can be interpreted as increased excitability of the visual cortex. One explanation for cortical dysfunction on the basis of reduced magnetophosphene threshold in migraineurs is that a loss of GABAergic interneurons may result from hypoxic stress after cortical spreading depression (Chronicle and Mulleners, 1994; Romijn et al., 1988; Sloper et al., 1980). This hypothesis is reinforced by a report of normalized abnormal phosphene threshold after administration of sodium valproate (Mulleners et al., 2002).

Serotonergic dysfunction is one of the important theories in migraine pathophysiology. Long standing studies of evidence-linking serotonin to migraine have led to the development of triptans, which are selective 5-HT<sub>1B/1D</sub> agonists. The triptans have profoundly improved the quality of life of patients with migraine. It is well known that there is an interaction between cholinergic and serotonergic

systems in the brain (Bianchi et al., 1990). Based on these findings, Nicolodi et al. (2002) used donepezil, a cholinesterase inhibitor, expecting an antinociceptive activity in migraine and found it to be effective. This basic and clinical evidence indirectly indicates that migraineurs may have a cholinergic dysfunction in connection with a serotonergic one.

Several studies have shown that HFOs are not homogeneous. Magnetoencephalographic studies have indicated that the current source of HFOs is located in area 3b of S-I and had tight somatotopical arrangement (Curio et al., 1997; Hari and Forss, 1999; Sakuma and Hashimoto, 1999; Sakuma et al., 1999). Recording by magnetoencephalography is limited, in that only the tangential dipole can be recorded. However, using multiple channel EEG recording, current sources, which are thought to be located on area I, having radial direction of HFOs about 22 ms in latency were successfully detected (Ozaki et al., 1998). The early part of the HFOs with the latency range of 13–18 ms distribute over the whole scalp with the same polarity, which probably reflects a subcortical origin (Restuccia et al., 2003). In this study, a change in HFO parameters was observed, not only in the late part of the HFO component, but also in the early part of the HFO component. It is possible to establish two hypotheses. First, that the same pathophysiological mechanism plays a role in the change of both subcortical and cortical HFOs in migraine. Second, that dysfunction of subcortical HFO generators causes a bottom-up regulation of cortically generated HFOs. An alternative interpretation of these results is that the method we used to separate the early and the late parts of the HFOs differed from other studies. By using multiple electrodes, the early and late part of HFOs could be distinguished with and without phase reversal (Ozaki et al., 1998; Restuccia et al., 2003). Since a single recording electrode for cortical response was used in this study, we separated the two parts with the latency of the N20 peak. This method may result in a misjudgment of the boundary between the early and late part of HFOs.

It remains to be determined if fast-spiking cells or chattering cells contribute to the generation of HFOs, and there is the possibility that both cell populations contribute equally. There is considerable support for the theory that both GABAergic and cholinergic dysfunction exist in the cortex of migraineurs. Prophylactic effects of sodium valproate are reported not only in MA patients, but also in MO patients (Jensen et al., 1994; Kaniecki, 1997). It is postulated that a dysfunction in the GABA system exists in both MO and MA patients and furthermore, that this dysfunction is long-lasting and remains in the interictal phase. Both GABAergic anticonvulsants (Leniger et al., 2000; Mathew et al., 2000) and a cholinesterase inhibitor (Nicolodi et al., 2002) have antimigraine efficacy. Interventions with these drugs may provide further understanding of the nature of HFO generation.

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# Parkin-positive autosomal recessive juvenile parkinsonism with $\alpha$ -synuclein-positive inclusions

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**Abstract—Objective:** To report an autopsy case of an autosomal recessive juvenile parkinsonism patient with a homozygous exon 3 deletion in the *parkin* gene and  $\alpha$ -synuclein-positive inclusions. **Methods:** The representative areas of the brain were embedded in paraffin, stained with hematoxylin-eosin, Klüver-Barrera, and Gallyas-Braak stainings. Immunohistochemically, some of the specimens were used for immunostaining with the antibodies to  $\alpha$ -synuclein, ubiquitin, and phosphorylated tau (AT8). Immunoreaction was visualized by the streptavidin-biotin-peroxidase complex method. **Results:** Histologically, the lesions of the brain were limited to the dopaminergic neuron system such as the substantia nigra (SN) and locus ceruleus. Melanin-containing neurons in the pars compacta of the SN were moderately to severely depleted, accompanied by gliosis. In the locus ceruleus, neurons were mildly decreased and extraneuronal melanin pigments were seen. Lewy bodies were not observed in the neuropils of the pars compacta of the SN or locus ceruleus. However, basophilic inclusion bodies were only occasionally observed in the neuropils of the pedunculopontine nucleus in the mesencephalic reticular formation. Immunohistochemistry with antibodies to  $\alpha$ -synuclein and ubiquitin showed  $\alpha$ -synuclein- and ubiquitin-positive inclusions in the neuropils of the pedunculopontine nucleus, which had a doughnut or round shape. **Conclusions:** A variety of *parkin* gene abnormalities may produce pathologic differences in the degree and distribution of neuronal degeneration, including the absence or presence of Lewy bodies. A relationship between *parkin*-induced parkinsonism and idiopathic Parkinson disease (PD) may exist.

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Mutations in the *parkin* gene are a major cause of autosomal recessive juvenile parkinsonism (ARJP) and isolated juvenile-onset Parkinson disease (PD).<sup>1,2</sup> ARJP, one of the most common familial forms of PD, is characterized by selective dopaminergic neuronal loss and the absence of Lewy bodies.<sup>3</sup> However, limited data are available on neuropathologic findings in ARJP patients with mutations in the *parkin* gene,<sup>4–8</sup> and histopathologic findings vary. We report an autopsy case of an ARJP patient with a homozygous exon 3 deletion in the *parkin* gene and  $\alpha$ -synuclein-positive inclusions, suggesting a close relationship between ARJP and idiopathic PD.

**Methods.** *Patient 1.* The clinical features and gene analysis of this patient have been reported.<sup>9</sup> She initially noticed gait disturbance at age 33 years. Several years later, resting tremor of both hands and feet developed. At age 41 she was diagnosed with PD, was treated with levodopa and trihexyphenidyl, and improved. At age 55 she came to our hospital because of deterioration of hypokinesia, gait impairment, and development of dyskinesias of the limbs and trunk. Levodopa was markedly efficacious. There were fluctuations of symptoms and amelioration after sleep. She was admitted because of slow progression of festinating and frozen gait, and levodopa-induced choreic dyskinesia of limbs and trunk. At the time of admission she was alert and nondemented and had no psychiatric manifestations. Neurologic examination showed moderate postural tremor and rigidity of limbs, and choreic dyskinesia of limbs and trunk. Dystonic posture with bilateral exten-

sion of big toes was observed. The deep tendon reflexes were normal in the upper extremities and abolished in the legs. The plantar responses were bilaterally flexor. Sensation was normal except for numbness in the bilateral calves. There was no autonomic dysfunction. SPECT, brain MRI, and EEG showed no abnormality. There was reduced voltage of sensory nerve action potential (SNAP) in the bilateral sural nerves and delayed N9 in short somatosensory evoked potential on nerve conduction examination, suggesting the presence of peripheral neuropathy. After discharge, she was followed as an outpatient but was readmitted because of acute renal failure due to dehydration and deterioration of hypokinesia. After admission, pneumonia and sepsis developed, followed by disseminated IV coagulation, bacterial shock, and nephrotic syndrome. The patient died of respiratory failure at age 70, with a clinical course of about 37 years. Autopsy was performed 11 hours after death.

*Patient 2.* The elderly sister of Patient 1 had a similar disease. She first noticed resting tremor in both hands at age 36, followed by gait disturbance. At age 43 she was diagnosed with PD, and she improved after levodopa and trihexyphenidyl treatment. At age 47 propulsion developed with difficulty of walking. At age 57 she was admitted to our hospital because of deterioration of choreic movement of the limbs and trunk. On neurologic examination, she was alert, fully oriented, and not demented, with no psychiatric manifestations. She had monotonous voice and difficulty swallowing. Manual muscle test showed slight weakness in all limbs and was graded 4/5. She showed resting and postural tremor (about 3 Hz), rigidity of limbs, and choreic movement of limbs and trunk. The deep tendon reflexes were normal in the upper extremities and reduced in the lower extremities. The plantar responses were bilaterally flexor. Sensation was normal except for numbness in the bilateral calves. Standing and walking was impossible because of postural instability. No SNAP was obtained.

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at the sural nerve on nerve conduction examination. There was no abnormality on EEG, SPECT, or brain CT. She showed good response to levodopa and dopamine agonist, and choreic movement was improved by tiapride. There were fluctuations of symptoms and amelioration after sleep. She was followed as an outpatient but died suddenly of unknown causes at age 63. Autopsy was not performed.

**Pathology.** The left side of the brain of Patient 1 was dissected and stored at  $-70^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The right side of the brain was fixed in neutral buffered formalin, and the representative areas were embedded in paraffin, stained with hematoxylin-eosin, Klüver-Barrera, and Gallyas-Braak stainings. Immunohistochemically, some of the specimens were used for immunostaining with the antibodies to  $\alpha$ -synuclein (LB509, 1:2000; a gift from Dr. T. Iwatsubo), ubiquitin (polyclonal, rabbit, 1:100; Dako, Glostrup, Denmark), and phosphorylated tau (AT8) (monoclonal, mouse, 1:1000; Innogenetics, Ghent, Belgium). Immunoreaction was visualized by the streptavidin-biotin-peroxidase complex method. The final chromogen was 3, 3'-diaminobenzidine tetrahydrochloride.

**Gene analysis.** Gene analysis of the *parkin* gene was also performed in Patient 1. Genomic DNA was extracted from peripheral leukocytes. The 12 exons, including the flanking intronic sequences, were amplified by individually using the same primer pairs as described previously.<sup>10</sup> The PCR products were run through a 2% agarose gel in 1xTAE buffer (1xTAE = 0.04 M tris-acetate, 0.001 M ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid, pH 8.0) to determine the presence of the exonic deletions.

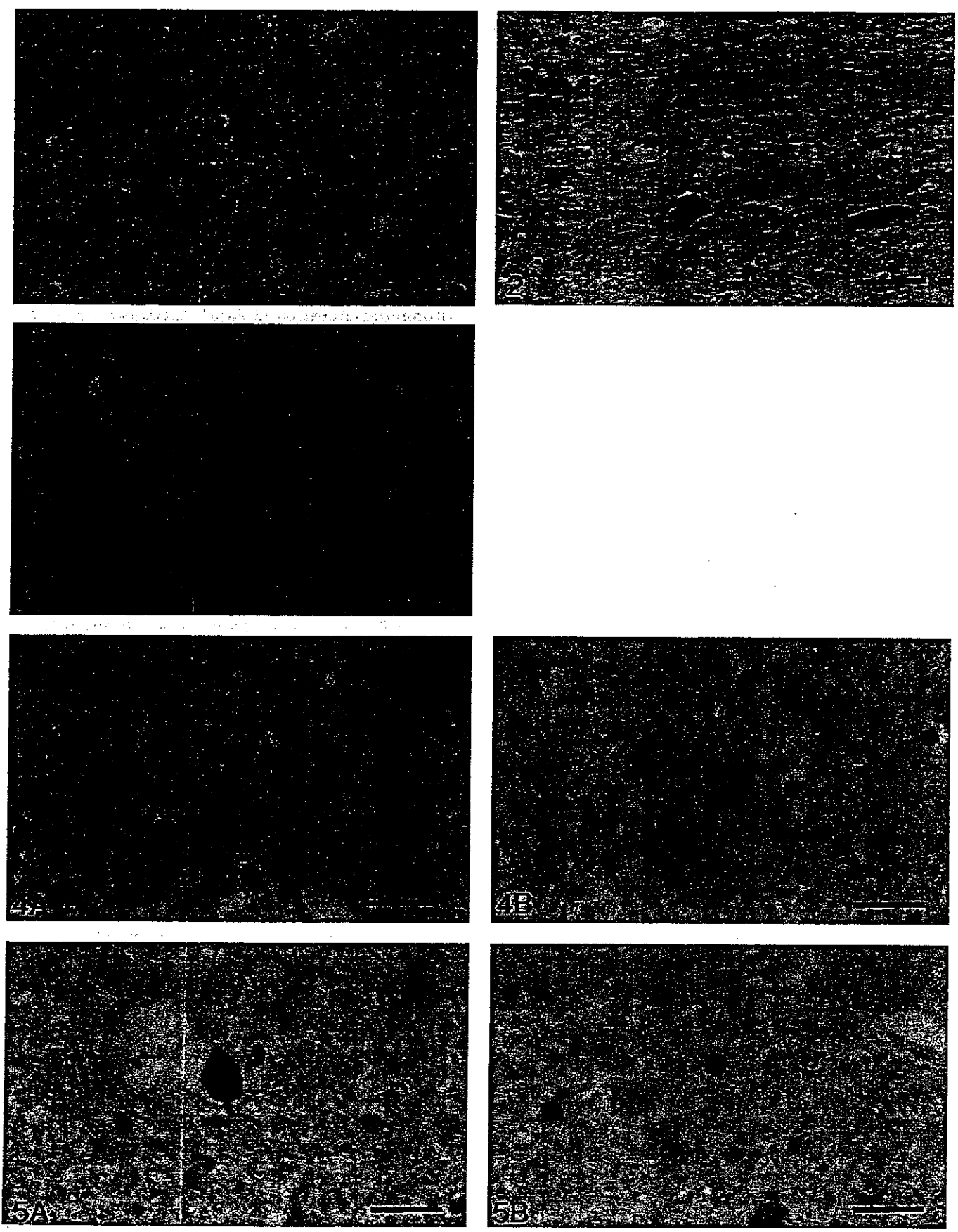
**Results. Pathologic findings.** The general pathologic findings were congestive edema of both lungs, bronchopneumonia with pleural effusion, and aspiration of bloody material of the left lung resulting in asphyxia. The brain weighed 1,040 g. There were no abnormalities in the external appearance of the cerebrum, cerebellum, or brain stem. The substantia nigra (SN) showed marked depigmentation. Histologically, the lesions of the brain were relatively limited to the SN and locus ceruleus. Melanin-containing neurons in the pars compacta of the SN were moderately to severely depleted, particularly in the ventrolateral group and the medial part, accompanied by gliosis (figure 1). Some dopaminergic neurons still existed in the intermediate part of the SN. Most of the remaining nigral neurons contained melanin pigments but were atrophic, and free melanin was observed (figure 2). The pars reticulata of the SN was spared. In the locus ceruleus, neurons were mildly decreased and extraneuronal melanin pigments were seen. Lewy bodies were not observed in the SN or locus ceruleus. Inclusion bodies resembling Lewy bodies but more basophilic were occasionally observed in the neuropils of the pedunculopontine nucleus in the mesencephalic reticular formation (figure 3). No neurofibrillary tangles, neuritic plaques, or abnormal structures stained with Gallyas-Braak staining were demonstrated. There were no abnormalities in the cerebral cortex, basal ganglia, thalamus, cerebellum, or other brain stem nuclei. Immunohistochemically,  $\alpha$ -synuclein-positive (figure 4) and ubiquitin-positive (figure 5) inclusions were occasionally found in the neuropils of pedunculopontine nucleus. These inclusion bodies had a doughnut or round shape. No  $\alpha$ -synuclein- and ubiquitin-positive inclusions were seen in other regions of the brain such as the SN, locus ceruleus, or subthalamic nucleus. No immunoreactivity of phosphorylated tau was found in any region of the brain.

**Genetic findings.** A homozygous exon 3 deletion in the *parkin* gene was found in Patient 1.

**Discussion.** So far, neuropathologic examination has been reported separately in five ARJP patients

with mutations in *parkin*.<sup>4-8</sup> An absence of Lewy bodies and a severe generalized loss of pigmented neurons in the SN were common in four of the five ARJP patients.<sup>4-8</sup> However, the discrepancies include the following: one of four brains (the specific location of *parkin* mutation is not described) showed neurofibrillary tangles and argyrophilic astrocytes in the cerebral cortex and brain stem nuclei<sup>4</sup>; the second brain, with a homozygous exon 4 deletion in the *parkin* gene, showed involvement of the SN pars reticulata<sup>5</sup>; the third one (probably with a compound heterozygous combination of two mutations—the amino acid change Lys211Asn in exon 6 and an exon 3 deletion)—showed neuronal loss in parts of the spinocerebellar system together with abnormal tau protein deposition<sup>6</sup>; and the fourth, with a single heterozygous C212Y mutation (heterozygous carrier of C212Y mutation of the *parkin* gene), showed tau aggregates consistent with clinical and pathologic features of progressive supranuclear palsy.<sup>7</sup> Autopsy reports confirmed the absence of Lewy bodies in *parkin*-related disease cases and support the hypothesis that parkinsonism due to *parkin* gene mutations and idiopathic PD result from distinct etiologic causes. By contrast, the remaining brain, with an exon 7 R275W substitution in addition to a novel 40 bp exon 3 deletion, showed Lewy bodies not only in the SN and locus ceruleus but also in the nucleus basalis of Meynert and the amygdalo-hippocampal region, first indicating that compound heterozygous *parkin* mutations may lead to early-onset PD with Lewy body pathology.<sup>8</sup> The brain of the present patient showed a homozygous exon 3 deletion in the *parkin* gene. We confirmed the severe loss of dopaminergic neurons of the SN, the presence of inclusion bodies resembling Lewy bodies, and  $\alpha$ -synuclein-positive and ubiquitin-positive inclusions in the neuropils of the pedunculopontine nucleus in the mesencephalic reticular formation. However, the inclusion bodies were somewhat basophilic, and therefore differed from Lewy bodies, which show an eosinophilic tint. The reason for the absence of Lewy bodies in the SN commonly involved in PD is unclear, but may reflect the severe loss of melanin-bearing dopaminergic neurons. Mutation in the gene encoding *parkin* in our patient differs from that of a reported ARJP patient with Lewy bodies,<sup>8</sup> suggesting variability between mutations in terms of *parkin* and neuropathologic findings. Thus, parkin disease is a distinct genetic entity whose clinical and pathologic features overlap somewhat with those of idiopathic PD.<sup>11</sup> The diversity of clinical and histopathologic findings may represent pathologic heterogeneity among parkinsonism associated with *parkin* gene mutations.

Parkin is a protein of unknown function, but sequence homology to ubiquitin in its N terminus suggests that parkin has E3 ubiquitin ligase and may function in the ubiquitin protein degradation pathway.<sup>12</sup> In view of the presence of ubiquitin epitopes in Lewy bodies, the ligase activity of parkin, and the



*Figure legends appear on page 681.*

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## Slow component of axonal transport is impaired in the proximal axon of transgenic mice with a G93A mutant SOD1 gene

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**Abstract** The purpose of this study was to determine whether slow axonal transport of neurofilaments (NFs) is impaired in the spinal cord of G93A Cu/Zn superoxide dismutase (SOD1) mutant transgenic mice expressing a relatively low mutant protein (gene copy 10) and, if so, how the impairment occurs in this animal model. Transgenic mice were killed at the ages of 24, 28 and 32 weeks, and the cervical and lumbar spinal cords were examined under an electron microscope. Age-matched non-transgenic wild-type mice served as controls. At 24 weeks (early presymptomatic stage), anterior horn cells were well preserved. The earliest morphological changes were mild vacuolar changes in the neuronal processes, particularly in proximal axons. At 28 weeks (late presymptomatic stage), mild neuronal loss of anterior horn neurons was observed. Vacuolar changes were more prominent in the proximal axons, including swollen axons (spheroids) and neuropils of the anterior horns. Vacuoles in the axons were frequently large enough to occupy almost the entire axonal caliber. The anterior roots were degenerative, showing vacuolar changes and myelin ovoids. Lewy body-like inclusions (LIs) consisting of filaments thicker than NFs (about 1.5 times larger in diameter) were frequently demonstrated in the neuronal processes including swollen axons (spheroids) and occasionally in the somata. At 32 weeks (symptomatic stage), the anterior horns showed a moderate to severe neuronal loss accompanied by prominent astrogliosis. Cord-like swollen axons consisting of accumulated

NFs and many neurofilamentous accumulations were frequently observed in the anterior horn. Vacuolar changes were less prominent or disappeared in the neuropils of the anterior horns and the anterior roots, whereas LIs were frequently demonstrated within the neuronal processes including the cord-like swollen axons. In the anterior roots, degenerative changes such as marked fiber loss and frequent myelin ovoids were remarkable. No accumulation of NFs or mitochondrial vacuolation was detected in somata or proximal dendrites at any stage. These findings suggest that the slow component of axonal transport in the proximal axons is impaired at an early stage in this transgenic mouse model, and that the impairment is probably caused by a mechanical impediment of NFs, or by the accumulation of NFs in the proximal axon, as a result of the obstruction of the axonal flow that initially occurs by vacuolar changes, and is later exacerbated by accumulation of LIs.

**Keywords** Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis · SOD1 mutant · Neurofilament · Axonal transport · Vacuolation

### Introduction

Accumulations of neurofilaments (NFs) in the cell bodies and proximal axons of motor neurons are a common feature of sporadic amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) [8], familial ALS [9, 15], and transgenic (Tg) mice expressing the Cu/Zn superoxide dismutase (SOD1) mutation [10]. The aberrant accumulation of NF proteins, which has been implicated in the development of motor neuron disease (MND), may be an indication of abnormal transport of these large proteins [10]. Moreover, transgenes encoding mutant NF subunits could directly cause selective degeneration and death of motor neurons and the ensuing axonal disorganization [12]. Previous findings suggest that damage to NFs might be directly involved in ALS pathogenesis. However, how these accumulations of NFs are formed and how they contribute to the disease remain unknown. Using electron microscopy, we carried out a

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prospective longitudinal pathological study on the spinal cords of Tg mice of a relatively low Tg copy number with a G93A mutant SOD1 gene that were generated in our own laboratories, covering the presymptomatic to symptomatic stages, to determine whether the slow component of axonal transport is impaired in the proximal axons, and, if so, how the impairment occurs.

## Materials and methods

### Experimental animals and clinical assessment

Tg mice expressing the G93A mutant human SOD1 [7] were originally obtained from the Jackson Laboratory [B6SJL-TgN (SOD1-G93A) 1 Gur<sup>dl</sup>, Bar Harbor, Me., USA] and backcrossed to a C57BL/6 background strain by mating hemizygote males with inbred C57BL/6 female mice (C57BL/6CrSlc, Nihon SLC, Shizuoka, Japan) to produce Tg and non-Tg littermates. Backcrossing them onto the black 6 background entirely eliminated the SJL (dysferlin gene-associated FSH dystrophy) background from the colony used for these studies. The Tg progeny was identified by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification of tail DNA with specific primers for exon 4 [14]. These G93A SOD1 mutant mice expressed a relatively low mutant protein (gene copy 10).

At around 32 weeks of age, the G93A Tg mice developed progressive muscle weakness and spasticity in one or more limbs, beginning with a posterior limb. After 1–2 weeks, they could not feed themselves due to severe paralysis expressed by the hyperextension of their hind limbs. The G93A Tg and non-Tg mice were examined simultaneously. Throughout the present study, the mice were treated in accordance with the Helsinki declaration and the guiding principles in the care and use of animals.

### Histopathological analysis

Tg mice were divided into three groups: early presymptomatic Tg (aged 24 weeks,  $n=2$ ), late presymptomatic Tg (aged 28 weeks,  $n=2$ ), and symptomatic Tg (aged 32 weeks,  $n=2$ ). Age-matched non-Tg mice served as controls in each group ( $n=7$ ). All mice were deeply anesthetized with ether and perfused intracardially with heparinized saline (pH 7.4), followed by perfusion with ice-cold 4% paraformaldehyde (Katayama Chemical, Osaka, Japan) in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 7.4). The spinal cords were removed rapidly and post-fixed by immersion in the same fixative (5 days, 4°C). Cross-sections of the spinal cord were embedded in paraffin, sectioned (4  $\mu$ m), and stained with hematoxylin and eosin (HE), and with cresyl violet.

### Immunohistochemistry

Sections (6  $\mu$ m thick) of the paraffin-embedded spinal cords were deparaffinized, quenched with 3% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, treated with nonimmune serum as the blocking reagent, and incubated overnight at 4°C with a mouse monoclonal antibody to rat phosphorylated neurofilament (SMI-31, Sternberger Monoclonals, 1:1,000). Antibody binding was visualized by the biotin-streptavidin peroxidase complex method. The final chromogen was 3,3'-diaminobenzidine tetrahydrochloride.

### Ultrastructural study

Six Tg and six non-Tg wild-type mice were killed at the ages of 24, 28, and 32 weeks ( $n=2$  for each group, respectively). All mice were deeply anesthetized with ether and perfused intracardially with heparinized saline (pH 7.4) followed by perfusion with ice-cold 4% paraformaldehyde (Katayama Chemical, Osaka, Japan) and 0.2% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 7.4). The

spinal cords were rapidly removed and post-fixed by immersion in the same fixative (5 days, 4°C). Tissues were incubated in 2% osmium tetroxide in 0.1 M cacodylate for 2 h, washed, dehydrated, and embedded in epoxy resin (Epon). Serial semithin sections (1  $\mu$ m) of the whole transversed spinal cords stained with toluidine blue were examined by light microscopy. Appropriate portions were cut into ultrathin sections and subsequently stained with lead citrate and uranyl acetate for electron microscopic study.

## Results

### Light microscopic findings

#### Tg mice

At the age of 24 weeks (early presymptomatic stage), HE and Klüver-Barrera stainings revealed no pathological change. However, in Epon-embedded plastic sections stained with toluidine blue, small vacuolar changes were observed in the neuropils of the ventral portion of the anterior horn, in the axons of the anterior horn, around the central canal, and in the axons of the anterior root exit zone of the anterior column in one of the two mice examined. White matter showed no abnormality in either of these mice.

At the age of 28 weeks (late presymptomatic stage), slight neuronal loss of anterior horn cells was observed at the cervical and lumbar levels. Prominent vacuolar changes were recognized in the same regions showing changes in the early presymptomatic stage. Proximal swollen axons with prominent vacuolar changes shaped like a sausage or a string of beads were frequently found in a longitudinal section (Fig. 1). The anterior roots were degenerative showing vacuolar changes and myelin ovoids, whereas the posterior roots showed no abnormality. Lewy body-like inclusions (LIs) were frequently seen in the neuronal processes including cord-like swollen axons (Fig. 2). Some remaining anterior horn neurons also contained LIs, although they were only occasionally found in the posterior horn (Rexed's lamina V).



Fig. 1 Proximal swollen axons with prominent vacuolar changes assuming the shape of a sausage or a string of beads in a longitudinal section (late presymptomatic stage). Plastic section, toluidine blue staining. Original magnification  $\times 714$



Fig. 2 A Lewy body-like inclusion with a central core is observed in the neuronal process in the neuropils of the anterior horn (late presymptomatic stage). Plastic section, toluidine blue staining. Original magnification  $\times 714$

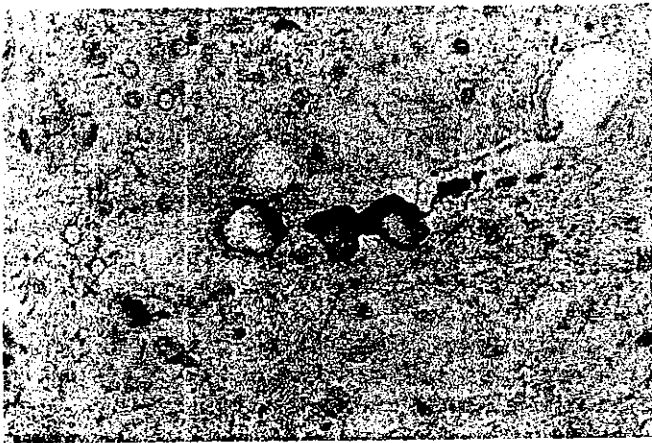


Fig. 3 Proximal swollen axon with prominent vacuolar change shaped like a string of beads is immunostained for phosphorylated NF (SMI-31) (NF neurofilament). Original magnification  $\times 714$

At the age of 32 weeks (symptomatic stage), the anterior horns showed moderate to severe neuronal loss of anterior horn cells at all levels of the spinal cord. Most remaining anterior horn neurons showed types of degeneration such as central chromatolysis. Vacuolar changes were less prominent or had disappeared, although some persisted in the anterior root exit zone of the anterior column. On the other hand, LIs were frequently observed within the neuronal processes in the anterior horns, including the cord-like swollen axons. Proximal axonal swellings (spheroids) were occasionally found in the neuropils of anterior horns. Myelin ovoid formation was prominent in the white matter of the anterior and lateral columns, especially at the outer zones, and in that of the posterior column adjacent to posterior horns. Anterior roots showed marked degenerative changes such as marked fiber loss and myelin ovoids. Myelin ovoids were also found in the posterior roots, though to a lesser extent.

Immunohistochemically, spheroids or proximal swollen axons with prominent vacuolar changes were positively immunostained for phosphorylated neurofilament (SMI-31) (Fig. 3).

#### *Non-Tg littermates*

No vacuolar changes, LIs or swollen axons immunostained for phosphorylated NF were detected in the spinal cord at any age.

#### Ultrastructural findings

##### *Tg mice*

At 24 weeks (early presymptomatic stage), mitochondrial swelling and vacuolation of the inner compartment were observed predominantly in the proximal axons in the anterior root exit zone and anterior root, and in the neuropils of the ventral portion of the anterior horn. Most of these vacuoles were relatively small. In contrast, almost all of the mitochondria in the small myelinated axons in these regions had a normal appearance. Small filamentous aggregates were only occasionally observed in the neuronal processes including the axons in the anterior horns.

At 28 weeks (late presymptomatic stage), mitochondria were frequently swollen and vacuolated in the large myelinated axons of the same regions showing changes in the early presymptomatic stage. Vacuolar changes of various stages, from small focal vacuolar formation in the inner compartment to large vacuoles, were observed in these axons. The vacuoles tended to be larger than those of the early presymptomatic stage. The intermembrane space between the inner and outer membranes was also vacuolated, frequently with large vacuoles. In mitochondria with advanced vacuolation, the vacuolar space was filled with a granular or amorphous substance. Usually, giant vacuoles were accompanied by axonal swellings, and occupied almost the entire axonal caliber, thus blocking the axonal transport with accumulation of mitochondria and misdirected NFs (Fig. 4): accumulated NFs were seen in close proximity to vacuoles or in the axon between the large vacuoles in the longitudinal section of axons. Spheroids consisting of interwoven NFs were frequently observed in the anterior horn and the anterior column (Fig. 5). Filamentous aggregates were frequent, predominantly in the neuronal processes of the anterior horns including the proximal axons (Fig. 6), and, to a lesser extent, in the somata and the dendrites of the anterior horn neurons. The aggregates consisted basically of interwoven intermediate filaments thicker than NF (about 1.5 times larger in diameter). They were composed of filaments that were loosely or compactly packed in the advanced phase, and frequently contained electron-dense granular or amorphous cores in the center. Cord-like swollen axons with or without a myelin sheath consisted of accumulated NFs running parallel to the longitudinal axis, and frequently showed a

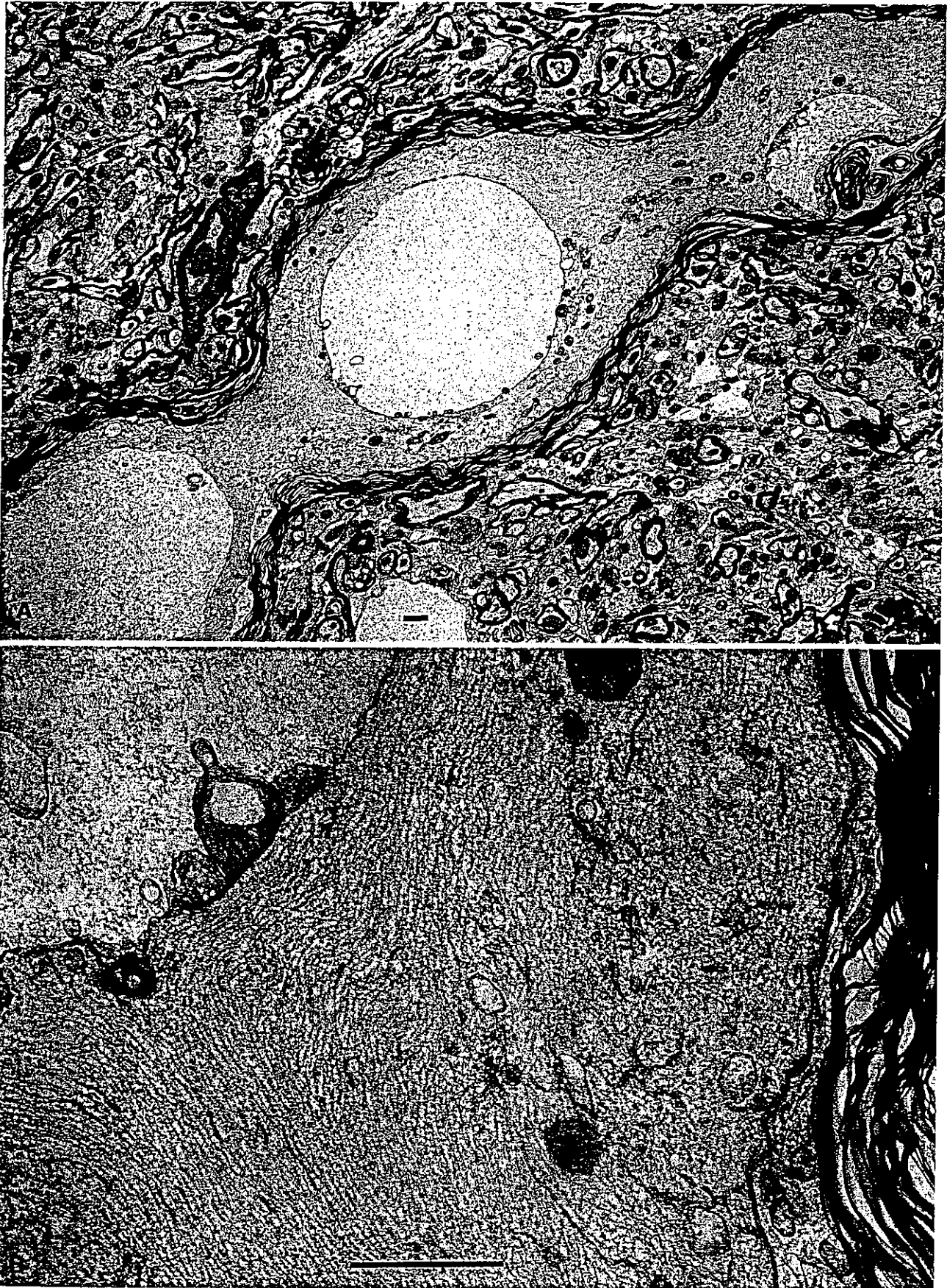
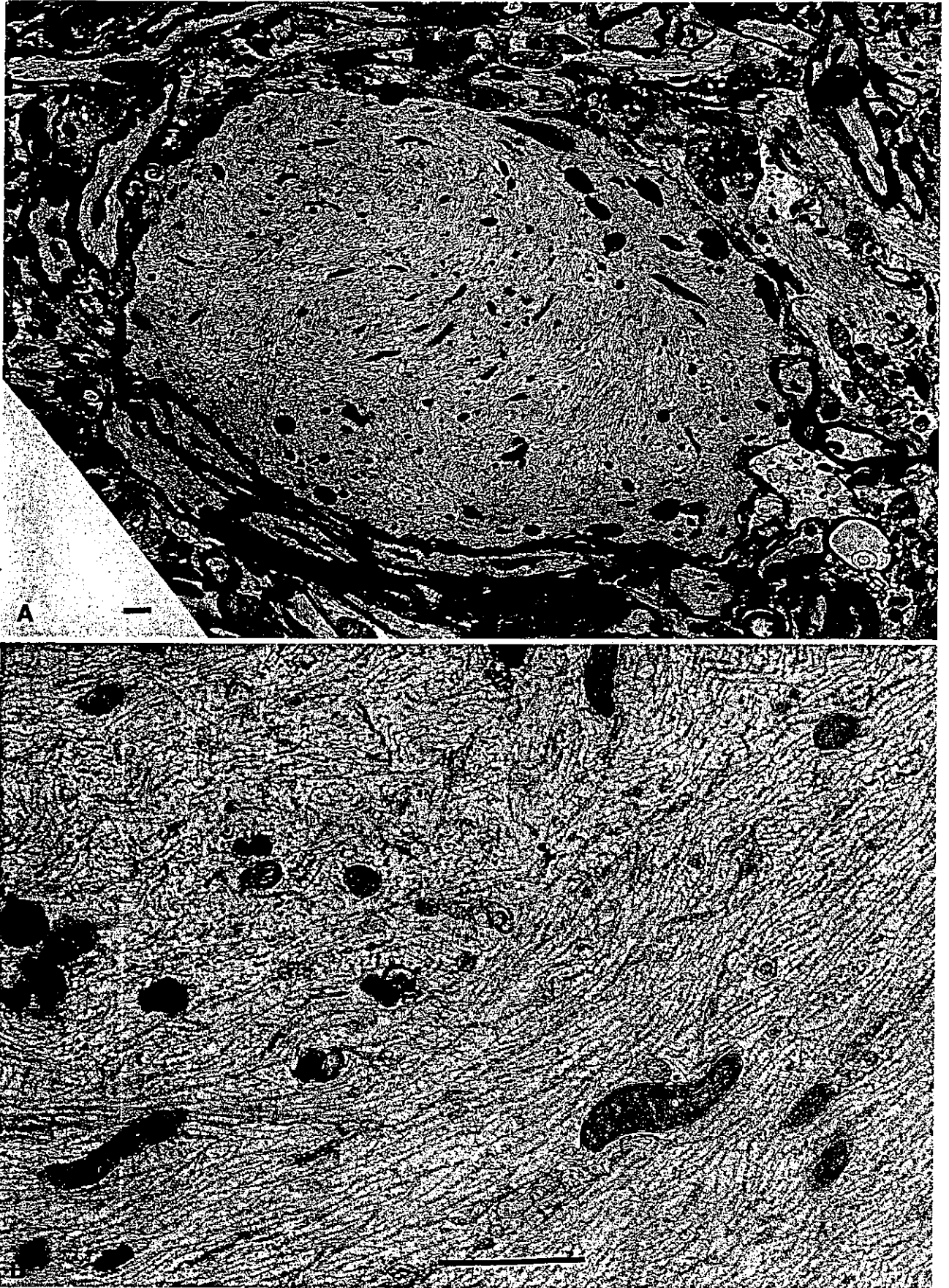


Fig. 4 A Giant vacuoles accompanied by axonal swelling occupy almost the entire axonal caliber. Accumulation of mitochondria attached to the inner membrane of the vacuole is seen (late presymp-

tomatic stage). B Higher magnification of A. Accumulation of misdirected NFs is exhibited in close proximity to vacuoles or between large vacuoles. Bar 1  $\mu\text{m}$



**Fig. 5** A A spheroid is observed in the anterior column (late presymptomatic stage). B Higher magnification of A. The spheroid is composed mainly of interwoven NFs with non-vacuolated round or sausage-shaped mitochondria. Bar 1  $\mu$ m





**Fig. 6** A filamentous aggregate is exhibited in the proximal axon. The aggregate consists basically of interwoven intermediate filaments slightly thicker than NFs (about 1.5 times larger in diameter) (late presymptomatic stage). *Bar* 1  $\mu$ m

focal or massive misdirected array of NFs. They frequently contained vacuoles of various sizes, filamentous aggregates, LIs, and abundant non-vacuolated mitochondria.

At 32 weeks (symptomatic stage), mitochondrial vacuolation seen in the late presymptomatic stage persisted, although to a lesser extent. Accumulation of vacuolated or non-vacuolated mitochondria was frequently observed in accumulated NFs running parallel to the longitudinal section (Fig. 7). Mitochondria in axons were almost always round in shape, in contrast to the sausage-shaped, spindle-like, or slender rodlets seen in the controls. Many neurofilamentous accumulations of various sizes were scattered in the neuropils of the anterior horns (Fig. 8). Accumulation of filamentous aggregates tended to become much larger and frequently contained electron-dense cores in the center. On the other hand, mitochondrial vacuolation or abnormal accumulation of NFs was not observed in somata or proximal dendrites of anterior horn cells at any stage.

#### *Non-Tg littermates*

Occasionally vacuolar changes of mitochondria were seen in the axons of anterior horn neurons, but the vacuoles were almost always smaller in size and less common than

those observed in the Tg mice. No LIs or cord-like axonal swellings were observed in the spinal cord at any age.

#### **Discussion**

The G93A Tg mice used in this study were re-derived from the original line generated by Gurney et al. [7]. Mice expressing high copy numbers of human SOD1 carrying the G93A mutation (G1H/+ and G1L/+ lines) developed a disease with a relatively short course and with a pathology mainly characterized by severe vacuolar changes in the anterior horn neurons and their processes, LIs and swollen axons [3]. On the other hand, another line of G93A Tg mice with a low transgene copy number did not develop MND until 400 days of age and showed almost no vacuoles, although they had many more LIs in the motor neurons [5]. Thus, increasing levels of the mutated gene correlates with an earlier onset of MND, more abundant vacuoles, and less prominent LIs [4, 5, 16]. The expression level of the mutant transgene in our re-derived G93A mice (gene copy 10) is lower than that in the original G93A line, and the onset of MND was delayed by about 20 weeks compared to the time of onset in the original G93A line. Thus, from the clinical, pathological, and genetic aspects, the G93A Tg mice used in this study are unique and considered to be intermediate, between G93A Tg mice of a high transgene copy number and those of a low transgene copy number. The earliest change in this animal model is the appearance of mitochondrial vacuoles, subsequently

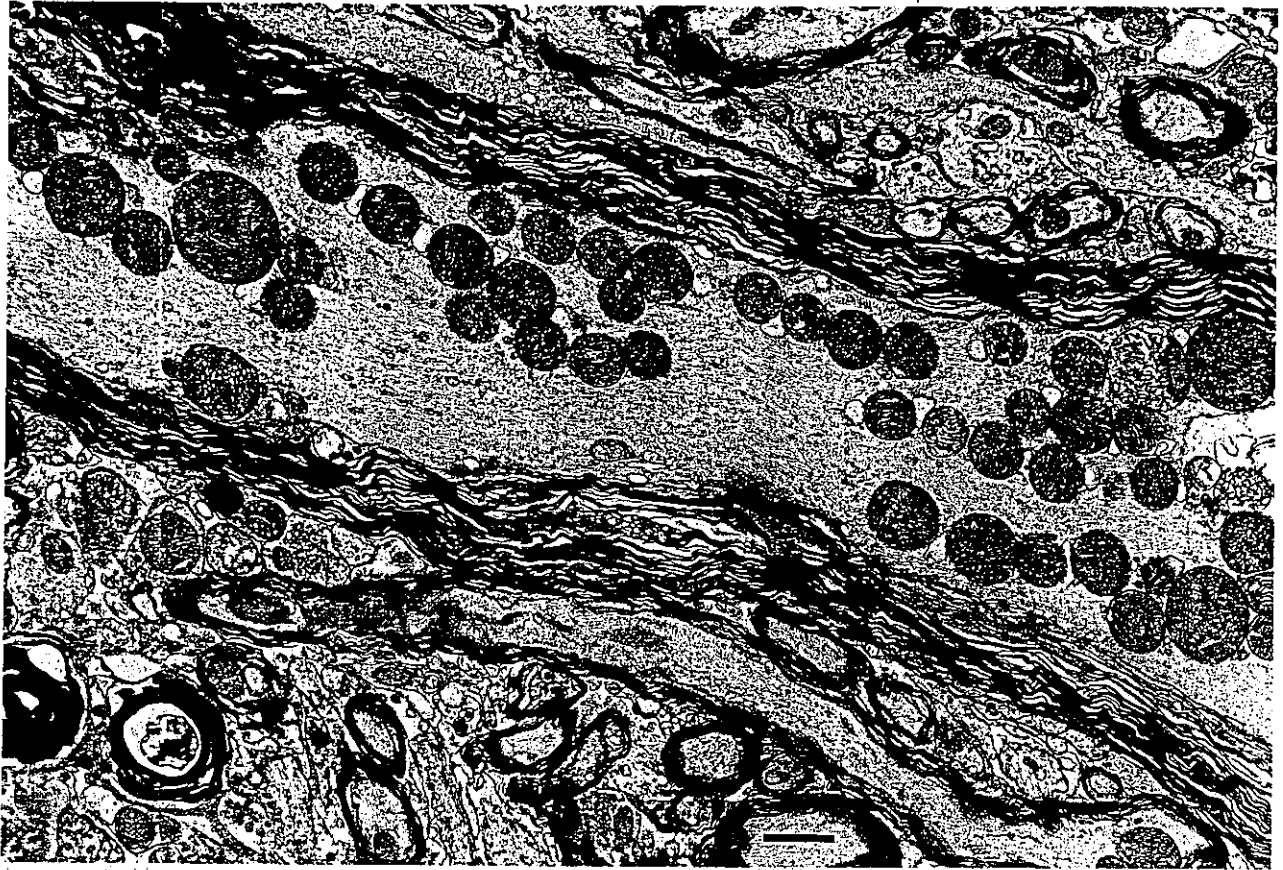


Fig. 7 An accumulation of non-vacuolated mitochondria is observed in accumulated NFs running parallel to the longitudinal axis (symptomatic stage). Mitochondria in axons are almost always round in shape in contrast to the sausage-shaped or slender rodlets observed in the controls. Bar 1  $\mu\text{m}$

followed by LIs and, later, accumulation of NFs. All these changes occurred already at the presymptomatic stage, predominantly in the neuronal processes, particularly in the proximal axons of the anterior horn cells; the somata of anterior horn neurons did not show mitochondrial vacuolation or accumulation of NFs at any stage, in contrast with previous reports of G93A Tg mice that showed vacuolation or accumulation of intermediate filaments in the somata [3, 4, 5]. These findings show that overproduction of NFs in the somata could not have led to the increase of NFs in the proximal axon. Thus, this animal model with a relatively low gene copy is fairly suitable for analyzing the pathomechanisms of impairment of slow axonal transport at the level of proximal axons.

Tg mice ( $\text{SOD}^{\text{G37R}}$ ,  $\text{SOD}^{\text{G85R}}$ ,  $\text{SOD}^{\text{G93A}}$ ) showing increased expression of wild-type NF subunits have been reported to develop decreased rates of slow axonal transport and prominent neurofilamentous accumulation near the end stage of disease [1, 3, 4, 13, 16, 18, 20, 21]. In Tg mice expressing the human  $\text{SOD1}^{\text{G37R}}$  and  $\text{SOD1}^{\text{G85R}}$  mutants, transport of NFs is markedly reduced before clinical disease onset or detectable pathology, and reduced transport of selective cargoes of slow transport, especially tubulin, arises months before neurodegeneration, demon-

strating that changes in slow axonal transport are an early event in the toxicity mediated by mutant SOD1 mutants [18]. Moreover, end-stage mice expressing the  $\text{SOD1}^{\text{G93A}}$  mutation also demonstrate slowed axonal transport [21], although how early such changes occur has not been investigated. On the other hand, with regard to fast axonal transport, a reduced selective component of orthograde fast axonal transport in ventral root axons with the onset of motor weakness [21] and deficits in fast anterograde axonal transport in the peripheral nerves prior to disease onset [17] have been demonstrated in G93A Tg mice. Moreover, in G86R mutant mice, early up-regulation of a fast axonal transport component is seen in spinal cord motor neurons before the onset of disease [6]. However, in Tg mice expressing the human  $\text{SOD1}^{\text{G37R}}$  and  $\text{SOD1}^{\text{G85R}}$  mutants, no changes are detected in fast axonal transport [18].

In the present study, accumulations of NFs were observed in proximal axons but not in the cell bodies or proximal dendrites, and they became prominent with the progression of disease. This suggests that the impairment of slow axonal transport of NFs originates in the proximal axon before clinical onset, and that the progression of disease may be associated with impairment of axonal transport. The presence of abnormal NF aggregates in mice expressing mutant SOD1 raises the possibility that NFs may act as toxic intermediates in the disease. Vacuoles and LIs in the proximal axons, both of which are caused by SOD1 mutation, may physically block the slow axonal transport of NFs, secondarily leading to the accumulation of NFs in the proximal axons, then to disturbance of the transport of



**Fig. 8** Small accumulations of NFs are scattered in the neuropils of the anterior horn (symptomatic stage). Bar 1  $\mu$ m

vital organelles necessary to maintain the viability of neurons, and finally to axonal degeneration. Moreover, round swollen mitochondria and accumulations of round mitochondria in the proximal axon suggests that the fast component of axonal transport is also impaired in this region. Mitochondrial damage due to mutant SOD1 may interfere with oxidative phosphorylation and cause an energy shortage for the NF motor proteins via decreased ATP production. This could result in the failure of axonal transport, thereby causing accumulation of NFs and formation of large NF swellings in proximal axons.

Double Tg mice expressing human NF-H and SOD<sup>G37R</sup> proteins show that overexpression of NF-H, which raises perikaryal NF levels and lowers axonal levels, conferred remarkable protection against SOD1-mediated toxicity and extended the longevity of mutant SOD1 mice by 65% [2]. In the SOD1 mutant (G85R) with NF-L deletion, levels of the two remaining NF subunits, NF-M and NF-H, are markedly reduced in axons but are elevated in motor neuron cell bodies, and complete elimination of NFs, through disruption of the NF-L gene, delays onset of SOD1-mediated disease and extends life span by approximately 6 weeks (i.e., a ~15% extension of life span), showing that NFs are one determinant of the selectivity of motor neuron toxicity mediated by the SOD1 mutant [19]. Tg mice express-

ing SOD1 mutant G93A with overexpression of the mouse NF-H and NF-L subunit developed ALS later and survived longer than the G93A mice with a wild-type background (15% extension of life span) [11]. Whether the slowing of disease is a consequence of the depletion of NF in motor axons or of the accumulation of neurofilamentous proteins in the cell bodies of motor neurons remains to be shown. In this context, the accumulation of NFs in the proximal axons, without accumulation of NFs in the somata of anterior horn cells found in the present study, may be consistent with the selective motor neuron degeneration mediated by mutant SOD1.

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SHORT COMMUNICATION: POSTER

# Migraine Patients Prefer Zolmitriptan Orally Disintegrating Tablets (ODT) to Eletriptan Oral Tablets\*

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Key words: Eletriptan – Japan – Patient preference – Zolmitriptan

## SUMMARY

**Background:** Patient preference is an important factor in treatment choice, influencing compliance, satisfaction and outcome. A previous study has shown that patients prefer eletriptan oral tablet to sumatriptan oral tablet.

**Objectives:** To determine patient preference for zolmitriptan 2.5 mg orally disintegrating tablet (ODT) versus eletriptan 20 mg oral tablet.

**Methods:** In this 2-attack, open-label, cross-over study, patients diagnosed with migraine (International Headache Society criteria) were randomised to treat one attack with zolmitriptan 2.5 mg ODT and one with eletriptan 20 mg tablet. Questionnaires were completed by patients to determine which treatment was preferred and reasons for this choice. Data on adverse events were also collected. Informed consent was obtained from all patients.

**Results:** Data were analysed from 64 Japanese patients. The number of migraine

headaches treated of moderate or severe intensity was similar in the zolmitriptan and eletriptan groups. Patients preferred zolmitriptan ODT to eletriptan tablet (62.3% vs. 37.7%;  $p < 0.01$ ). The main reasons for preferring zolmitriptan ODT were: fast pain relief (21.3% vs. 0%); effective pain relief (18.0% vs. 8.2%); easy to take/taken without water (26.2% vs. 4.9%). The incidence of adverse events was similar for patients treated with zolmitriptan and eletriptan; 37.5% and 28.1%, respectively ( $p = \text{NS}$ ). All adverse events were transient and of mild intensity.

**Conclusion:** Patients prefer zolmitriptan ODT to eletriptan oral tablet. Factors driving this preference appear to be related to efficacy and convenience rather than tolerability. It seems therefore that patient preference was influenced by fast, high efficacy and ease of taking the medicine.

## Introduction

Migraine is a chronic, debilitating neurological disorder characterised by recurrent episodes of headache pain in combination with symptoms such as nausea/vomiting, photophobia and phonophobia.

In Japan, the prevalence of migraine amongst the general population is estimated at approximately 6–8%<sup>1,2</sup>. There are four triptans (eletriptan, rizatriptan, sumatriptan and zolmitriptan) currently available in Japan for the acute treatment of migraine.

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