Letters to the Editor

Cerebral metabolism during vegetative state and after recovery to consciousness

One way to approach the study of consciousness is to explore lesional cases in which impairment of consciousness is the prominent clinical sign. Vegetative state is such a condition wherein awareness is abolished whereas arousal persists. It can be diagnosed clinically soon after a brain injury and may be reversible (as in the following case report) or progress to a persistent vegetative state or death. The distinction between vegetative state and persistent vegetative state is that the second is defined as a vegetative state that has continued or endured for at least 1 month. We present a patient who developed a vegetative state after carbon monoxide poisoning and in whom we had the opportunity to measure brain glucose metabolism distribution during the vegetative state and after recovery to consciousness. Using [18F]fluorodeoxyglucose (FDG) PET and statistical parametric mapping (SPM) we compared both patient's sets to a normal control population. Our findings offer an insight into the neural correlates of “awareness”, pointing to a critical role for posterior associative cortices in consciousness.

A 40 year old right handed woman attempted suicide through CO intoxication and was found unconscious. She was treated with hyperbaric oxygen but evolved to a vegetative state diagnosed according to the following criteria: (1) spontaneous eye opening without evidence of awareness of the environment; (2) no evidence of reproducible voluntary behavioural responses to any stimuli; (3) no evidence of language comprehension or expression; (4) intermittent wakefulness and behaviourally assessed sleep-wake cycles; (5) normal cardiorespiratory function and blood pressure control; (6) preserved pupillary, oculocephalic, corneal, and vestibulo-ocular reflexes. Brain MRI performed 14 days after admission was normal. Electroencephalography showed a 6 Hz basal activity with more pronounced slowing on the left parietal regions. Auditory evoked potentials were normal. Somaesthetic evoked potentials of the median nerve showed normal latency and amplitude of P14 and N20 potentials without any late cortical components. After remaining in a vegetative state for 19 days the patient regained consciousness. Her sequelae consisted of a bilateral spastic paresis of upper and lower limbs. Neuropsychological examination a month after admission showed an attention deficit with moderate impairment of short term memory. One year after the accident she showed a spastic gait with altered fine motor function, most prominent on the right, a slurred speech, and minor short term memory disturbances. FDG-PET was performed during the vegetative state (day 15 after admission) and after recovery to consciousness (day 57).

The control population consisted of 48 drug free, healthy volunteers, aged from 18 to 76 years (mean: 42 (SD 21) years).

The study was approved by the ethics committee of the University of Liège. Informed consent was obtained by the husband of the patient and for all control subjects. Five to 10 mCi FDG was injected intravenously; PET data were obtained on a Siemens CTI 951 R 16/31 scanner in bidimensional mode. Arterial blood samples were drawn during the whole procedure and cerebral metabolic glucose rates (CMRGlu) were calculated for all subjects. PET data were analysed using SPM software (SPM96 version; Welcome Department of Cognitive Neurology, Institute of Neurology, London, UK). The use of SPM to assess between subject (rather than within subject) variability is unlikely to alter the relevance of our results given their high degree of significance. Data from each subject were normalised to a standard stereotactic space and then smoothed with a 16 mm full width half maximum isotropic kernel. The analysis identified brain regions where glucose metabolism was significantly lower in each patient scan compared with the control group. The resulting foci were characterised in terms of peak height over the entire volume analysed at a threshold of corrected p<0.05.

During the vegetative state, average grey matter glucose metabolism was 38% lower than in controls (4.5± 7.3 (SD 1.4) mg/100 g/min). No substantial change in mean CMRGlu was found after recovery (4.7±100 g/min). During the vegetative state, significant regional CMRGlu decreases were found in the left and right superior parietal lobule; the left inferior parietal lobule; the precuneus; the left superior occipital, superior and middle temporal gyri; and the premotor and postcentral and precentral cortex (figure, yellow colour). After recovery, metabolic impairment was confined to the left and right precentral and postcentral gyri and premotor cortices (figure, blue colour).

This case report offers an insight into the neural correlates of human consciousness (at least, external awareness as it can be assessed at the patient’s bedside). Given that global glucose utilisation levels remained essentially the same, the recovery of consciousness seems related to a modification of the regional distribution of brain function rather than to the global resumption of cerebral metabolism. The main decreases in metabolism seen during the vegetative state but not after recovery were found in parietal areas, including the precuneus. This is in agreement with postmortem findings in persistent vegetative state, in which involvement of the association cortices is reported as a critical neuroanatomical substrate and with PET studies in postanoxic syndrome, in which the parieto-occipital cortex showed the most consistent impairment. The functions of these areas are manifold: lateral parietal areas are involved in spatial perception and attention, working memory, mental imagery, and language, whereas the precuneus is activated in episodic memory retrieval, modulation of visual perception by mental imagery, and attention. Our data point to a critical role for these posterior associative cortices in the emergence of conscious experience.

Stevens Laureys
Christian Lemaire
Pierre Maquet
Cyclotron Research Centre, University of Liège, Sart Tilman, 4000 Liège, Belgium

Christophe Phillips
Institute of Cognitive Neurology, University College London, Alexandra House, 1 Queen Square, London WC1N 3AR, England, UK

George Franck
Department of Neurology, CHU Liège Sart Tilman B3-3, 4000 Liège, Belgium

Correspondence to: Dr Pierre Maquet, Cyclotron Research Centre (B30), University of Liège, Sart Tilman, 4000 Liège, Belgium Telephone 0032 43 66 36 87; fax 0032 43 66 29 46; email maquet@pet.crc.ac.be

Electrical inexcitability of nerves and muscles in severe infantile spinal muscular atrophy

Spinal muscular atrophy (SMA) is one of the most common fatal autosomal recessive disorders, characterised by progressive degeneration of anterior horn cells. Before the advent of genetic testing, the diagnosis of SMA was based on clinical, histopathological, and electrophysiological features. In 1992, the International SMA Consortium defined diagnostic criteria of proximal SMA based on clinical findings. In SMA type I (severe; Werdnig-Hoffmann disease), affected persons have onset of symptoms before 6 months of age and are never able to sit without support. Electromyography demonstrates denervation features. In early 1995, the candidate gene, the survival motor neuron (SMN) gene, was identified, making the confirmation of SMA by DNA analysis possible.

With the availability of a genetic test for SMA, many investigators are refining the diagnostic criteria published by the Consortium. Studies involving hundreds of patients with SMA have disclosed a subset of patients who fulfil at least one exclusion criterion defined by the Consortium. We identified an infant with severe SMA who fulfilled two exclusion criteria and also showed inexcitability of all nerves as well as muscles. This report will further delineate the wide range of phenotypes for this particular gene mutation.

A 2945 g male infant was born at term. Fetal movements were noted at 13 weeks of gestation. Chorionic villus sampling at 10 weeks of gestation disclosed normal chromosomal decreases. Decreased fetal movement and polyhydramnios were noted at around 34 weeks of gestation. At delivery, the infant was cyanotic with no respiratory effort and was subsequently intubated. On physical examination, the infant had no spontaneous movements. He opened his eyes with brief fixation but no following. Tongue fasciculations were present. Other cranial nerves seemed intact. Mild flexion contractures of both elbows, knees, and ankles were noted. Tone was flaccid in extremities and mildly increased in the neck. The muscle stretch reflexes were absent. Deep tendon reflexes were absent.

Brain MRI disclosed mild diffuse cortical atrophy. His EMG was severely abnormal, with widespread fibrillations and absent voluntary motor units except in the genioglossus, where mildly neurogenic motor units with decreased recruitment were seen. Decreased fetal movement and polyhydramnios were noted at around 34 weeks of gestation. At delivery, the infant was cyanotic with no respiratory effort and was subsequently intubated. On physical examination, the infant had no spontaneous movements. He opened his eyes with brief fixation but no following. Tongue fasciculations were present. Other cranial nerves seemed intact. Mild flexion contractures of both elbows, knees, and ankles were noted. Tone was flaccid in extremities and mildly increased in the neck. The muscle stretch reflexes were absent. Deep tendon reflexes were absent.

Review of the literature disclosed no previous reports of electrically excitable nerves in SMA. This phenomenon is known to occur in a few other neuro muscular conditions such as periodic paralysis and critical illness polyneuropathy. Fibribillations, as seen in the infant in our report, are commonly seen in acute denervation and are thought to be caused by perturbation of the sarcocellum membrane, rendering it unstable. One possibility may be that severe denervation in SMA type I can result in abnormal function of the membrane to make it electrically excitable. Further electrophysiological studies at the cellular level are required to delineate this interesting finding.

ALICE A KUO
Department of Pediatrics

STEFAN-M PULST
DAWN S ELIASHIV
Cameron R Adams
Division of Neurophysiology, Cedars-Sinai Medical Center, Los Angeles, CA, USA

Correspondence to: Dr Cameron R Adams, Department of Neurophysiology, Cedars-Sinai Medical Center, 8631 West Third Street, Room 1145, East Tower, Los Angeles, CA 90048, USA

Acute overdosage and intoxication with carbidopa/levodopa can be detected in the subacute stage by measurement of 3–methylhydrolpa

Although the effects of a chronic overdosage with levodopa are well known, few cases of acute intoxication have been described. A particular problem in establishing a diagnosis of levodopa overdosage is in identifying the time of the exposure, few cases of acute intoxication have been described. A particular problem in establishing a diagnosis of levodopa overdosage is in identifying the time of the exposure, few cases of acute intoxica tion have been described. A particular problem in establishing a diagnosis of levodopa overdosage is in identifying the time of the exposure, few cases of acute intoxication have been described. A particular problem in establishing a diagnosis of levodopa overdosage is in identifying the time of the exposure, few cases of acute intoxication have been described. A particular problem in establishing a diagnosis of levodopa overdosage is in identifying the time of the exposure, few cases of acute intoxication have been described. A particular problem in establishing a diagnosis of levodopa overdosage is in identifying the time of the exposure, few cases of acute intoxication have been described. A particular problem in establishing a diagnosis of levodopa overdosage is in identifying the time of the exposure, few cases of acute intoxication have been described. A particular problem in establishing a diagnosis of levodopa overdosage is in identifying the time of the exposure, few cases of acute intoxication have been described. A particular problem in establishing a diagnosis of levodopa overdosage is in identifying the time of the exposure, few cases of acute intoxication have been described. A particular problem in establishing a diagnosis of levodopa overdosage is in identifying the time of the exposure, few cases of acute intoxication have been described. A particular problem in establishing a diagnosis of levodopa overdosage is in identifying the time of the exposure, few cases of acute intoxication have been described. A particular problem in establishing a diagnosis of levodoca
noradrenaline, which stimulates
intoxication with maximally dilated, light
knowledge, this association of a levodopa
case was the maximal bilateral mydriasis, with
aline, adrenaline, and dopamine were raised
patient was 66 763 ng/ml, the concentrations
The initial levodopa concentration in our
sleeplessness, and excessive motor activity.
Clinically, the most prominent symptoms of
the intensive care unit to a normal medical
course of the concentrations of levodopa and
nylacetic acid, homovanillic acid, noradren-
concentration, we measured the plasma concentrations
132.5 hours. Using high performance liquid
phy. Blood was taken for the measurement of
levodopa and metabolites 2.5 hours after
arterial hypertonus measured initially can
delayed peak of the 3-
tration for the enzymes metabolising it is
very marked. Progression over time of the
movement disorder in Huntington’s disease can be
monitored using the quantitative neurological examination (QNE). This measure
has three subscales, an eye movement scale, a motor impairment scale (MIS) quan-
ifing voluntary movement, and a chorea scale measuring involuntary movement.\textsuperscript{1-2}

Pharmacological control of the symptoms
has been shown to be effective with dopamine
antagonists,\textsuperscript{1-3} but their use is limited because of the side effects. Clinically, the most problematic of these are sedation, cognitive slowing, increased mobility problems, and
hypotension. The inability of traditional
dopamine antagonists to improve functional
capacity, despite amelioration of the side
effect due to suppression of voluntary motor
activity.\textsuperscript{1-4} Tardive dyskinesia has occasionally
been reported in patients with Huntington’s
disease treated with these drugs.\textsuperscript{2-3} The atypi-
cal antipsychotic clozapine has been shown to be
effective in improving the movement disorder.
However, in a double blind ran-
domised trial of clozapine which included
patients who were already receiving tra-
ditional antipsychotic medication, a group who had not received drug treatments
for their movement disorder, chorea was
reduced in those who were antipsychotic
naive only and the authors concluded that
clozapine was of little additional value
for Huntington’s disease.\textsuperscript{3} Olanzapine is a new
atypical antipsychotic drug. It is a thieno-
dibenzodiazepine structurally very similar to
clozapine. Unlike clozapine it is not associ-
ated with the potentially serious side effect of
agranulocytosis and therefore frequent blood
monitoring is not necessary.

This report describes the progress of a man
who has Huntington’s disease. He developed
a marked movement disorder and was unable
to tolerate both sulpiride and risperidone but
had symptomatic improvement when treated
with olanzapine.

He is a man in his early 50s who had a con-
firmatory genetic test for Huntington’s dis-
ease in 1994, after the development of
clinically obvious motor symptoms. It is likely
that the onset of symptoms had occurred a
few years previously as he had experienced
difficulties in concentration and work, attributed at the time to stress, leading
to the loss of employment. In addition his
family, watching family videos of a few years
early thought that there may be some
early signs of his movement disorder. How-
ever there was no known family history of
Huntington’s disease which might have led to
an earlier diagnosis. By May 1995 his
involuntary movements were becoming more
noticeable, although control of voluntary
movement was good. A trial of sulpiride
commencing at 200 mg twice daily and
increasing over 1 week to 800 mg daily was
undertaken with a subsequent decrease in the
frequency and extent of involuntary move-
ment recorded in case notes; unfortunately
the QNE was not repeated at this time. How-
ever, the patient experienced a subjective
slowing of his cognitive processes, concur-
rently became depressed, and decided to stop
the treatment within 3 weeks. Paroxetine, a
selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor antide-
pressant, was started at a dose of 20 mg a day,
which led to an improvement in his low
mood. His involuntary movements continued
to cause difficulties in his daily living. He
was unable to sit comfortably in a chair and when
out he felt that he was disturbing others by
knocking into them. He agreed to a trial of

Distribution into muscles rather then
metabolism may largely determine the
plasma half life of levodopa and explain why
this was only slightly altered with overdose.
The measured peak concentration of 66 763
ng/ml is about 30 times higher than the peak
concentration to be expected after taking one
tablet of carbidopa/levodopa (50 mg/200
mg). It is apparent that the 30 tablets did not
interfere with absorption or lead to a gastro-
intestinal paralysis due to the high dose of
levodopa; the relation between amount in-
gested and plasma concentration seems to
be linear, at least in this dose range.

We conclude from these findings that in
cases of subacute levodopa intoxication
some hours previously, it could be important
to measure the concentration of 3-
methyldopa, so as not to overlook an
overdose with levodopa, which may be due to
a suicide attempt. In addition to the diag-
nostic uncertainty in relation to the immedi-
ate treatment of the patient, this would also
have an effect on further psychiatric and psy-
chological therapy.

H J STUERENBURG
EG H SCHOESE
Neurological Department, University Hospital
Hamburg-Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany

1 Hoehn MM, Rutledge CO. Acute overdose with
levodopa. Clinical and biochemical conse-
2 Spoerl KA, Carbidopa-levodopa overdose. Am
3 Contin M, Riva R, Marinelli P, et al. Longitudi-
nal monitoring of the levodopa concentration-
effect relationship in Parkinson’s disease. Neu-
4 Brodberg E, Lennernäs H, Palazon L. Pharma-
cokinetics of levodopa and carbidopa in rats
following different routes of administration.
5 Koczyad AD, Keren O. The effect of L-dopa on
pupillary diameter in mice. Experimenta 1982;
38:481-2.

The use of olanzapine for movement
disorder in Huntington’s disease: a first
case report

Movement disorder is a prominent feature of
Huntington’s disease and consists of involun-
tary and voluntary components as well as
associated bradykinesia. Pharmacological
treatment is problematic because of the side
effects of the drugs used, which may further
compromise cognitive functioning and mo-
tility. Patients are often not subjectively
aware of their movements but can be consid-
erably disabled by them and carers are often
distressed and enquire about treatment op-
ers. By May 1995 his cognitive processes were
slowing of his cognitive processes, concur-
rently became depressed, and decided to stop

\textsuperscript{1} Eppendorf Martinistrasse 52, 20246 Ham-
burg, Germany. Telephone 040 40 4717 4832; fax
0049 40 4717 5086; email stuuerburg@uke.uni-
hamburg.de

\textsuperscript{2} 38
\textsuperscript{3} Contin M, Riva R, Marinelli P, et al. Longitudi-
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effect relationship in Parkinson’s disease. Neu-
\textsuperscript{4} Brodberg E, Lennernäs H, Palazon L. Pharma-
cokinetics of levodopa and carbidopa in rats
following different routes of administration.
\textsuperscript{5} Koczyad AD, Keren O. The effect of L-dopa on
pupillary diameter in mice. Experimenta 1982;
38:481-2.
risperidone. This was started at a dose of 1 mg twice daily, increasing to a dose of 3 mg four times daily over a period of 2 weeks, stopped after a brief period. He developed hypotension (blood pressure 100/60 mm Hg), complaining of dizziness after the initial dose. His blood pressure remained stable, although low, after this and as there was improvement in his movements the drug was continued. However, he decided to stop the risperidone after 4 months because of his subjective experience of slowed thinking and occasional dizziness. A repeated trial of sulpiride was carried out in March 1997. Sulpiride was started at a dose of 200 mg twice a day and increased to a total daily dose of 1000 mg over 2 weeks. He was on sulpiride for 4 weeks with no improvement in his movements, so it was discontinued. The patient continued to experience low mood and after the discontinuation of sulpiride, his antidepressant drug was changed to lofepramine commencing at 70 mg once a day and increasing after a few days to 140 mg daily. There were no changes noted in his movements during this change.

Although the patient was subjectively unaware of the extent of his movements his everyday life continued to be affected. The social venues he felt able to attend were becoming more limited and activities he wanted to pursue such as travelling abroad by air were problematic. A trial of olanzapine was then instituted. He was started on 5 mg a day in the morning. There was a marked improvement in his involuntary movements within 1 week but once again he experienced slowed thinking. However, adjusting the time of medication to the evening led to an improvement in this. Six months later the improvement in his involuntary movements is maintained. Serial quantitative neurological examination scores are illustrated in figure 1.

In the absence of a cure for Huntington's disease, it is very important that any interventions considered enhance the quality of life of the patient and improve overall functioning. It may not always be in the best interests of the patient to use drug treatments for the movement disorder. In those patients who have severe movements, however, a trial of treatment may be appropriate and continued if a clear benefit has been achieved. Neurological monitoring and the patient's own perception of the effect of the drug must be taken into account.

The mechanism by which olanzapine may have beneficial effects is unclear. Olanzapine has been shown to have high affinity for a large number of receptors including D1, D2, D4, 5HT2A, 5HT2C, 5 HT3, α-1-adrenergic, histamine H1, and 5 muscarinic receptors. This binding profile is similar to clozapine, another atypical antipsychotic drug, but substantially different to the conventional antipsychotic haloperidol.1

Preferential loss of D2 projection neurons which are involved in a feedback loop normally active in the suppression of involuntary movements is thought to be the pathological basis of chorea in patients with Huntington's disease. The D2 antagonist properties of olanzapine may explain its possible benefits in the improvement of chorea. However, the effect at other receptors such as D4 may also be important, as D4 receptor density has been shown to be raised in Huntington's disease, therefore the D4/D2 ratio of activity may also be relevant. Differences in binding profile across a range of receptors may explain clinical differences in outcome when comparing different antipsychotic drugs.

This case report indicates that olanzapine may be a useful addition to the treatments for movement disorder, for some patients, and controlled trials of its use in Huntington's disease would be welcome.

Quantitative neurological examination scores showing the progress of the movement disorder. 06/95: before trial sulpiride, no medication; 05/96: before risperidone, 20 mg paroxetine daily; 07/96: 1 mg risperidone four times daily and 20 mg paroxetine daily; 03/97: before retraul sulpiride, 20 mg paroxetine daily; 04/97: 400 mg sulpiride in the morning 600 mg at night and 20 mg paroxetine; 04/97: before olanzapine, 140 mg lofepramine daily; 06/97: 5 mg olanzapine at night, 140 mg lofepramine daily.

PATIENT CHARACTERISTICS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patient</th>
<th>Age at surgery</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Years with PD</th>
<th>H and Y*</th>
<th>UPDRS off# antiparkinson/post-parkinson</th>
<th>Pallidotomy side</th>
<th>Transient side effects</th>
<th>Medication additional to levodopa</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2/5</td>
<td>57/NP</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>Slight facial paresis, swallowing problems, drooling</td>
<td>Trypriozol, temazepam, alprazolam, apomorphine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2/2.5</td>
<td>27/1</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>Slight dystharia</td>
<td>Trihexifenidil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2/3</td>
<td>55/L</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>Facial paresis</td>
<td>Pegolide, amantadine</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2/2</td>
<td>45/22</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>Slight dystharia</td>
<td>Pegolide, selegiline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.5/4</td>
<td>69/36</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>Facial paresis, hypophonia</td>
<td>Pegolide, selegiline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.5/3</td>
<td>48/27</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>Facial paresis, aphasia</td>
<td>Pegolide, selegiline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2.5/4</td>
<td>55/NP</td>
<td>R</td>
<td></td>
<td>Clozapine, temazepam, caspide</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

H and Y=Hoehn and Yahr; †UPDRS off=unified Parkinson's disease rating scale part 3 (motor examination), in a standardised off state, 12 hours without antiparkinson medication; N=P-not performed.
localisation. Patients started with a short schedule of corticosteroids (5 days) the night before surgery. The hiccups started immediately after the operation or the next day, were intermittent, and the bouts of hiccup of six patients, with a duration of hours, resolved within 3 days after the procedure. One patient complained of yawning more often and frequent bouts of hiccup for 6 months.

Five patients were men. All patients were right handed. The mean age at surgery was 54 years and the mean duration of Parkinson's disease was 12 years. All patients were taking levodopa. In four patients the hiccups appeared after a left sided pallidotomy. Patient 2 had a right sided thalamotomy 4 years before the pallidotomy. Patient 5 underwent a left sided pallidotomy 10 months before the right sided pallidotomy which caused the hiccups. The pallidotomies improved parkinsonism in the "off" state (table), contralateral dyskinesias, and pain accompanying Parkinson's disease. Six patients had transient adverse events: four patients had a transient facial paresis postoperatively and two a slight transient dysarthria. Patients without emotionalism were more symptomatic postoperatively than patients with emotionalism. After the operation, patients without emotionalism were more symptomatic than patients with emotionalism.

We never encountered hiccups in 150 other stereotactic procedures for Parkinson's disease, such as thalamotomies or deep brain stimulation electrode implantation in the thalamus and therefore it is unlikely that medication or positive contrast medium ventriculography with Iohexol evoked the hiccups. A possible cause for the transient hiccups could be the lesion in the ventral medial segment of the globus pallidus or pressure, due to oedema, on an adjacent structure like the internal capsule or putamen. We could not find other reports of hiccups as an adverse event after functional stereotactic surgical interventions, nor after lesions of other aetiology involving the striatum. Based on our experience we hypothesise that the globus pallidus or a neighbouring structure may be involved in a supramedullary system involved in triggering hiccups.

B R M A D E B I E
J D SPEELEMAN
Department of Neurology
P R SCHUURMAN
D A BOSCH
Department of Neurosurgery, Academic Medical Center, University of Amsterdam, The Netherlands

Correspondence to: Dr R M A de Bie, Department of Neurology, Academic Medical Center, PO Box 22700, 1180 DE Amsterdam, The Netherlands. Telephone 0031 20 566 3856; fax 0031 20 679 1438; email R.M.deBie@amc.uva.nl

Psychological adjustment and self reported coping in stroke survivors with and without emotionalism

Emotionalism after stroke is common, occurring in 10%–20% of a community sample. Psychological factors in its cause or maintenance have not been studied; research has tended to concentrate instead on location of the stroke lesion. We suspect that one reason for this neglect of psychological aspects of emotionalism is that most people do not make a distinction between emotionalism, and pathological crying and laughing. As a result all disorders of emotionality after stroke are stereotyped as being related to brain damage and therefore psychologically meaningless.

None the less, many patients with emotionalism describe their crying as provoked by emotionally congruent experiences, which makes the tearfulness seem understandable. In two previous studies we have shown that stroke patients with emotionalism have more symptoms of psychological disorder than do patients without emotionalism. In the present study, we explored further the psychological characteristics of stroke patients with emotionalism. Our aim was to determine whether they differed from patients without emotionalism in their psychological reactions to stroke, or in the coping strategies they reported.

Post-traumatic stress disorder is also characterised by recurrent episodes of intrusive and uncontrollable emotion, and we were therefore interested in whether patients with emotionalism also experienced thoughts typical of post-traumatic stress disorder. Because emotionalism is often described as uncontrollable, we were interested in the possibility that patients were more generally helpless, passive, or avoidant in their responses to stroke. Again, because of the reported uncontrollability of emotionalism, we postulated that patients with emotionalism would report a more external locus of control than those without emotionalism.

Participants were adults admitted to local general hospitals after stroke, and were interviewed within 1 month of admission. Exclusions were due to poor physical health, cognitive impairment, communication difficulties, or lack of consent. Approval for the study was obtained from the local research ethics committee.

All participants completed a standardised measure of distress—the general health questionnaire, GHQ-12; a widely used measure of intrusive thoughts of the sort encountered in post-traumatic stress disorder—the impact of events rating scale; a measure of cognitive coping—the mental adjustment to stroke scale (O'Rourke S, Dennis M, MacHale S, Slattery J. The development of the mental adjustment to stroke scale: reliability, patient outcome and associations with mood and social activity, manuscript in preparation); and a measure of beliefs about responsibility for recovery from illness—the recovery locus of control scale. All the measures are self report questionnaires.

A total of 177 stroke patients were screened, of whom 112 were excluded. The 65 participants (29 men, 36 women) had a mean age of 71.8 years (range 43 to 88 years). Nineteen (29.2%) patients met our criteria for emotionalism, a rate similar to that found in other studies. Their scores on the study measures are compared with the scores of patients without emotionalism in the table. It might be that these associations with emotionalism were accounted for by the greater general levels of distress experienced by those with emotionalism. We therefore undertook analysis of covariance with GHQ-12 and presence of emotionalism as the covariates, and each of the other test items in turn as the independent variable. The results showed an association, after adjustment for GHQ-12 score, between emotionalism and the impact of events subscales intrusion

Five months after left sided pallidotomy, MRI of patient 6. (A) transversal slice at the level of the anterior commissure and (B) 6 mm more ventral.
Comparison of stroke survivors with and without emotionalism, assessed in hospital 1 month after stroke

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No emotionalism (n=45)</th>
<th>Emotionalism (n=19)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean (SD)</td>
<td>Mean (SD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GHQ-12*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recovery locus of control scale**</td>
<td>3.2 (2.4)</td>
<td>5.3 (3.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact of events scale intrusion subscale**</td>
<td>33.2 (5.3)</td>
<td>34.5 (17.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact of events scale avoidance subscale*</td>
<td>2.9 (4.6)</td>
<td>9.2 (6.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MASS Fighting spirit subscale</td>
<td>4.7 (4.6)</td>
<td>9.9 (6.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MASS Anxiety preoccupation subscale**</td>
<td>49.1 (4.2)</td>
<td>48.2 (4.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MASS Fatalism subscale*</td>
<td>22.2 (2.8)</td>
<td>25.2 (4.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MASS Avoidance subscale</td>
<td>20.0 (1.9)</td>
<td>21.3 (2.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MASS Helplessness/helplessness subscale**</td>
<td>1.7 (0.8)</td>
<td>1.9 (0.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10.9 (2.5)</td>
<td>14.1 (3.5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

MASS = Mental adjustment to stroke scale.
*p<0.05; **p<0.01, t-tests.

We thank those patients who participated in the study and the staff of local hospitals and the Leeds Stroke Database for their invaluable help. We also thank Dr Louise Dye for her statistical advice. This study was completed as part of work for the degree of DClinPsych at Leeds University (SE).

STEVEN ECCLES
ALLAN HOUSE
Division of Psychiatry and Behavioural Sciences in Relation to Medicine, University of Leeds, 15 Hyde Terrace, Leeds, UK

PETER KNAPP
Stroke Outcome Study, Research School of Medicine, Leeds, UK

Correspondence to: Dr Allan House, Division of Psychiatry and Behavioural Sciences in Relation to Medicine, University of Leeds, 15 Hyde Terrace, Leeds LS2 9LT, UK.

Paraneoplastic stiff man syndrome

Stiff man syndrome (SMS) is a rare, severe progressive motor disorder characterised by painful spasms, symmetric axial muscle rigidity, and uncontrollable contractions leading to distorted posturing. The disorder has been associated with the autoantigens, glutamic acid decarboxylase (GAD), and amphiphysin, which are cytoplasmic proteins in neurons of the CNS. A large series of patients with SMS found that most have autoantibodies against GAD, whereas amphiphysin is presumably the predominant autoantigen in paraneoplastic SMS. Recently, Bhat et al reported four patients with a stiff leg syndrome marked by progressive rigidity and spasms of the lower extremities. This group of patients tested negative for anti-GAD antibody by immunoprecipitation and demonstrated distinct electrophysiologic features. By contrast, another report described two patients with stiff leg syndrome who tested positive for anti-GAD antibody. Finally, in presenting a group of 13 patients, Barker et al proposed that the nomenclature “stiff limb syndrome” refers to the focal form of SMS when one or more distal limbs are involved; two of their patients were also anti-GAD antibody positive, but none were tested for antibodies to amphiphysin or identified as having an underlying neoplasia. We present a patient clinically consistent with the stiff limb syndrome who was found to have autoantibody to GAD and breast cancer.

A 68 year old woman presented with a 1 month history of painful spasms in her legs. Cramps were associated with tactile stimuli and emotional upset. Within weeks, inversion began at the left and then right ankle, making ambulation difficult. Her medical history was significant for Graves’ disease treated with thyroxine and radioactive therapy, and hyperlipidaemia. She was a chronic smoker. General examination was noteworthy for lymphadenopathy in the right axilla. Her mental status was worse during periods of lower extremity spasms, during which she became anxious, diaphoretic, and tachycardic. Cranial nerve and motor evaluations were unremarkable, but assessment of the left leg, due to painful spasms elicited by light touch, was difficult. Inversion and plantar flexion were essentially fixed at the left ankle but could be overcome on the right. Deep tendon reflexes were 3+ in the upper and lower extremities, with sustained clonus at the right ankle. Sensory examination was normal except for the exception of hypaesthesia in the distal lower extremities, and coordination testing were grossly normal. No hyperlordosis or myoclonus was noted. Gait was limited due to ankle posturing.

The laboratory evaluation was noteworthy for a CSF with increased IgG indices (2.5, 3.4; normal, 0.2–0.8) and oligoclonal bands (5, 5) but no pleocytosis. Serological testing for anti-Hu, anti-Yo, and anti-Ri antibodies was unremarkable, and the haemoglobin A1C was 6.6 (5.6–7.7%). Skin biopsy at three sites on the patient’s leg showed diminished epidermal nerve fibre density and terminal axonal swelling distally, consistent with a small fibre sensory neuropathy. The patient would not tolerate EMG. Magnetic resonance images of the brain and the entire spinal cord were normal. Fine needle aspiration of a soft tissue right axillary mass showed metastatic adenoacinaroma. On an open surgical procedure, infiltrating duct carcinoma of the breast was identified. Anti-GAD autoantibodies were positive by Western blot and chemical assay and immunoprecipitation, but antibodies to amphiphysin were not detected by immunocytochemistry, immunoprecipitation, or western blotting (Dr P De Camilli, Yale University).

Ongoing therapy with clonazepam and a trial of oral dexamethasone did not improve the lower extremity symptoms. The patient’s ankle posturing continued a slow progression to marked inversion, with spontaneous extension of the lower extremity symptoms. The patient died 18 months after symptom onset. Gross necropy attributed the cause of death to aspiration pneumonia. Neuropathological evaluation showed a grossly normal brain and spinal cord. Microscopically, the lumbar cord had mild reactive gliosis in the anterior horns but no evidence of inflammation. Sections of the frontal cortex, pons, and medulla showed mild diffuse reactive astrocytosis.

Stiff man syndrome is increasingly recognised as a heterogeneous disorder. Other case reports have documented patients with “focal” disease involving either lower or upper extremity posturing, which contrast

with the “diffuse” axial and subsequent proximal muscle distribution of the classic disorder. Our patient differs from those reported with stiff leg syndrome in that an occult malignancy was present. Unfortunately, we were unable to obtain electrophysiological studies for comparison. The search for a paraneoplastic process was based on the findings of axillary lymphadenopathy and an abnormal CSF. Our patient is only the second reported patient with paraneoplastic SMS associated with anti-GAD antibody; the other reported patient with paraneoplastic SMS had upper limb rigidity in the setting of breast cancer and additionally mounted an immune response to amphiphysin.

Paraneoplastic processes can affect any component of the nervous system and, occasionally, multiple levels, as in the syndrome of sensory neuronopathy-encephalomyelitis. Our patient’s findings were not entirely consistent with criteria for classic SMS in that an apparent encephalopathy and a small fibre neuropathy were identified—for example, her dysautonomia (tachycardia and relative hypertension) during spasms may have been a manifestation of involvement of small fibres. The role of autoantibodies in the pathogenesis of SMS and cancer is unclear. Via its probable function in endocytosis, amphiphysin has been postulated to play a part in the regulation of growth factor internalisation; however, the absence of an autoimmune response to this autoantigen in our patient suggests that other mechanisms of oncogenesis in SMS exist. Given anecdotal evidence of improvement in paraneoplastic SMS after treating the underlying malignancy, we suggest that all patients with SMS, diffuse or focal, be screened for occult cancer.

ISAAC E SILVERMAN
Department of Neurology, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, USA

Correspondence to: Dr I E Silverman, Johns Hopkins Hospital, Pathology 509, 600 North Wolfe Street, Baltimore, MD 21287, USA. Telephone 001 410 955 6626; fax 001 410 614 1008; email isilverman@jhmi.edu


Tetrodotoxin intoxication in a uraemic patient

Tetrodotoxin intoxication results from ingesting puffer fish or other animals containing the toxin. Clinical presentation is mainly acute motor weakness and respiratory paralysis. Death is common in the worst affected victims. Although the severity of the symptoms generally depends on the amount of toxin ingested, it may be influenced by the victim’s medical condition, as described in this report. The patient was a 52 year old uraemic woman. The uraemia was of undefined aetiology. Over the past 3 years she has received regular haemodialysis. One day both she and her husband, a healthy 55 year old man, ate a fish soup. About 4 hours after the meal she developed a headache and a lingual and circumoral tingling sensation and numbness at the distal parts of all four limbs. She was dizzly and unsteady, had difficulty in swallowing, and became very weak. She was taken to the emergency service and was placed on machine assisted ventilation as respiratory distress and cyanosis developed. Her husband remained asymptomatic throughout this time.

The patient’s condition kept on deteriorating, developing eventually into a comatoselike state with no spontaneous or reflexive eye opening or limb movement within 30 minutes of intubation. On neurological examination, the pupillary light reflex was absent and oculocephalic manoeuvre elicited no ocular movements. All four limbs were areflexic and Babinski’s signs were absent. Brain CT and laboratory studies of arterial blood gas (under assisted ventilation), electrolytes, liver function, blood glucose, and CSF study were unremarkable. An examination of renal function indicated chronic renal insufficiency with mild azotaemia (urea nitrogen 70 mg/dl, creatinine 9.1 mg/dl). An EEG, recorded 18 hours after the onset of symptoms when the neurological condition was unchanged, showed posterior dominant alpha waves intermixing with trains of short duration, diffuse theta waves. When brief noxious stimuli were applied to the sternum, they were replaced transiently by beta activities. The findings suggested that the profound neurological dysfunction might be peripheral in origin. The patient was given a course of haemodialysis according to the set schedule for uraemia at 21 hours after onset of the symptoms. Her condition improved dramati-
When analysing the remains of the cooked fish (identified as *Yangichthys nobilis*), tetrodotoxin was demonstrated by thin layer chromatography, high performance liquid chromatography, and cellulose acetate membrane electrophoresis. Toxicity was assayed by using Institute of Cancer Research strain adult male mice and the toxicity score was 25 mouse units (MU)/g in fish muscle (1 MU = 0.5 L/R of the ICR strain mice). Tetrodotoxin exerts its effect through binding with and blocking the voltage dependent sodium channel. The voltage clamp experiments showed that tetrodotoxin diminished the sodium inward current responsible for the depolarisation of excitable membrane. The gating properties of the sodium channel, such as the activation and inactivation mechanism, are not altered—that is, the sodium channel is not permanently damaged and its function recovers when the bound toxin is released. In uraemia, ion conductance through the sodium channel is also impaired. Sodium permeability through excitatory membranes is reduced and small inward sodium current and reduced action potential amplitudes are noted in experimental uraemic neuropathy. By contrast with the effects of tetrodotoxin, uraemia changes the basic property of the sodium channel by an increased inactivation and an impaired activation mechanism. The excitability of peripheral nerves will be more significantly depressed when these two conditions combine. The synergistic effect of uraemia and tetrodotoxin is obvious in this incident in which the patient and her husband ingested roughly an equal amount of tetrodotoxin (about 200 µg, calculated from toxic score times the weight of ingested fish). The amount is about 10% of the estimated lethal dose in humans—2200 µg/60 kg body weight (body weights of the patient and her husband were 54.5 and 62 kg respectively)—and caused no clinical evidence of poisoning in the healthy person. It was of interest that the CNS was relatively spared from the toxicity as the EEG showed a posterior dominant, prompt reactive alpha rhythm and the absence of deep tendon reflexes, and some evidence of distal sensory loss in the fish. When recalling, she could remember certain events such as the recording of the EEG, but was “too weak to move” at that time. She regained her initial strength by the time she was discharged on day 16.

When analysing the symptoms, the patient retained consciousness when the CNS was relatively spared from the toxic effects of tetrodotoxin, so critical illness polyneuropathy is not synonymous with the pathological designation of Guillain-Barré syndrome, as clinical features also occur in uremia, and the distinction between the two types of polyneuropathy is of clinical importance. Clinical symptoms such as the absence of deep tendon reflexes, and some evidence of distal sensory loss in the fish. When recalling, she could remember certain events such as the recording of the EEG, but was “too weak to move” at that time. She regained her initial strength by the time she was discharged on day 16.

Critical illness polyneuropathy is defined as a reversible, symmetric, axonal polyneuropathy occurring in critically ill patients, and is not significantly bound to protein— all these features are found in toxins amenable to haemodialysis. Traditionally, the management of tetrodotoxin intoxication is mainly supportive, such as gastric lavage to remove unabsorbed toxin and machine assisted ventilation when respiration is severely affected. We suggest that haemodialysis may be an effective method in the treatment of tetrodotoxin intoxication.

**MIN-YU LAN**
**SHUNG-LON LAI**
**SHUN-SHENG CHEN**
Department of Neurology, Kaohsiung Medical College, Kaohsiung City, Taiwan

**DENG-FUHWANG**
Department of Food Science, National Taiwan Ocean University, Keelung City, Taiwan

Correspondence to: Dr Shun-Sheng Chen, Department of Neurology, Kaohsiung Medical College Hospital, 100 Shih-Chung 1st Road, Kaohsiung City 807, Taiwan. Telephone 00886 7 3121101 ext 6671; fax 00886 7 3232437; email sheng@mail.ntou.edu.tw


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**Relation between critical illness polyneuropathy and axonal Guillain-Barré syndrome**

The clinical entity critical illness polyneuropathy occurs almost exclusively in patients in critical care units and has been characterised as a complication of sepsis and multiple organ failure. Critical illness polyneuropathy may be a common cause of the difficulty in weaning patients from the ventilator, particularly those who show intractable ventilator dependence. All the measures used to prevent or treat sepsis and multiple organ failure are the main methods now used to deal with critical illness polyneuropathy. Knowledge of this type of polyneuropathy is of help in making the proper diagnosis, clinical management, and outcome prediction. Critical illness polyneuropathy indicates the need for physiotherapy, rehabilitation, and other supportive measures as the patient recovers. Bolton et al have made an important positive contribution to the care of patients with critical illness polyneuropathy. The actual aetiology, however, has yet to be determined. The pathogenesis needs to be clarified to treat patients more effectively.

Critical illness polyneuropathy invariably occurs at the peak of critical illness and sepsis, but in Guillain-Barré syndrome there is a brief period of recovery after a relatively minor illness or inoculation. Except for differences in the predisposing causes, as Bolton et al reported, it is difficult to distinguish critical illness polyneuropathy from Guillain-Barré syndrome clinically. In both, polyneuropathy runs a monophasic course, the onset being relatively acute but with subsequent improvement in most instances. The clinical features also are similar; evidence of muscle weakness in all four limbs, occasional involvement of facial muscles and frequent involvement of the muscles of respiration, the depression or absence of deep tendon reflexes, and some evidence of distal sensory loss in the fish. When recalling, she could remember certain events such as the recording of the EEG, but was “too weak to move” at that time. She regained her initial strength by the time she was discharged on day 16.

In review of the patients with critical illness polyneuropathy and Guillain-Barré syndrome who were studied in their EMG laboratory, they found marked differences between the two types of polyneuropathy. Patients with Guillain-Barré syndrome had greater slowing of the speed of impulse conduction, and, in the initial stages, abnormal spontaneous activity in the muscle was absent, indicative of a predominantly demyelinating polyneuropathy. The CSF was very mildly increased in patients with critical illness polyneuropathy, but it was much increased in patients with Guillain-Barré syndrome. Comprehensive studies done at necropsy and nerve biopsy of patients with critical illness polyneuropathy showed the presence of primary axonal degeneration of the motor and sensory fibres, mainly distally, with no evidence of inflammation. Zochodne et al (excluding Bolton) therefore concluded that the two types of polyneuropathies most probably are separate entities. Guillain and colleagues enumerated the clinical and spinal fluid features of pre-existing axonal degeneration of the motor and sensory nerves, but with fewer parallelism and made a slow recovery, presumably reflecting the need to regenerate axons rather than remyelination. Pathological findings are consistent with axonal degeneration without demyelination. Feasby et al termed this pattern axonal Guillain-Barré syndrome and suggested that there is a fundamental difference in the underlying pathophysiology, resulting in primary axonal damage rather than demyelination. Griffin et al confirmed the existence of the acute motor-sensory axonal neuropathy (AMSAN) pattern of Guillain-Barré syndrome described by Feasby et al.

Infection caused by the gram negative bacterium *Campylobacter jejuni*, a leading cause
of acute diarrhoea, commonly precedes the development of Guillain-Barré syndrome. There is a close association between axonal Guillain-Barré syndrome and antecedent C jejuni infection. The antecedent infectious symptom was diarrhoea in three of five patients with axonal Guillain-Barré syndrome described by Feasby et al. Observations by Griffin et al confirmed that AMSAN follows C jejuni infection. Serum samples from patients with axonal Guillain-Barré syndrome subsequent to C jejuni enteritis often have an elevated class antibody titer to gangliosides GM1, GM1b, GD1a, or GaINAc-GD1a in the acute phase of the illness, and there is molecular mimicry between these gangliosides and the lipoprotein components of C jejuni isolates from patients with Guillain-Barré syndrome. This ganglioside mimicry may trigger high production of the IgG anti-ganglioside antibodies and these autoantibodies may cause motor nerve dysfunction in patients with GBS.

Interestingly, Hagenese et al reported a case of “C jejuni bacteremia and subsequent Guillain-Barré syndrome” that occurred in a patient with chronic graft versus host disease and severe immunosuppression who underwent allogeneic bone marrow transplantation. Because there was acute flaccid paralysis associated with sepsis, some physicians might have diagnosed critical illness polyneuropathy. Conversely, the existence of this case strongly suggests that some diagnosed cases of critical illness polyneuropathy should actually be axonal Guillain-Barré syndrome or AMSAN. Our hypothesis of the nosological relation between critical illness polyneuropathy and Guillain-Barré syndrome is shown in the figure. Serum IgG antibodies against GM1, GM1b, GD1a, or GaINAc-GD1a could be used as immunological markers for axonal Guillain-Barré syndrome. To examine the aetiology of critical illness polyneuropathy and its nosological relation to axonal Guillain-Barré syndrome, it is necessary to investigate whether patients with critical illness polyneuropathy have anti-ganglioside antibodies during the acute phase of the illness.

Nobuhiro Yuki
Koichi Hirata
Department of Neurology, Dokkyo University School of Medicine, Japan

Correspondence to: Dr Nobuhiro Yuki, Department of Neurology, Dokkyo University School of Medicine, Kitakobayashi 880, Mibu, Shimotsuga, Tochigi 321–0293, Japan.


**Table: Neurophysiological tests and PANSS scores**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Mean (SD)</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Block design Pre 49 (11.95) NS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trail making test A Pre 38.3 (4.5) NS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trail making test B Pre 41 (10.03) NS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immediate visual reproduction Pre 50.5 (4.82) NS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delayed visual reproduction Pre 54.8 (11.2) p&lt;0.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immediate verbal paired associates Pre 54 (7.46) NS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delayed verbal paired associates Pre 8.8 (1.17)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PANSS-PG Pre 37.67 (11.15) NS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PANSS-N Pre 36.5 (11.47) p&lt;0.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PANSS-P Pre 27.83 (8.47) NS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PANSS-P Post 16.83 (7.28) NS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PANSS-P Post 15.33 (7.55)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Pre=preatreatment; Post=post-treatment; PANSS=positive and negative syndrome scale; PG=general psychopathology scale; NG=negative scale; PP=positive scale.

**Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation in the treatment of chronic negative schizophrenic: a pilot study**

Recently, a new technology known as repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation (RTMS) has been developed. In 1994, the use of magnetic stimulation in chronic psychiatry was suggested. Since then, it has been used in the study or treatment of obsessive-compulsive disorder, conversion disorder, schizophrenia, and particularly, depression.

Our pilot study aimed to assess the possible adverse effects of this treatment in chronic schizophrenic patients with severe negative symptoms; to evaluate if direct RTMS of the prefrontal cortex might improve negative symptoms or cognitive impairments in patients with chronic schizophrenia; and thirdly, to note if RTMS might modify the deficit in prefrontal cortical activity, often referred to as hypofrontality, a general finding in schizophrenia, particularly under conditions of task activation.

Six right-handed patients with chronic schizophrenia were identified at the outpatient psychiatry unit of the Hospital Clinic of Barcelona. There were two men and four women (mean age 39). Exclusion criteria included alcohol or substance abuse dependence disorder in the past 5 years, focal neurological signs, systemic neurological illness, taking cerebral metabolic activator or vasodilator medications, electroconvulsive therapy within 6 months, and significant abnormal findings on laboratory examination.

All patients were taking neuroleptic drugs, but a stable dose for at least 3 months was required. All patients were studied off benzo-diazepines for at least 1 week before beginning the treatment. During the RTMS, psychotropic medications were continued at the initial dosage.

All patients were admitted to hospital. Inpatients underwent the UKI scale effect size, the positive and negative syndrome battery (PANSS), and a neuropsychological battery, the day before beginning the treatment and at the end of the treatment. The UKI scale was also administered after each session.

An equivalent neuropsychological battery was used on both occasions, which consisted of the block design test, the FAS verbal fluency test, and two subtests of the Wechsler adult intelligence scale, the trail making tests A and B, the FAS verbal fluency test, and two subtests of the Wechsler memory scale (the visual memory reproduction and the verbal paired associates subtests).

A brain SPECT study was performed using a rotating dual head gamma camera, fitted with high resolution fanbeam collimators. Two 99m Tc-HMPAO SPECT scans with cerebral autodilution technique were performed, each on the initial and post sessions (mild headache and nausea). Initial SPECT of one patient was reported to be normal, showing no evidence of hypofrontality. The remainder of the patients showed hypofrontality on the initial neuroimaging. The results after RTMS indicated no changes in the hypofrontality.

Negative symptoms showed a general decrease for all patients (table). Significance (p<0.02) was noted on the PANSS negative symptoms subscale. These patients seemed to be more sociable than when originally seen. Nevertheless, clinical effects of the RTMS were subtle and difficult to distinguish from those derived from the supportive environment of the psychiatric ward.

With regard to the neuropsychological battery, we found a general improvement in all post-treatment scores (table), but only delayed visual memory achieved significance (p<0.05). This feature might be basically explained by improvement of attention, specifically of the maintenance of attention, which allows the correct function of the working memory. Thus, among the methodological limitations regarding the power of our conclusions, it is certain that there has been an improvement in the attentional capability.

We found that all patients (except one, who was always within the normal range) diminished their number of perseverative answers and errors on WCST (items characteristically altered in schizophrenia) after the RTMS. However, significance was not achieved on any WCST scores.

Two patients who initially did not perform any categories on WCST, after the treatment, achieved one category, a possible indication of improvement of their abstract thinking. This change leads us to consider a research strategy previously reported, in which the WCST is used as a screening test for selecting schizophrenic patients. Those initially achieving low category scores would be compared to higher category scorers in an effort to identify a subgroup most likely to benefit from RTMS.

Taking into account these mild improvements together, and the lack of changes in
hypofrontality after treatment, we are consid-
ering extending the treatment course to 20
sessions, each at 30 Hz for 1 second, at 90% of
motor threshold. It was also suggested that
other positions of the coil and other kinds of
colls might give better results.

The clinical change in our cohort after the
RTMS could be attributed to both the treat-
ment and the supportive environment of the
psychiatric ward, and even to enhance
compliance to medication during hospital
admission. We are aware that this small sam-
ple size and lack of controls compel a very
careful interpretation of the results.

Nevertheless, in the light of these, we suggest
further controlled studies of the efficacy of
RTMS in negative symptoms of schizophre-
nia, not only as an add on technique but also
as a sole therapeutic procedure. Research on
RTMS also requires some controlled studies
aimed to the complexity of the methodology
(dosage, duration, and localisation), as this
form of intervention may prove to be an eco-
nomical and convenient therapy in treating
several psychiatric disorders.

E COHEN
M BERNARDO
J MASANA
F J ARRUFAT
V NAVARRO
Department of Psychiatry

J VALLS-SOLÉ
Department of Neurophysiology

T BOGET
N BARRANTES
S CATARINELIU
M FONT
Department of Psychology

F J LOMENA
Department of Nuclear Medicine, Institut d’Investigacions Biomèdiques August Pi i Sunyer, Hospital Clinic i Provincial. Universitat de Barcelona, Spain

Correspondence to: Dr M Bernardo, Servicio de Psiquiatría, Hospital Clínico Universitario. Villarroel 170, 08036 Barcelona, Spain. Telephone 00343
2275400, ext 2405; fax 00 343 2275477; email bernardo@medicina.ub.es

Letters, Correspondence, Book reviews, Correction

Sensory alien hand syndrome

The case report by Ay et al of alien hand syn-
drome and review of the literature neglected
the intriguing issue of why in every case so far
reported the patient seems to be terrified of
the alien limb. Not believing that you are any
more in control of a limb is not likely to be a
pleasant experience.

Those with alien hand syndrome seem to
jump to extremely negative conclusions con-
cerning the intent of the limb. Typically, as in
the report of Ay et al, the common belief is
that the limb has deeply malevolent inten-
tions towards the victim.

It is this aspect of alien hand syndrome that
I suggest also involves incorporating into its
neurological explanations, and which pro-
vides a clue as to why our everyday expe-
rience of being in charge of our bodies, and
so initiating all personal action, itself has a
neurological basis. In other words, while the
brain is the seat of all our conscious and experi-
ences, there is also a part of our nervous sys-
tem which is responsible for our belief that
we have free will over our behaviour. Patients
with alien hand syndrome think that they are
no longer in control of a limb because the
part of the brain that gives us the sensation
of control over our bodies has been damaged.
When that happens, our limbs seem to act
independently of us.

Research conducted in the 1980s has
found that the same electrical brain wave
changes that characteristically precede all
limb movements, occur several 100 ms before
we seem to consciously decide to move a
limb. If our conscious decision to act is
precipitated by brain changes that anticipate
action, then our “decision” to choose how
to behave or “freedom”, as in free will, is in fact
illusory. Our choices have in a sense been
decided beforehand by our brains.

Spence’s evidence that something such as this,
combined with phenomena such as alien
hand syndrome, means that philosophers
have to reconsider whether we have free will.
He argues that these data suggest that our
sense of agency is illusory and it follows that
most of us share in common the useful delu-
sion that we have free will. Patients with alien
hand syndrome have lost this experience in
relation to a particular limb. There is a sense
then that those who experience the syndrome
are closer to the reality of how much we are
responsible for our actions than the rest of us.

This is because the alien hand syndrome in
to the part of the brain that normally works
the brain and that we can consciously
make us think that we have conscious freedom
of will. They develop the experience,
therefore, of becoming mere remote specta-
tors to the actions of their bodies.

Defenders of human “free will” argue what
happens before the brain itself decides to act
is still unknown, and there may be a role for
our own autonomy there. But even these free
will guardians concede the neurological
research indicates that whatever happens
before the brain is roused, must occur below
our conscious awareness.

Yet in alien hand syndrome the patient
thinks that the hand has hostile motivations; it
is invariably the case that the patient not
only thinks that the limb is “not self” but
finds that the limb behaves towards the self
in a destructive and aggressive manner. This
could be explained by the assumption that
we lose our conscious sense of voluntary con-
trol over our bodies, our minds have to come
up with an explanation for the location of
action of our movements. We decide that if
we ourselves are not in control, then someone
or something else must be; therefore, we no
longer have a sense of the limb belonging to
us.

Because to lose control over our bodies is
one of the most terrifying experiences, our
attempt to explain this finding occurs in the
context of fear. It may be that our apprehen-
sion leads us to misinterpret innocent reflex-
ive acts of our hands, such as scratching or
rubbing, as malevolently inspired. Plus it
could be that our interpretation of spurious
possessions in turn inspire the alien hand
syndrome. In other words, plus this is our
conscious awareness.

It may therefore be that we need to believe
in our own free will and personal control over
our limbs, because if we did not, we might
lose the experience of our bodies acting as if we
merely along for the ride, too frighten-
ing. Also, we may no longer believe that our
bodies or its relevant parts belong to us. All
neurologists who have reported alien hand
syndrome remark on how psychologically
disturbing the symptom is for the patient.

Psychiatrists would be interested in the
parallels between alien hand syndrome and the
psychosis phenomena. So that in every case,
plus the fact that the two diseases may share
corpus callosal pathology, could give some
way to explaining why schizophrenic symp-
toms are frightening to the patient. So it
seems we know that our limbs belong to
us because they obey us. When they seem to
stop responding to our wills, we conclude
that our limbs are no longer our own, and try
to fend them off. Hence it would seem that one
of the prices we had to pay for the awareness
of ourselves to evolve as a function of the
brain, is the delusion that we are responsible
for all our actions. If we had con-
scious awareness of ourselves, but no sense of
free will, our bodies would feel alien to us.

The philosophical importance of alien hand
syndrome is that it shows emphatically via
neurology that it is possible to drive a wedge
between consciousness and the experience of
free will. The brain had to develop the sensa-
tion of free will after developing conscious-
ess, because being without the sensation of
free will produces extremely negative emo-
tional experiences. So the fact that every
case, so far reported of alien hand syndrome
imputes negative intent to the alien limb
might not be an incidental finding, but a core
aspect of the disorder.

R PERSAUD

The Maudsley Hospital, Croydon Mental Health Services, Wztsyys Rehabilitation Unit, 49 St James’s
Road, West Croydon, Surrey CR9 2BR, UK. Telephone 0844 181 700 8512; fax 0844 181 700 8504; email
rajendra@btinternet.com

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The authors reply:

We appreciate Persaud’s comments regarding
the alien hand syndrome, “the perceived
malevolence of the affected limb towards its
victim, and the question of whether with loss
of the conscious sense of voluntary control
over our bodies, our minds... decide that if
ourselves are not in control then someone or
something else must be”. We would offer that
the value of our particular case is that it was
due to a central deafferentation—therefore
the term “sensory alien hand syndrome”. As
opposed to the idea that "we know our limbs belong to us because they obey us," we know that our limbs belong to us because they provide us with sensory input that is recognised as self. Many patients with movement disorders or paralysis lose control of their limbs but still have no difficulty in recognising them as self. Indeed even in "phantom limb" there is sense of self due to central processes in the absence of a limb. Our patient, as do others with anosognosia and primary abnormalities of central sensory systems, shows perhaps that it is central sensory processes that are the key to identifying "self". We know our limbs not because they obey us but because there is a pattern of sensory activation that accompanies our own limb movements. When this pattern never reaches specific cortical regions, then the limb is not recognised as self, called "amorphosynthesis" by Derek Denny-Brown and Bell Banker. Selectivation by the centrally deafferented limb in "sensory" or "posterior" alien hand syndrome, or kinaesthetic stimuli due to movement of the limb as in the "anterior" or "motor" alien hand syndrome, is perceived as due to another person or thing without critical questioning. This raises the most interesting question of what brain region is deafferented in the anterior alien hand syndrome where the sensory processing is intact.

It is not our clinical experience nor the conclusions based on published reports that all patients suffering with alien hand syndrome can recover, let alone normal body perception. In one author's experience (BHP), two patients with alien hand syndrome and related intermural conflict were irritated by but not terrified by their opposing limbs simultaneously. They were asked to re-experience the alien hand phenomenon. The patient was shown to be familiar and recognize the body, but in neither patient was the body amused but rather indifferent to his affected left side. The most terrifying situation we have heard is when the patient identified his affected left side as belonging to his mother in law and patient. Selectivation by Heilman's group with persistent alien hand syndrome referred to it as "my little sister". Similar to our experience, they suggest that a persistent anosognosia type may be necessary given that most patients with collosal infarcts or tumours do not emphasise this complaint.

Unlike our case of limited duration, the persistence of the alien hand syndrome and its dependence on mesial frontal dysfunction, these patients rarely deny that the affected limb belongs to them. Instead, they understand it in terms of their "anarchic hand". Hence, although the initial syndrome may result in disjointed and terrifying perceptions, it seems that the brain quickly re-established its control by presently unknown adaptive capacities. Furthermore, why it almost exclusively involves the left body side in right-handed people remains unknown. Studying this syndrome in greater detail may yield additional insights into the pathophysiology of denial and misidentification.

HAKAN AY FERDINANDO S BUONONNO DEAN A LE WALTER J KOROSHEZT Department of Neurology, Stroke Service, Massachusetts General Hospital, Harvard Medical School, 32 Fruit Street, Boston MA 02114, USA
BRUCE H PRICE Department of Neurology, McLean Hospital, 115 Mill Street, Belmont MA 02178-9106, USA


Vasomotor reactivity is exhausted in transient ischaemic attacks with limb shaking

The article of Baumgartner and Baumgartner entitled "Vasomotor reactivity is exhausted in transient ischaemic attacks with limb shaking" provides interesting new information regarding the phenomenon of involuntary limb movements contralateral to haemodynamic failure from severe carotid artery occlusive disease. The authors evoke an "exhausted cerebral vasoreactivity in the hemispheres opposite the involuntary limb movements". In their report, involuntary movements affected only the limbs, and displayed no tonic contraction, tonic-clonic jerking, or Jacksonian march and no epileptic activity during attacks. These findings led the authors to strongly argue against seizures as the cause of limb shaking in these transient ischaemic events.

In contrast, a 72 year old right handed man was admitted to our hospital with a 3 month history of episodic weakness and numbness of the right arm. The patient then had six discrete stereotyped episodes of right arm weakness and clumsiness that were also associated with weakness of speech. Several episodes of dystarthish, numbness and weakness of the right arm and leg (MRC grade 4/5) were seen, unrelated to posture, some of which occurred when the patient was supine. Movements were characterised by slight tremulousness and asterixis-like movements of the outstretched right arm. There was a return to baseline functioning between events. Valsalva manoeuvres, however, showed low voltage spikes in the left central-parietal head regions contralateral to the facial twitching and the right arm and right leg weakness. Although ongoing clinical and EEG seizure activity stopped after 2 mg intravenous lorazepam, they reoccurred after loading with phenytoin. Because angiography disclosed a greater than 95% stenosis of the left internal carotid artery (while the patient was treated with aspirin at a concentration of 16.5 mg/l), the patient was anticoagulated with heparin, but episodes continued. It was only after a left carotid endarterectomy that all episodes disappeared, tremulousness, and EEG epileptiform activity stopped. They have not recurred over the past 5 years.

The literature includes several cases of focal motor inhibitory seizures causing weakness. Although it is impossible to prove a negative, it could be argued that although no epileptiform or other evidence of seizure activity is present in a particular case, the abolition of ongoing clinical and EEG evidence of inhibitory motor activity by intravenous diazepam argues in favour, at least in part, of an ictal contribution. The fact that in virtually all reported cases, abnormal movements are more definitively resolved by carotid endarterectomy, argues for an underlying ischaemic aetiology that induces focal seizures. There are few reports that clearly delineate the interaction and association of inhibitory focal motor seizures and transient ischaemic attacks, as there are few sequential trials of antiepileptic drugs or anticoagulation (under EEG monitoring) and finally carotid endarterectomy. Several authors support the concept of an inhibition of motor function in parietal and secondary somatosensory re-


Baumgartner and Baumgartner reply: We are grateful for the response of Kaplan to our short report. We agree that somatic inhibitory seizures may mimic transient ischaemic attacks (TIAs). Such TIAs are associated with negative symptoms such as sensorymotor deficits and difficulty with speaking, EEG evidence of seizure activity, and cessation of the TIAs after the administration of an anticonvulsant drug.2 Limb shaking TIAs, however, differ from TIAs related to inhibitory seizures in several ways.1 They are associated with positive phenomena (limb shaking), and the involuntary movements do not affect the facial musculature. Patients with attacks of shaking movements of the limbs have no EEG evidence of epileptic activity, and involuntary movements do not stop after administration of anticonvulsant therapy.3 Although the patient presented by Kaplan had a 95% stenosis of the left internal carotid artery, it is unclear whether haemodynamic failure was present or not, because no studies evaluating the haemodynamic reserve of the homolateral hemisphere were presented. This is in accordance with the finding that the involuntary movements as well as the sensorimotor deficits of Kaplan’s patient were not related to hypoperfusion.4 The pathogenesis of this disorder may be due to disinhibition of subcortical control mechanisms as a result of ischaemia.

In our opinion, it is not clear whether the asterixis-like movements of the outstretched right arm of Kaplan’s patient are due to epileptic seizures, because unilateral asterixis of the outstretched arm has been reported with contralateral vascular lesions affecting almost all cerebral structures involved in the homolateral hemisphere, and therefore the control including ischaemia in the territory of the middle cerebral artery.1

RALF W BAUMGARTNER Department of Neurology, University Hospital of Zürich, Switzerland
IRIS BAUMGARTNER Division of Angiology, University Hospital of Bern, Switzerland

Correspondence to: Dr Ralf W Baumgartner, Neurologische Klinik, Frauenklinikstrasse 26, CH-8091 Zürich, Switzerland. Telephone 0041 1 255 56 86; fax 0041 1 255 43 80; email Strub@neurol.unizh.ch


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BOOK REVIEWS


To the MRCP candidate neurology is one of the more daunting specialties. The unfamiliar nerve conduction study and the frankly mysterious EEG can distress an otherwise well rounded senior house officer. Despite the fact that much of neurology is commonly seen on a general medical ward—strokes, dementias and so forth—the general perception is of an unimaginable list of eponymous syndromes and obscure signs. Rather than dwell on the last, in this book Dr Smith tries to address the commoner complaints as examination style questions each with a “simple clinical les- son.” The “grey case” section, for instance, includes questions on multiple sclerosis, cluster headache, and HSV encephalitis, while broadening the topics to include postinfective demyelination, chronic herni- crania, and acute haemorrhagic encephalo- myelitis. There is, however, a tendency for the discussion after each question to be rather brief. A fuller explanation, with more allowance for the reader’s ignorance, would have been appreciated. The data interpretation section is somewhat better, covering CSF, EEG, and other data extremely well. Perhaps a little too well; would an MRCP candidate really be expected to recognise the character- istic EEG of Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease? I surely hope not. Finally, the slide tests are disappointing. If anything, neurology lends itself best to this section of the written exam- ination but it is let down by the poor quality of some of the images in this book. This is especially unfortunate, as other images in the same section are remarkably impressive. The Sturge-Weber skull radiograph and central pontine myelinolysis MRI are beautiful. In summary, this is a creditable first edition. I look forward to the second.

STEFAN MARCINIAK


This book, after a short introduction to some of the fundamental features of the disease goes on to provide some 117 illustrations of aspects of the disease from Cruveihier’s plates to histopathological specimens and also a heavy leaning to imaging particularly magn- netic resonance scanning, as might be expected. There is no doubt the aesthetic impact of this short book. In addition, the fact that these illustrations emanate from a well established figure in the multiple sclerosis world and are likely to be a representative set of personal teaching slides from a successful academic career all vouch for the provenance and informative nature of the atlas. However the place of such a book within a neurologist’s library has to be questioned. There are a plethora of high quality textbooks devoted to all aspects of multiple sclerosis; all well illus- trated and most in colour. They provide in depth analysis of all aspects of the disease and although their illustrations tend to be smaller this is where I would choose to put my money. It may be that the circulation of this book will be higher than expected as it is likely to be a popular choice for some pharmaceutical companies.

NEIL ROBERTSON


This monograph is the latest to be produced by the American Association of Neurological Surgeons as part of its Neurosurgical Topics series. It begins by tracing the history of cal- varial reconstruction from ancient times. There follows a discussion of the different autologous donor sites and synthetic materi- als currently available. The uses of calvarial and facial defects. The merits, disadvantages, and contraindications of each are considered. Dural substitutes are then dealt with in simi- lar fashion. Specific problems, such as scalp reconstruction, which involves use of commu- nited frontal sinus fractures, and reconstruc- tion of the anterior skull base are the subject of separate chapters. The final part of the book is devoted to craniosynostosis. A review of current knowledge on pathogenesis is followed by a good account of some of the more common techniques used to treat single suture synostosis. Understandably, in a book of this type there is space only for an overview of the treatment and complications of multi- suture involvement, but the chapter provides well chosen references for further reading.

The reconstruction of traumatic and post- surgical calvarial defects occupies the bulk of this volume, and is dealt with very effectively. Operative techniques and the relative merits of various materials are covered in a clear and concise manner. By contrast, the section on aural substitutes is a little disappointing because it does not provide the reader with reasoned argument on how to select the most appropriate graft from the sometimes bewild- ering variety of autologous, synthetic, and xenograft materials which are available when vascularised pericranial tissue is not an option.

Craniosynostosis is a topic which is covered very well in standard paediatric neuro- surgical texts and it is not worth buying this book for that section alone. However, the account of techniques for repair of calvarial defects is excellent and merits the inclusion of this text in a departmental library.

ROBERT MACFARLANE


Transcranial colour duplex sonography is an ultrasound technique which is becoming increasingly available for the non-invasive imaging of intracranial structures, particularly the basal cerebral arteries. There are now four principal components to the technique: B mode ultrasound which can be used to image the brain parenchyma; colour coded Doppler which provides a colour image of the basal vessels; spectral analysis of pulsed wave Doppler which is used to derive blood flow velocities; and latterly “power” Doppler which is also used for colour coding following analysis of the amplitude rather than the frequency of the reflected ultrasound beam. In addition, echocontrast agents are now available which can increase the signal to noise ratio and thus help diminish some of the detrimental acoustic effects of the skull.

This volume of 400 pages and liberal colour diagrams and prints is edited by three exponents of the technique. Thirty one chapters contain a further 10 on areas which may be less immediately suitable for ultrasound study. For example, the findings in head trauma, tumours, psychiatric disorders, and movement disorders are the subject of separate chapters. Although I have no prob- lem with enthusiasm for this technique a little pragmatism would not go amiss. A more balanced discussion of the limitations as well as potentials of the technique could have been applied.

As with any book with multiple authors there is some variation in style and overlap, particularly in the introductions and conclu- sions of the chapters. Nevertheless, it is a comprehensive current review of transcranial colour coded sonography. Although the reader must decide exactly how this tech- nique fits into clinical practice the book will certainly stimulate some ideas.

PETER MARTIN


This is volume 47 of a series entitled Neurological Disease and Therapy, series editor W C Koller. This volume is edited by an American surgeon and two British neuro- physiologists. Most of the 45 contributors are American or British, almost half of whom, including Dr Cole, are from Southampton. The book begins with a pathophysiologic
introduction setting the scene for the five main disease sections covering developmental genetic disease, spinal injury, infection, tumour, and the effect of neurological and systemic disease on the spinal cord. This chapter covers a wide area from multiple sclerosis to motor neuron disease to vascular disease to metabolic diseases. Then follows a section on investigation considering imaging, neurophysiology, and urodynamics. Finally, there is a miscellaneous section covering clinically important entities such as pain, sexual problems, and terminal care associated with spinal cord disease but also including a highly specialised chapter on the role of occupational health in spinal cord injury. This is an ambitious attempt at being comprehensive. The editors themselves worry that the emphasis favours surgical conditions. Although this might be the case, many surgical cases present to the neurologist or rheumatologist, care for spinal disease often falling between several specialties. Therefore, it is of benefit to the clinician to have all aspects of spinal disease in one volume. The standard and style of the individual chapters varies, that on motor neuron disease being up to date and topical, malignancies being covered in depth. That on sexual problems associated with spinal cord disease is excellent and especially practical and a must for both doctors dealing with spinal disease and for patients themselves who are often uninformed (our fault, not theirs). The chapter on depression illness will be food for thought for many doctors who enjoy recreational diving, for although studies have not yet shown adverse affects on the quality of life in those who dive frequently but without incident, the evidence for cumulative neurological damage from neurophysiological, imaging, and pathological studies is compelling. The quality of illustration is high. Perhaps not surprisingly, this is particularly evident in the imaging section (where there is a rather spectacular sagittal T2 weighted MRI of a intramedullary arteriovenous malformation). In addition to imaging many of the chapters also make good use of schematic diagrams and line drawings to enhance the text.

Drs Engler, Cole, and Merton end their preface by commenting that “Our main hope, however, is that the chapters will read as a series of views on the spinal cord and its disease, so that a surgeon may learn about current practice as well as the wide range of conditions affecting the cord that are outside the field of surgery”. While I agree that educating surgeons is an admirable aim, I think that the authors rather undersell themselves and that this book’s main strength, as I have said above, is that it will appeal to all disciplines that deal with spinal cord disease, bringing together neurological, rheumatological, and surgical disease that is often covered in separate textbooks.

GILLIAN HALL


This is the second time that I have been asked to review a book on this topic. The first time I approached the task with some scepticism—were neurological diseases in women really so different from those in men that they warranted their own text book? But I rapidly became a convert to the cause, being reminded that there are issues specific to females that influence both disease, investigation, and treatment (pregnancy, breast feeding, menopause, to name the most obvious) and that not all neurological diseases attack the sexes equally. There are also wider socioeconomic and legal issues that play a part in the complete disease picture which many of us neglect too often but which this book is careful to address (see below). Leaving content aside for a moment, this is a beautifully presented book; clearly headed and with wide use of well constructed tables. It encourages one to read on. It seems up to date and well referenced. The contributors (40 in total) are exclusively American, and east coast American at that with only occasional forays westward. The text is divided into three sections. The first, entitled *General Disease in Women* includes an anatomical chapter considering the sex differences of regional brain structure and function. More novel for this type of text, it contains two thoughtful chapters considering women’s health within the context of their lifestyles and women’s health and its relation with the law. This chapter considers issues such as coercive approaches to preventing foetal harm, those relating to informed consent to medical treatment, and difficult choices with neurological implications. The law and the case examples are exclusively American but the issues are universal. This opening section leaves no doubt that this is a book that has taken female issues extremely seriously. The second section looks at neurological diseases as they affect females at different life stages, from birth through menarche, pregnancy, and menopause, to the elderly woman. As well as considering genetic diseases that strike at a particular age, these chapters consider the influence of changing physiology and hormonal balance on neurological disease. The third section is the most conventional. Each chapter considers a neurological disease representing these diseases with emphasis on their effect on women and there is, by necessity, some overlap between this and the previous section. As a non-American, I would feel more comfortable to believe that the high number of female patients with peripheral nerve injuries secondary to physical beatings, knife wounds, or gunshot wounds reflected the country of origin of this book!

If pushed to criticise, the indexing could be more complete and certain conditions considered in more detail, in particular, paraneoplastic conditions associated with breast and gynaecological malignancies. However, that aside, I think this a rather special book and not only a good addition to any neurological library but a useful purchase for anyone interested in female medical issues.

GILLIAN HALL

The reader may be interested in the following:


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**CORRECTION**


During the editorial process the descriptions of the histograms in figure 4 (p 614) were wrongly ascribed. The corrected figure is reproduced below.
Paraneoplastic stiff limb syndrome

ISAAC E SILVERMAN

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