LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

Postictal psychosis related regional cerebral hyperperfusion

Postictal psychosis is a known complication of complex partial seizure in particular temporal lobe epilepsy. It usually runs a benign and self limiting course. A postictal phenomenon with focal cerebral hypofunction (similar to Todd's palsy), rather than ongoing seizure activity, has been postulated. Surface EEG is either normal or showing non-specific slow waves. Hence, antipsychotic medications are prescribed instead of antiepileptic drugs. Until recently, the pathogenic mechanisms have remained unknown. In this communication, we report on two patients with postictal psychosis, during which a cerebral SPECT study showed a hyperperfusion signal over the right temporal lobe and contralateral basal ganglion. As hyperperfusion in ictal cerebral SPECT is closely linked to epileptic activities, our findings support a contrary explanation for postictal psychosis.

Prolonged video-EEG telemetry study was performed in patients who underwent presurgical evaluation for epilepsy surgery. Antiepileptic drugs were withdrawn to facilitate seizure recording. A diagnosis of temporal lobe epilepsy was based on analysis of the electroclinical events and, if applicable, postoperative outcome after anterior temporal lobectomy. Psychosis was diagnosed according to the fourth edition of the diagnostics and statistical manual of mental disorders (DSM-IV) criteria of brief psychotic disorders without marked stressor. HMPAO-SPECT was performed during the psychotic period, which ranged from 2–4 days after the last seizure. Interictal cerebral SPECT, brain MRI, and a Wada test were performed as part of presurgical evaluation.

Patient 1 was a 34 year old Chinese woman with complex partial seizures since the age of 18. Her seizure control was suboptimal on a combination of antiepileptic drugs. Brain MRI showed a small hippocampus on the right. Interictal EEG showed bilateral temporal sharp waves and ictal recordings confirmed a right temporal epileptogenic focus. A Wada test confirmed right hippocampal memory dysfunction. Six hours after her last secondary generalised tonic-clonic seizure after video-EEG telemetry, she began to develop emotional lability, talking nonsense, motor restlessness, and auditory hallucination. A cerebral SPECT study was performed at day 4 after her last seizure. Her psychotic features persisted although she was taking antipsychotic medication (pimozide). Cerebral SPECT showed a clear hyperperfusion signal over the right lateral temporal neocortex and contralateral basal ganglion. An interictal cerebral SPECT study was repeated at 4 weeks after postictal psychosis which showed a complete resolution of hyperperfusion signal in the right temporal lobe and basal ganglia. Anterior temporal lobectomy was performed and she became seizure free after surgery.

Patient 2 was a 44 year old man with intractable complex partial seizures since the age of 30. His seizures were intractable to multiple antiepileptic drugs. Brain MRI showed left hippocampal sclerosis. Interictal cerebral SPECT showed a relative hyperperfusion area over the left hemisphere. Interictal surface EEG was non-lateralising but ictal EEG disclosed a right hemispheric onset. On withdrawal of antiepileptic drugs, seven complex partial seizures with secondary generalised tonic clonic seizures were recorded within a period of 72 hours. His usual antiepileptic drugs were then restarted. Thirty hours after his last secondary generalised tonic-clonic seizure, he began to develop emotional lability, talking nonsense, restlessness, auditory hallucination, persecutory delusion, and delusion of superstition. Cerebral SPECT study, performed 2 days later while his psychotic features persisted, showed two relative hyperperfused areas over the right temporal neocortex and contralateral basal ganglion in addition to the original hypoperfused area over the left hemisphere. An antipsychotic agent (thioridazine) was
started after the cerebral SPECT. His psychotic symptoms resolved 2 weeks later with full recovery.

Cerebral SPECT performed during the interictal period (IP) and during postictal psychosis (PP) were analysed visually and areas of hypoperfusion were identified. Quantitative data at regions of interest (ROIs) were measured on coronal and axial slides containing basal ganglia (BG), mesial (MT), and lateral (LT) temporal lobe structures. Asymmetry index (ASI) was calculated as ((ROI focus−ROI contralateral)/ROI focus+ROI contralateral)×100%. We set an arbitrary change of ASI >100% to be significant. As there were only two patients, statistical testing was not performed.

Both patients showed postictal psychosis and had a regional increase in rCBF over the right temporal neocortex and the left basal ganglia compared with their interictal study (figure). Quantitative analysis for patient 1 showed changes of ASI during IP and PP over right MT was +75% (+6.4467 to −1.6528); over the right LT was +116.7% (1.07927 to 12.5576); and over the left BG was +206.8% (+2.07373 to 2.21574). Quantitative analysis for patient 2 showed changes of ASI during IP and PP over right MT was +3.8% (13.14217 to 12.64158); over right LT was +178.6% (10.4696 to 18.70057); and over left BG was +155.9% (−5.85566 to 3.27522).

Postictal psychosis is a distinct clinical event associated with temporal lobe epilepsy. The diagnosis of postictal psychosis requires a close temporal relation between bouts of complex partial seizures and the onset of psychosis. The psychosis usually develops after a clinical episode. Partial seizures were unprovoked by a trigger. The clinical course of postictal psychosis is usually benign and predictable. In our patients, the duration of psychotic disturbances lasted from 1 day to 7 days, which is in keeping with the good prognosis. Antipsychotic drugs, such as haloperidol and fluphenazine are usually prescribed.

The underlying mechanism of postictal psychosis is unknown. Postictal cerebral hypofunction has been postulated as an analogue to Todd’s paralysis after seizure. However, the presence of increased rCBF during postictal psychosis, may suggest an alternative explanation as ictal SPECT has been shown to be highly sensitive and specific in demonstrating seizure foci.

To conclude, our results are contradictory to the hypothesis of Todd’s paralysis in postictal psychosis. We think that the hyperperfusion areas are responsible for the postictal psychosis. Further serial studies with cerebral SPECT or PET may enhance our understanding on the mechanism of postictal psychosis.

Oncofetal matrix glycoproteins in cerebral arteriovenous malformations and neighbouring vessels

Cerebral arteriovenous malformations (AVMs) are thought to be congenital lesions exhibiting features of either mature vascular walls or embryonal anastomotic plexuses. It is generally assumed that changes in size are dependent on enlargement of the venous compartment, organisation in the setting of microhaemorrhages, and gliosis. However, recent findings are consistent with the hypothesis of ongoing angiogenesis. Previous research from our laboratory disclosed that peculiar isoforms of fibronectin (FN) and tenasin (TN) typically occur in the vascular wall and the subendothelial layer. A positive response was found in several artery-like vessels and in a few vessels with thinner walls or isolated arterial-like lesions in different areas. In the present report the BC-1 mAb and the TN-12 Ab fragment containing the epitope produced in E Coli. For the mAb BC-1 we used the recombinant protein containing the type-III repeats 7B–8–9. For the mAb IST-4 we used the recombinant protein containing the type-III repeats 2–8. For the recombinant antibodies TN-11 and TN-12 the recombinant type-III repeat C and the recombinant fragment containing the BG-1 form were used.

All 10 AVMs were found to contain large amounts of FN and TN, as shown by intense immunostaining with the use of the IST-9 / IST-4 mAbs and the TN-12 Ab fragment. The staining was localised either in the endothelium or the subendothelial layer. A positive response was found in several artery-like vessels and in a few vessels with thinner walls or isolated arterial-like lesions in different areas. In the present report the BC-1 mAb and the TN-12 Ab fragment containing the epitope produced in E Coli. For the mAb BC-1 we used the recombinant protein containing the type-III repeats 7B–8–9. For the mAb IST-4 we used the recombinant protein containing the type-III repeats 2–8. For the recombinant antibodies TN-11 and TN-12 the recombinant type-III repeat C and the recombinant fragment containing the BG-1 form were used.

Six out of the 10 examined specimens were found to contain portions of cerebral tissue surrounding the angiomatus nidus. In all these cases the wall of several vessels exhibited intense staining with the use of the TN-11 Ab fragment. Using the BC-1 mAb some of these vessels exhibited some staining (figure). In the control specimens (brain and cerebellum) both the FN isoform containing the ED-B sequence (ED-B+FN), and the type III repeat C TN isoform were absent despite the widespread distribution of total FN and TN in the vascular walls.
Previous findings showed that ED-B+FN present with conformational modifications in its central part and results from deregulation of FN pre-mRNA. The distribution of this isoform was found to be highly restricted in normal adult tissues. By contrast, ED-B+FN exhibited widespread distribution in the vasculature of fetal tissues, including brain, and of several types of malignancies. It was therefore regarded as a marker of angiogenesis.

Similarly, the type III repeat C TN isoform, recognised by the Ab fragment TN-11, was found to occur in the vascular walls of anaplastic gliomas. Northern blot analysis showed that the mRNA of this isoform was undetectable in normal tissues and some malignancies, but was present in large amounts in fetal tissues, including brain, and in glioblastomas.

Recent advances in the pathology of cerebral AVMs suggest that these lesions might not be static. Tyrosine kinase, an endothelial cell specific receptor upregulated in glioblastomas, was found to be highly expressed in both AVMs and in the vessels of cerebral tissue bordering the malformations, by contrast with the down regulation occurring in the vasculature of the normal brain. The pattern of distribution of structural proteins was consistent with the hypothesis of diffuse activation of angiogenesis, without specific relation to individual vessel types.

Furthermore, use of the cell proliferation marker MB-1 showed endothelial proliferation in arterioles, venules, and capillaries of the cerebral tissue neighbouring AVMs.

The present findings indicate that a particular FN isoform, mainly expressed by the vasculature of fetal and tumorous tissues, as well as a TN isoform typically detected in the walls of vessels in anaplastic gliomas, also occur in AVMs and in vessels of adjacent cerebral tissue, but that both isoforms are absent in normal brain. This evidence provides further support to the hypothesis of ongoing angiogenesis in and around these lesions.

The presence of angiogenic features in AVMs might result from maintenance of proliferating and remodelling potentials, or from a specific response to haemodynamic stress in vascular structures subjected to increased blood flow and pressure. Occurrence of these features also in vessels lying in areas peripheral to the nidus might be related to recruitment of the neighbouring vasculature, possibly dependent on focal ischaemia in the setting of arteriovenous shunting. However, the presence in apparently normal vasculature of molecules typically occurring in fetal tissues and malignancies indicates that cerebral AVMs may not be static lesions. Further studies are needed to ascertain whether this phenomenon results merely from haemodynamic stress or actually reflects an intrinsic growth potential. Should this second be the case, current therapeutic strategies would possibly require revision.

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Hashimoto's encephalopathy presenting as "myxoedematous madness"

The neuropsychiatric sequelae of hypothyroidism range from lethargy and mental slowing to the florid psychotic illness referred to as "myxoedematous madness". The last condition is characterised by frank hypothyroidism accompanied by psychosis, and may respond completely to thyroxine. More recently described is a syndrome of subacute encephalopathy, associated with high titres of thyroid autoantibodies, raised CSF protein, EEG abnormalities, and perfusion deficits in the presence of normal structural neuroimaging. In most cases, the encephalopathy occurs without any gross change in circulating concentrations of thyroid hormones, suggesting that an inflammatory process is responsible for the cerebral dysfunction. In the absence of pathological data, the evidence for a specific pathogenetic mechanism is largely circumstantial: a small vessel vasculitis and immune complex deposition have both been suggested.

Although none of the published cases of Hashimoto's encephalopathy has described psychosis as a primary feature, it is possible that "myxoedematous madness", a condition first described in detail by Asher in 1949, lies in a range of encephalopathic phenomena mediated by autoimmune mechanisms. This suggestion would certainly be consistent with the range of clinical presentations of other autoimmune cerebral vasculitides. As an autoimmune thyroiditis is the commonest cause of hypothyroid failure in this country, it is likely that some cases have been present in at least some of Asher's original 14 cases. Although most had florid myxoedematous features at psychiatric presentation, this may simply reflect the difficulty of diagnosing subclinical thyroid disease before rapid laboratory assays became widely available. Many features of the present case, however, favoured an endocrine rather than an inflammatory mechanism, suggesting that the condition of "myxoedematous madness", though rare, remains a valid diagnostic entity.

A 63 year old market stallholder without medical or psychiatric history was brought to a local psychiatric hospital by the police. His business had been in decline for several months, and his family had noticed uncharacteristic emotional lability. In the weeks preceding admission he had experienced delusions and hallucinations, and exhibited uncharacteristic behaviour. He had reported a vision of the crucifixion, and hearing the voice of his dead mother. He claimed that his house was occupied by the devil, drove around aimlessly in his car, and appeared constantly fearful and withdrawn. On the day of admission he had made a bonfire in the garden and burned his wife's clothes, family photographs, furniture, and newspaper papers. When his wife and son tried to intervene he...
became aggressive and threatened them with a saw. The general practitioner was called and confirmed that he had bought a new psychocut and was a severe depressive illness. Police assistance was requested because of the patient's continuing violent behaviour.

On admission he was unkempt but cooperative and showed no signs of depression, but displayed no insight into the irregularity of his behaviour. No psychotic features were seen, although during the admission he consistently rationalised all reported psychotic phenomena. He was aggressive towards staff and made repeated attempts to abscond. General physical examination was unremarkable. Neurological examination was normal except for spoken language which was fluent and grammatical, but contained word finding pauses, circumlocutions, and occasional semantic errors (for example, “I just want to get my feet back on the table”). Formal neuropsychological testing, and a screen of laboratory tests for reversible causes of encephalopathy, were performed on admission, and results are presented below (column A). Attention is drawn to the mild naming deficit, and poor performance on the Rey figure, which was due to planning rather than visuospatial errors, suggesting a predominantly “dysexecutive” pattern. CT and EEG were normal and the SPECT abnormal-
tity was marginal and changed little, if at all.

The mild and relatively circumscribed neurophysiological deficits coupled with florid psychotic phenomena, also contrast with the profound global disturbance of cognition usually associated with Hashimoto's encephalopathy. This distinction suggests that microvascular disruption and thyroid hormone depletion may emphasise different aspects of the clinical range in Hashimoto's encephalopathy. Although the present case presented insidiously during the past month after 2 months.

In summary, therefore, this patient presented in clear consciousness with a first episode of acute psychosis, and evidence of subtle executive and linguistic neuropsychological disturbance, on the background of gradual behavioural and affective change. He was profoundly hypothyroid due to an autoimmune thyroiditis, but there was no clinical evidence of thyroid failure other than the abnormal mental state. The psychiatric component of his illness recovered fully, and the antithyroid microsomal antibody titre fell markedly after thyroxine replacement, although his mild neuropsychological deficits remained unchanged. Corticosteroids were not used at any stage.

The response to thyroxine does not, in itself, imply that the cerebral illness had an endocrine origin; a recent report described a patient with a subacute encephalopathic illness and compensated hypothyroidism in the presence of increased antimicrosomal antibodies, all of which responded to thyroxine replacement alone. In this case, however, both EEG and SPECT were abnormal, the SPECT showing multiple areas of severely reduced perfusion, which normalised with treatment. By contrast, in the present case the EEG was normal and the SPECT abnormal-
ity was marginal and changed little, if at all, with treatment. The evidence for a significant vasculitic component to the illness is, therefore, unconvincing.

Involuntary movements occur
cluded in the differential diagnosis of diseases which present with an alien hand.

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the literature seems to describe distinct forms of alien hand. All share the occurrence of involuntary movements contrary to the patient’s stated intent, but the types of movement differ. In the callosal form, there are purposeful movements of the non-dominant hand. In the fronto-occipital form, there is grasping and utilisation behaviour of the dominant hand. In the corticobasal degeneration, there are aimless movements of either hand.1,2 When a consequence of thalamic or vascular pathology, alien hands can perform complex acts such as trying to tear clothes or undoing buttons. The description by MacGowan et al has characteristics of the callosal form (especially in patient 2). However, our case suggests that the alien hand sign in CJD may appear in a different type, performing less complex movements which resemble those reported by Riley et al in corticobasal degeneration.3 These authors described the alien limb as “involuntarily rising and touching the mouth and eyes” (patient 1). The patient thought that she was powerless to stop this movement and when directed to stop responded that “she didn’t want” it. Another patient’s left arm was at times “elevated in front of him”, while he was “unaware of this situation until his attention was called to it” (patient 10).

Another related phenomenon coined as “arm levitation” was reported in progressive supranuclear palsy. In these patients the arm involuntarily raised and performed semi-purposeful movements.

One common denominator between CJD, corticobasal degeneration, and progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy, in which an alien hand sign has also been described, is multifocality. In corticobasal degeneration, it was proposed that more than one site is affected or that a “release” phenomenon occurs accounting for the aetiology of alien hand.4 In CJD, bilateral cortical damage to motor areas might be the origin of their subsequent isolation and disconnection. We suggest that CJD should be added to the differential diagnosis of diseases presenting with an alien hand with or without myoclonus.

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Correspondence to: Dr R Inzelberg, Department of Neurology, Hillel Yaffe Medical Center, Hadera, Isreal.

e-mail neurology@hillel-yaffe.health.gov.il


Recurrent peripheral neuropathy in a girl with celiac disease

The involvement of the peripheral nervous system (PNS) in children with celiac disease is particularly rare. Furthermore, in both children and adults with celiac disease, neurological complications are chronic and progressive.1

We report on a 12 year old girl affected by celiac disease, who on two separate occasions presented with an acute peripheral neurological syndrome after accidental reintroduction of gluten in her diet.

This patient was born uneventfully to healthy non-consanguineous parents with no family history of neurological or metabolic diseases. At the age of 6 months she was diagnosed as having celiac disease according to the European Society of Paediatric Gastroenterology and Nutrition (ESPAG) criteria. Since then she was on a strict gluten free diet and was asymptomatic until the age of 10 years when severe diarrhoea, vomiting, and abdominal pain manifested 6 days after the intake of corn flake cereal thought to be gluten free. No previous infections had been noticed. One week after the onset of these symptoms she experienced acute weakness and pins and needles sensation confined to her legs. At that time her parents stopped her intake of corn flakes on the suspicion that these were responsible for the symptoms. Despite this, symptoms worsened during the next 2 days, confining her to bed.

At hospital admission, she was alert and mentally stable. Results of general physical examination were unremarkable. Neurological examination disclosed symmetric, predominantly distal, weakness of the legs; the knee jerks and ankle reflexes were depressed; plantar reflexes were flexor. Distal stocking glove decreased in pin prick and temperature with sparing of proprioception and light touch. Coordination tests were normal.

Laboratory investigations showed a white cell count of 9300/mm3.1 The results of the following investigations were within the normal limits: haemogram, erythrocyte sedimentation rate, serum urea, nitrogen, electrolytes, creatinine, glucose, transaminase, bilirubin, immunoglobulins (Igs), lead, iron, copper, urinalysis, urinary porphyrin, folic acid, and vitamins A, B1, B12, E, and A. Antibodies to Campylobacter jejuni, Borrelia burgdorferi, and antinuclear antibodies, specific and non-specific organ autoantibodies, IgA and IgG antigliadin antibodies (AGAs), IgA antiendomysium antibodies (EMA’s), and IgA antireticulin antibodies (ARA) were negative. Assayed by enzyme linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) and immunofluorescence (IF) were also negative. Lumbar puncture was not performed. Anti-bodies against gangliosides GM1 and GD1b, myelin associated glycoprotein and myelin
The present case, however, differs clinically from those with neurological involvement previously reported. In the paediatric age group, in fact, neurological complications of celiac disease are rarely encountered and are mostly confined to the CNS; to the best of our knowledge, there are only two previously reported cases of PNS involvement in children with celiac disease. In both cases, however, these were chronic axonal polyneuropathies presenting during a gluten free diet. In both episodes in the present case neurophysiology was strongly supportive of a demyelinating peripheral neuropathy, which is most commonly attributed to a direct immune mediated attack to the myelin. By contrast, wallerian and axonal degeneration may be caused by vasculitis, and nutritional, metabolic, and toxic factors.

An autoimmune pathogenesis in association with strong evidence of a genetic susceptibility has been proposed for celiac disease. Although it is well established that AGA, EMA, and ARA are reliable indicators of sensitisation to gluten at least at the time of diagnosis, in the clinical practice at follow up, during a gluten challenge, pathological values of these antibodies may not be detected. In the present case the time course of the disease might be suggestive of an antibody mediated response. However, we could not detect pathological concentrations of AGA, EMA, or ARA antibodies either during the course of the disease or at follow up.

It is known that in celiac disease many immunological perturbations can occur outside the gastrointestinal tract. Crossing of the antigens through a damaged small intestinal mucosa, deposition of immune complexes in target organs, a reduction in immune surveillance, mechanism of molecular mimicry, and activated T cell response may contribute to the pathogenesis of the diseases associated with celiac disease. Direct toxic effects of gliadin and vitamin deficiency are other possible pathogenic mechanisms of damage to the nervous system. Although we ruled out a vitamin deficiency it is still questionable whether a toxic neuropathy can be the case. In conclusion, the present case shows two major issues: an acute polyneuropathy can be a complication of celiac disease in childhood and its benign course could help in the understanding of the underlying pathogenic mechanisms.

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AGATA POLIZZI
MARIA FINOCCHIARO
ENZO PARANO
PIERO PAVONE
Division of Paediatric Neurology, Department of Paediatrics, University of Catania
Catania, Italy

Correspondence to: Dr Agata Polizzi, Division of Paediatric Neurology, Department of Paediatrics, University of Catania, Viale A Doria 6, 95125 Catania, Italy email: rupo@ctonline.it


Frontal release signs in older people with peripheral vascular disease

A growing body of research examining neurological aspects of clinically "silent" cerebrovascular disease suggests that neurological signs indicative of generalised organic brain damage may occur in the absence of completed stroke. These soft signs include primitive reflexes (frontal release signs), representing an anatomical and functional deafferentation of cortical from subcortical structures. Primitive reflexes are known to occur in a wide variety of dementia conditions, including Alzheimer's disease and vascular dementia. It is likely that the presence of undetected cerebrovascular disease accompanying peripheral vascular disease is underestimated, as peripheral vascular disease is known to be a risk factor for transient ischaemic attacks. A study assessing 373 older patients with peripheral vascular disease found that 72 of the 144 patients who had not experienced a transient ischaemic attack, or stroke sign, were found to have a degree of carotid stenosis of between 60% and 99%.

In the present study, the prevalence of primitive reflexes was examined in a group of patients with peripheral vascular disease and a non-vascular control group. Independent predictors of these reflexes were also examined in peripheral vascular disease. Both groups were drawn from the same geographical area. All were interviewed and examined outside hospital by myself. Interviewees were community residents from the catchment area of an inner city London teaching hospital.

Twenty five consecutive non-amputees on the waiting list for femoropopliteal bypass operation were compared with 25 postoperative patients who had undergone elective hip or lower limb replacement and a period of rehabilitation. All participants were aged 65 and over at the time of interview. Patients with peripheral vascular disease had all clinical and Doppler proved disease of peripheral ischaemia. Controls were interviewed between 6 months and 1 year after their operation. Both groups had no history of stroke or transient ischaemic attack.

A more detailed description of instruments is provided elsewhere. All subjects were
examined using a rating scale for the examination of frontal release signs (FRSS), with nine operationally defined items, each on a seven point semiquantitative scale. The nine reflexes were paratonia and palmpomenal, hand grasp, foot grasp, glabellar, rooting, snout, and visual/tactile sucking reflexes. Neuropsychological measures included the assessment of frontal lobe function (trailmaking tests A and B, behavioural dyscontrol scale, and the controlled word association test) and generalised cognitive impairment (CAMCOG). Depression was assessed using the Hamilton rating scale for depression, 15 item geriatric depression scale, and diagnostic criteria for DSM IV major depressive disorder. Family history of depression, wish to die, and suicidal ideation within the past year were also recorded, as were blood pressure and a checklist for chronic physical illness.

Total FRSS scores and scores on FRSS scales were compared between groups using the Mann-Whitney U test for independent samples. In the peripheral vascular disease group, a correlation matrix for total FRSS score against DSMIV depression, CAMCOG scores, behavioural dyscontrol scale score, verbal fluency score (total number of words beginning with F, A, and S) and trailmaking test times was examined using the Spearman correlation coefficient, corrected for ties. Sex, blood pressure, and chronic physical illness. Behavioural dyscontrol scale scores, trailmaking A/B test times, and verbal fluency scores were first converted into binary variables according to whether they were at/below or the median value for the group. CAMCOG score was divided into subjects scoring 69 or above or less than 69. Those associations with a two tailed significance of 0.1 or less were then entered into a linear regression equation using the stepwise method.

Patients with peripheral vascular disease had a higher mean score on the frontal release signs scale than controls (5.8 (SD 4.6) v 1.7 (SD 1.0), Mann-Whitney U = 1400, Z = 3.33, two tailed p < 0.001), as well as on glabellar and rooting reflexes (table). Only one variable (trailmaking B test time) was entered into the equation; this accounted for 23% of the variance in FRSS score (B = 4.6, p = 0.01). This is a significant finding between the two groups, limit the present study. However, there is some evidence that clinically relevant cerebrovascular disease may accompany peripheral vascular disease and that prominent disruption of frontal/subcortical brain function may not present with hard neurological signs. As it is possible that silent brain infarction was present in patients with peripheral vascular disease, further studies incorporating brain imaging are required before there can be a clearer understanding of the relation between peripheral and central vascular pathology.

I thank Dr Robert Howard for supervision of this study and Professor and Mr Paul Baskerville for allowing me to interview patients under their care. The study was carried out as part of a University of London MD thesis.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hand grasp</th>
<th>Foot grasp</th>
<th>Glabellar</th>
<th>Palmpomenal</th>
<th>Paratonia</th>
<th>Rooting</th>
<th>Snout</th>
<th>Sucking (tactile)</th>
<th>Sucking (visual)</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>U</td>
<td>pValue</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>274.0</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>312.5</td>
<td>199.5</td>
<td>287.5</td>
<td>287.0</td>
<td>235.5</td>
<td>287.5</td>
<td>261.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p Higher mean score in people with peripheral vascular disease.

Small numbers of patients, which may also have obscured other significant findings between the two groups, limit the present study. However, there is some evidence that clinically relevant cerebrovascular disease may accompany peripheral vascular disease and that prominent disruption of frontal/subcortical brain function may not present with hard neurological signs. As it is possible that silent brain infarction was present in patients with peripheral vascular disease, further studies incorporating brain imaging are required before there can be a clearer understanding of the relation between peripheral and central vascular pathology.

Rahul Rao
Department of Old Age Psychiatry, Maudsley Hospital
Institute of Psychiatry, London
Correspondence to: Dr Rahul Rao, Department of Old Age Psychiatry, Guy's, King's, and St Thomas Medical School, Job Ward, Thomas Guy House, Guy's Hospital, St Thomas Street, London SE1 9RT, UK email rao@globalnet.co.uk


Factitious clock drawing and constructional apraxia

A 45 year old man presented with a 1 day history of headache, possible seizures, and left sided weakness. On the day of presentation the patient's wife had twice found him, incoherently, on the floor. After the second such episode she brought him to hospital for evaluation. Examination disclosed a complete left hemiplegia and hemianesthesia, although muscle tone was documented to be normal and the plantar responses downgoing bilaterally. Brain CT was normal and routine blood examination was unremarkable. There were no further seizure-like episodes and the patient was transferred to this hospital 10 days later, hemiplegia unchanged, for possible angiography and further investigations.

He was an exsmoker with hypercholesterolaemia and peripheral vascular disease which had been treated by a left femoral angioplasty 5 years earlier. The angioplasty was complicated by the occurrence of an exsmoker to be related to dye injection, and phenytoin had been prescribed for a short time thereafter. There was a remote history of heavy alcohol use, but he had been abstinent for several years. His father had had a stroke at the age of 65.

Six months earlier the patient had also collapsed at home and been taken to hospital with a left hemiplegia. Brain CT at that time was normal, as were carotid Doppler studies and an echocardiogram. During that admission to hospital, several generalised seizure-like episodes were seen, some with retained consciousness, and he had again been started on phenytoin therapy. A follow up patient brain MRI was normal and it was concluded that the hemiplegia was non-organic in origin. He was described to have made a gradual, near complete, recovery from this first hemiplegic episode and was scheduled for an imminent return to work at the time of his relapse.

On transfer to this hospital the patient was alert, oriented, and cooperative. Although up to date on current affairs and able to describe the investigations performed at the transferring hospital, he scored only 23/30 on a mini mental state examination, with absent three word recall, impaired registration, and poor copying of a two-dimensional line. Further bedside neuropsychological testing showed other findings indicative of constructional apraxia and left hemineglect. Specifically, when asked to draw a clock with the time at 10 minutes to 2 o'clock, all the numbers, and the clockhands, were placed on the right hand side of the clock outline (figure A). Copying of three dimensional line drawings was also significantly impaired (figure B). When asked to bisect a line, he was minimal to the right of the midpoint (58% of the distance from the left side).

Cranial nerve examination suggested an incongruent and inconsistent left hemianopia to confrontation testing but was otherwise normal, including bilaterally symmetric optokinetic nystagmus. Motor examination showed paralysis of the left arm and leg, with bilaterally symmetric bulk, tone, and deep tendon reflexes. The plantar response was flexor bilaterally. Sensory examination showed decreased pinprick and absent light touch, joint position sense, and vibration sense on the entire left side. There was also impaired perception of a tuning fork's vibration on the left side of the forehead, with a distinct demarcation in the midline. The rest of the physical examination was unremarkable.

Brain CT and MRI, CSF examination, and routine EEG were normal. Routine haematological and metabolic analyses plus erythrocyte sedimentation rate, serum lactate, prothrombin time/partial thromboplastin time, fasting serum glucose, HbA1c, serum Ig survey, and thyroid stimulating hormone were all within normal limits. A hypercoagulability profile was negative. A lipid profile showed mild hyperlipidaemia with increased low
A 53 year old, right handed, black man, who was brought to the emergency room a few hours after developing an intense headache and left sided numbness and weakness. On admission he was described as “belligerent,” “agitated,” and “confused.” Blood pressure was 240/160. Neurological examination disclosed left lower facial droop, decreased left corneal and gag reflexes, and left hemiparesis with dense sensory deficits. With increasing obtundation, the patient was transferred to the intensive care unit and intubated. Brain MRI showed a large, left sided, hyperacute thalamic bleed with mass effect and oedema. The patient was extubated. 2 days later and 4 days after the stroke, he was described as being drowsy and inattentive, but was able to answer questions.
appropriately. Neurological examination showed contralateral gaze preference, supranuclear vertical gaze palsy, difficulty converging, left sided flaccid hemiparesis, and dense, left sided hemisensory. Deep tendon reflexes were absent on the left and Babinski's reflex was present on the left. In addition, visual extinction and neglect were present.

At the time of onset of right sided weakness the patient insisted that he was “fine,” and an ambulance was called over his objections. After being extubated, the patient acknowledged that he had had a stroke, but, despite his hemiparesis, insisted that he was ready to go home and go back to work. His belief in his ability to walk led to near falls, and he was more following the nurses’ orders than his own. His initial examination for closer observation. He told the nurses that someone else’s arm was in his bed. On one occasion, holding up his left arm with his right, he told the nurse to, “take it away; it keeps scratching me.” That the left arm “smelled funny” was another reason he wanted the nurses to take it away.

Four weeks after the stroke he first acknowledged that his left arm belonged to him. He was able to consciously recalled being otherwise. By this time he had a moderate hemiplegia and recognised “a little weakness,” but continued to insist that he was well and able to return to work. By the 6th week another patient more consistently acknowledged that he was weak on the left side of his body. A request for disabled housing “so that I won’t be a burden to my family” seemed to indicate an appreciation of his impaired function, which was confirmed within an hour of making such statements the patient might insist that after a week’s exercise he would be ready to return to work. His awareness of his hemiplegia fluctuated for 8 weeks after stroke before becoming fixed, but remained shallow after 12 weeks; he no longer planned to return to work and applied for social security disability insurance “because they say I’m disabled.”

The patient’s mood was remarkably cheerful and optimistic. A week after the stroke he was noted to praise extravagantly the hospital food, and the nurses found him “talkative.” When he arrived on our ward 11 days after the stroke, he seemed disturbed, though not confused, was “a little overexcited,” and in a later paper he presented a case in which there was “a certain agitation, which expresses itself by exaggerated loquacity, a decrease in attention, and a tendency to erotic ideas.”

Anosognosia is a condition in which a patient is unable to recognize a deficit in their own body. This can be thought of as a lack of awareness of a deficit. For example, a patient with a stroke may not recognize that their arm is paralyzed. The presence of anosognosia can be a significant problem for patients, as it can lead to difficulty in rehabilitation and decreased quality of life. The presence of anosognosia is also associated with a poorer prognosis for recovery. It is important to identify and address anosognosia in order to improve patient outcomes.
less commonly (only 1 of 74 seizures recorded). A review in 1996 of the “ictal bradycardia syndrome” showed only 15 documented cases in the literature of either bradycardia or asystole associated with seizures. Most patients had temporal lobe seizures. The longest duration of asystole previously reported is in a 17 year old man with temporal lobe epilepsy who sustained a 22 second pause in cardiac output. More typically the asystolic periods in documented cases are in the region of 5–10 seconds. Shorter duration asystole may not compromise cerebral function sufficiently to cause loss of consciousness. Implantation of a cardiac pacemaker is advocated but does not ensure that lapses of consciousness are eliminated if these are directly related to the seizure rather than to the secondary asystole. We report on a patient with epileptic cardiac asystole of 25 seconds duration demonstrated by prolonged simultaneous EEG/ECG monitoring which responded well to pacemaker insertion.

A previously well 34 year old right handed builder was referred with a 1 year history of fortnightly episodes of loss of consciousness. There was no associated warning, aura, chest pain, or palpitations and the patient was only aware of the episode once consciousness was lost.

16 Channel ictal EEG (eight channels illustrated with ECG) showing electrographic seizure onset and subsequent bradycardia and asystole.
restored and he found himself lying on the floor. On recovery there was no confusion, drowsiness, dysphasia, or diuresis. Often, however, he sustained soft tissue injuries to his face and scalp.

Witnesses reported that the patient would, while staring straight ahead with a glazed look, suddenly collapse on the ground where he would remain unrousable, inaccessible, and motionless for 90 to 120 seconds. On two occasions he appeared confused and disoriented immediately before a collapse. During the period of unconsciousness he would demonstrate no involuntary movements, orofacial automatisms, or cyanosis but he would become pale and “ashen” while staring straight ahead with a glazed look. Observation of the episode his father would return to normal and within 2 minutes he would have fully recovered. Unusually during one reported episode of unconsciousness he was seen to briefly extend the fingers of both hands.

He was admitted to his local hospital and CT, MRI, interictal EEG, and 24 hour ECG were normal. No episodes were witnessed while he was an inpatient but they were thought no longer to occur in or around the house before he was started on phenytoin, with no benefit. Carbamazepine was added, again with minimal effect.

The patient was then referred to the Epilepsy Assessment Centre of The National Society for Epilepsy and National Hospital for Neurology and Neurosurgery for further investigation and management.

Cardiovascular and neurological examination was normal as were MRI and routine interictal EEG. Sixteen channel ambulatory EEG using an Oxford Instruments digital EEG receiver was performed continuously for 340 hours before an episode was captured. Intracerebral ryes spikes were seen over the right hemisphere in anaesthetised rats has been shown to induce tachycardia and more caudal region stimulation to cause bradycardia. It has been hypothesised that there is lateralisation with respect to central autonomic cardiac control with an increase in heart rate seen after an increase in stimulation of amobarbital and inactivation of the left hemisphere and a decrease in heart rate on right hemispheric inactivation. Experimental stimulation of the rostral posterior insular cortex in anaesthetised rats has been shown to produce an increase in heart rate while stimulation of the insular cortex (particularly posteriorly) produced bradycardia and a depressor response significantly more often than tachycardia and a pressor effect. It was suggested that an epileptic discharge in the insular cortex may result in cardiac arrhythmias.

Recurrent episodes of loss of consciousness are a common clinical problem. An accurate diagnosis relies principally on the patient’s and witnesses’ accounts of events. Further investigations are frequently required which are often normal unless an episode is captured digitally. Recording solely the EEG or the ECG may result in erroneous conclusions being drawn and insufficient or inappropriate therapy being instituted. Distinction between a primary cardiac arrhythmia and a secondary central arrhythmia is possible only with simultaneous EEG/ECG recordings.

FEGUS R JIRGGU N JOHN S DUNCAN SHELLEY J SMITH

Epilepsy Research Group, University of Clinical Neurology, Institute of Neurology, The National Hospital for Neurology and Psychiatry, Queen Square, London WC1N 3BG, UK

Correspondence to: Professor John S Duncan, National Society for Epilepsy, Chalfont St Peter, Gerrards Cross, Bucks SL9 0RJ, UK email: j.duncan@ion.ucl.ac.uk


Respiratory insufficiency in a patient with hereditary neuropathy with liability to pressure palsy

Hereditary neuropathy with liability to pressure palsies (HNPP) is an autosomal dominant disorder, the molecular basis of which is a 1.5 Mb deletion in chromosome 17p11.2 including the peripheral myelin protein-22 (PMP-22) gene. HNPP typically presents recurrent pressure palsies of peripheral nerves, such as the axillary, median, radial, ulnar, or peroneal nerves, at common entrapment sites. Respiratory muscle weakness has not been previously reported in HNPP. We describe a patient with HNPP, with respiratory failure and proximal muscle weakness who became progressively weak and had difficulty with stair climbing.

The patient started to have dyspnoea on exertion at the age of 44. At the age of 47, he noticed a slowly progressive weakness of the pelvic girdle and lower limbs. At the age of 57, he experienced difficulty in going up stairs. However, he was almost independent in daily life. At the age of 60, he was admitted to The Princess Red Cross Hospital with a diagnosis of respiratory failure, due to CO and nocardia (PCO 117.6, PO 64.0). Reasons for mechanical ventilation support, he completely recovered consciousness within a day. His respiratory condition in the daytime improved to that previously. However, he needed mechanical ventilation during sleep because of nocturnal hyperventilation.

The patient had no history of diabetes mellitus, pulmonary disorders or other medical problems. There was no familial history of neurological disorder, including entrapment neuropathies. After a few months, he noticed in his teens he had experienced some episodes of right peroneal and right axillary nerve palsies which resolved themselves over a few months.

In a neurological examination, the patient’s mental state and cranial nerves were normal. Evidence of muscular atrophy and moderate lordosis was found. The muscular atrophy was prominent in the shoulder girdle, intercostal muscles, paravertebral muscles, and pelvic girdle, and moderate atrophy was present in all four limbs (figure). There was moderate weakness of the shoulder and pelvic girdle and mild weakness of the distal limbs. The thorax showed poor respiratory movement, and the patient showed paradoxical movement of the abdomen in the supine position. Tendon reflexes were hyporeactive in all limbs. The patient’s sensations of touch and pain were mildly impaired in the four limbs. His position sense was normal. His vital capacity was 1.9 l (55% of the normal mean) in the sitting position, but 1.3 l (38%) in the supine position. The percentage of forced expiratory volume in 1 second was normal (99%) as was the flow volume graph at inspiration and expiration showed poor movement of the diaphragm but no abnormality in the lung field. Routine haematological and serological studies gave normal results. No monoclonal or polyclonal proteins were detected. IgG and IgM antibodies to gangliosides GM1 and GD1b were negative. Analysis of CSF showed 1 lymphocyte/mm3 and 25 mg/dl protein. Motor nerve conduction studies showed prolonged distal latencies in the right median (8.8 ms (normal value in our laboratory <4.6)) and ulnar (6.2 ms (normal >3.6)) nerves, and moderate decreased conduction velocities in the right median (50 ms (normal >45)), ulnar (45 ms (normal >49)), tibial (35 ms (normal >38)), and peroneal (29 ms (normal >41)) nerves. There were moderate decreases in the amplitude of compound action potentials in all the nerves tested, and an amplitude reduction of 50% was detected across the cubital tunnel of the right ulnar nerve. Minimum F wave latencies were prolonged in all the nerves tested. The latency of the right phrenic nerve was slightly increased.
Sensory nerve conduction studies showed a reduced amplitude of sensory nerve action potentials and conduction slowing in all the nerves tested. Electromyography carried out in the supraspinatus, deltoid, biceps, flexor carpi ulnaris, brachioradialis, quadriceps femoris, biceps femoris, tibialis anterior, and gastrocnemius muscles showed polyphasic motor unit potentials of long duration, but denervation potentials were rare. A left sural nerve biopsy showed scattered tomacula.

The density of the myelin sheath and some abnormalities were typical for HNPP. Although respiratory muscle weakness has been reported in hereditary motor and sensory neuropathy (HMSN), there has been no report of respiratory insufficiency associated with HNPP to our knowledge.

The weakness of the truncal muscles, including the respiratory accessory muscle, is a possible cause of respiratory failure in our patient. On the other hand, he had experienced hyperventilation in the supine posture and paradoxical movement of the abdomen, which suggested diaphragmatic weakness.

Also, chest radiography showed poor movement of the diaphragm. Although the prolongation of distal latency in the phrenic nerve was mild considering the severity of respiratory failure, assessment of axonal loss is not possible with phrenic nerve stimulation. In fact, phrenic nerve latency is not necessarily associated with pulmonary dysfunction in HMSN.

Diffuse proximal weakness in our patient is an uncommon finding as for HNPP. Mancardi et al. reported on three patients with progressive sensory-motor polyneuropathy associated with 17p11.2 deletion, and the initial symptom of one patient was proximal weakness in one arm. We propose that our patient represents a clinical phenotypic variability among HNPP. It may be necessary to pay attention to respiratory function in HNPP.

We thank Dr T Yamamoto from the University of Occupational and Environmental Health for the gene analysis and Mr T Nagase from Chiba University for his technical help with the sural nerve biopsy.

Spinal accessory neuropathy and internal jugular thrombosis after carotid endarterectomy

Spinal accessory neuropathy is a rare complication of carotid endarterectomy (CEA). Internal jugular venous thrombosis after CEA has also been reported rarely, but is likely more common; as internal jugular

General muscle atrophies, which are most prominent in the trunk are shown. A tracheotomy was performed for nocturnal hypoventilation because the patient required mechanical respiratory support during the night.
venous thrombosis is often asymptomatic, or presents with non-specific pain, it is probably unrecognised in many cases. Concurrent ischaemia/infarction (arterial or venous) are unrecognised in many cases; for these patients, postoperative delayed onset (after 3 weeks) has been noted in some cases. Since then, there have been several case reports and small series. Minor or transient spinal accessory neuropathy after CEA is usually not well established, but is expected to be rare, and this is underscored by the lack of published cases. Despite this apparent rarity, a common pathogenetic mechanism for postoperative spinal accessory neuropathy and internal jugular venous thrombosis may well be present, at least in some cases, which may lead to the consideration of the possibility of both when either is discovered.

We report on a patient who developed right spinal accessory neuropathy and internal jugular venous thrombosis after right CEA. A 59 year old man underwent right CEA for possibly symptomatic stenosis. Angiography had shown 90% stenosis of the right internal carotid. The operation was done under general anaesthesia. The carotid bifurcation was unusually distal, necessitating a long dissection and high retraction. No immediate postoperative complications were evident. The next day, the patient complained of mild pain at the operative site, but did not notice any weakness. The pain spread into his right shoulder within several days; at that time, he also noted difficulty raising his right arm. His symptoms worsened further a few weeks after the symptoms persisted, and he presented for neurological evaluation 4 months after CEA. At that time, he had some induration along the incision site and a palpable cord within the right supraclavicular fossa. There was moderate atrophy of the right sternocleidomastoid and trapezius, with right shoulder drooping and minor right scapular winging. Right arm abduction produced more prominent scapular winging and was limited to 90 degrees due to pain and weakness. Electrodiagnostic studies were consistent with partial right accessory neuropathy with minor denervation of the right trapezius. Cervical ultrasonography and MRI demonstrated right internal jugular venous thrombosis. The patient was treated with a shoulder support, analgesics, and low dose aspirin. There was no significant clinical change 1 year after CEA. Repeat electrodiagnostic studies at this time were consistent with chronic right spinal accessory neuropathy, and repeat ultrasonography showed persistent right internal jugular venous thrombosis. Spinal accessory neuropathy was first reported as a complication of CEA in 1982. Since then, there have been several case reports and small series. A 1996 review of reports of cranial neuropathy after CEA disclosed only one patient with spinal accessory neuropathy in over 3000 cases. Although the authors did not include several other reports which, taken together, may seem to suggest a somewhat higher incidence, the overall small number of reported cases in proportion to the hundreds of thousands of CEAs that have been done worldwide suggests that clinically significant spinal accessory neuropathy is a rare complication. Minor transient spinal accessory neuropathy after CEA may be more frequent. The cause of spinal accessory neuropathy after CEA is usually not well established, but intraoperative nerve stretching or compression from retraction is most often invoked. Delayed onset (after 3 weeks) has been noted in some; for these patients, postoperative inflammation and scarring seem more likely causes. Spinal accessory nerve transection or ischemia/infarction (arterial or venous) are other possibilities. As in our patient, high caudal dissection and retraction have been reported to precede spinal accessory neuropathy. The spinal accessory nerve courses along the internal jugular vein and near the internal carotid artery, typically well above the carotid bifurcation. It is important to recognize that a high incision and retraction resulting from a high carotid bifurcation would place the nerve at risk. Whether this realisation may lead to any technical modification to decrease the risk of spinal accessory neuropathy in those with a high bifurcation remains to be determined.

From our search, internal jugular venous thrombosis after CEA has been reported in only one case. As Southcott et al noted, retraction of the internal jugular during CEA may cause thrombosis from venous stasis or endothelial injury. Other causes of internal jugular venous thrombosis include jugular canalulation, blunt cervical trauma, and a hypercoagulable state. Internal jugular venous thrombosis may occur within a week after neck dissection, often with recanalisation after several months. The presence of induration about the incision site and a palpable supraclavicular cord in our patient led us to suspect venous thrombosis. Although internal jugular venous thrombosis may often be asymptomatic. Potential symptoms of internal jugular venous thrombosis include headache, dysphagia, and anterolateral neck pain, tenderness, and swelling. In addition to pinnabular induration, fever and leukocytosis may occur. Common pathogenetic mechanisms for spinal accessory neuropathy and internal jugular venous thrombosis may include intraoperative traction, haematoma, and postoperative inflammation and scarring.

Although the onset of either spinal accessory neuropathy or internal jugular venous thrombosis in our patient cannot be determined precisely, it is likely that both developed at about the same time. The delayed worsening of the spinal accessory neuropathy in this case suggests postoperative scarring or inflammation. The lack of improvement after a year, as in some other cases of spinal accessory neuropathy after CEA, implies considerable axonal injury, but does not clarify the manner of injury.

GEORGE WOODWARD
RAM VENKATESH
Department of Neurology, University of Kansas, and Neurology Section, VA Eastern Kansas Health Care System, VA, USA

Correspondence to: Dr George Woodward, Neurology Section (111), VA Medical Centre, Leavenworth, Kansas 66048, USA. Telephone 001 913 682 2000 extension 2441; fax 001 913 758 4225.


Ischaemic stroke in a sportsman who consumed MaHuang extract and creatine monohydrate for body building

We report the first case of extensive cerebral infarct in a young sportsman consuming high doses of MaHuang extract and creatine monohydrate. This should alert the community to possible serious adverse effects of energy supplements.

A 33 year old man had a severe aphasia on awakening in the morning of 23 January 1994. He did not complain of any other symptoms. He was referred to our department on 26 January 1999. He had a Wernicke aphasia with a slight right sided face and arm weakness and a right Babinski sign. His blood pressure was 140/60 and his pulse 54 per minute. Brain CT showed signs of extensive left middle cerebral artery infarct. Cervical ultrasound duplex scanning and cervical angiography were normal. Cerebral CSF examination and EEG were also normal except for a patent foramen ovale.

The patient had no vascular risk factors, in particular no tobacco use, and he was perfectly fit until his stroke. He was a sportsman with 2 hours daily intensive training for body building. He was working as a baggage handler in an international airline company. During a recent journey to Miami, Florida, he bought tablets of “energy pills” in a shopping store to enhance his athletic performances. The first drug contained MaHuang extract (corresponding to 20 mg ephedra alkaloids), 200 mg caffeine, 100 mg L-carnitine, and 200 µg chromium per two capsules. The second drug contained 6000 mg creatine monohydrate, 1000 mg taurine, 100 mg inosine, and 5 mg coenzyme Q10 per scoop. He consumed 40–60 mg ephedra alkaloids, 400–600 mg caffeine, and 6000 mg creatine monohydrate daily for about 6 weeks before his stroke.

Although a paradoxical embolism through a patent foramen ovale in this patient cannot be excluded as he recently undertook a transatlantic flight, there was no deep venous thrombosis and D-dimers were normal. However, ephedrine has an indirect sympathomimetic action on the pupil, first for arteriosclerotic constriction in addition to other catecholaminergic effects. Both ischaemic and haemorrhagic stroke associated with ephedrine use have been reported. Acute myocardial infarction and acute psychosis have also been reported after taking ephedrine and other sympathomimetic drugs. Ephedrine and its metabolites are natural products that are used in non-prescription medicines for multiple uses. The formula of MaHuang extract (corresponding to 20 mg ephedra alkaloids) is complex, and may contain other catecholamines. In addition to benzylamine, ephedrine, and other sympathomimetic drugs, the Nevada researchers have also been reported after taking ephedrine and other sympathomimetic drugs.

Acute myocardial infarction and acute psychosis have also been reported after taking ephedrine and other sympathomimetic drugs, which, taken together, may seem to suggest a somewhat higher incidence, the overall small number of reported cases in proportion to the hundreds of thousands of CEAs that have been done worldwide suggests that clinically significant spinal accessory neuropathy is a rare complication. Minor transient spinal accessory neuropathy after CEA disclosed only one patient with spinal accessory neuropathy in over 3000 cases. Although a paradoxical embolism through a patent foramen ovale in this patient cannot be excluded as he recently undertook a transatlantic flight, there was no deep venous thrombosis and D-dimers were normal. However, ephedrine has an indirect sympathomimetic action on the pupil, first for arteriosclerotic constriction in addition to other catecholaminergic effects. Both ischaemic and haemorrhagic stroke associated with ephedrine use have been reported. Acute myocardial infarction and acute psychosis have also been reported after taking ephedrine and other sympathomimetic drugs. Ephedrine and its metabolites are natural products that are used in non-prescription medicines for multiple uses. The formula of MaHuang extract (corresponding to 20 mg ephedra alkaloids) is complex, and may contain other catecholamines. In addition to benzylamine, ephedrine, and other sympathomimetic drugs, the Nevada researchers have also been reported after taking ephedrine and other sympathomimetic drugs.
it remained in the normal range. Whether the use of high doses of caffeine can enhance the cardiovascular effect of ephedrine remains a possibility as stroke after taking a combination of caffeine and amphetamine has been reported.¹

Drug addiction in sportsmen and sportswomen is becoming a major concern in our societies, involving both professionals and amateurs. As energy supplements, thought to enhance performance, are easily available in some countries without the need of medical prescription, everybody should be aware that these so called “benign” drugs may have major adverse effects.

This first case report of an extensive cerebral infarct in a young sportsman consuming high doses of MaHuang extract and creatine monohydrate should alert the sport community to this possible adverse effect of energy supplements, particularly when used in multiple combination.

K VAHEDI
V DOMIGO
P AMARENCO
M-G BOUSSER
Service de Neurologie, Hôpital Lariboisière, Paris, France

Correspondence to: Dr K Vahedi, Service de Neurologie, Hôpital Lariboisière, 2 Rue A Paré, 75010 Paris, France
email vahedi@ccr.jussieu.fr


Petroclival meningioma as a cause of ipsilateral cervicofacial dyskinesias

Hyperkinetic movement disorders of facial and neck muscles such as blepharospasm, hemifacial spasm, facial myokimia, and cervical dystonia have rarely been associated with unilateral brainstem or posterior fossa pathologies. We report a case of unilateral cervicofacial dyskinesias due to an ipsilateral petroclival meningioma.

A 32 year old left handed woman complained about left sided facial dysaesthesia of the upper quadrant of her face for 1 year. In addition she had intermittent ipsilateral headache. A left sided facial palsy and hypogeusia developed. When progressive hearing loss and persistent ipsilateral tinnitus occurred she sought medical advice. She was referred to our department for further treatment after a large tumour in the left cerebellopontine angle had been demonstrated by MRI. On admission, the left corneal reflex was absent. There was marked hypoaesthesia of the first two divisions of the left trigeminal nerve and a mild left facial palsy. There was also hypogeusia of the left half of the tongue. Speech was slightly dysarthric. During examination dystonic and choreic movements of the left facial muscles were seen. The dystonic grimacing increased when the patient was being observed. There were also intermittent jerky dystonic head movements with turning of the head to the left, associated with slight elevation of the left shoulder. The facial movement disorder was clearly different from hemifacial spasm. There were no tonic or clonic synchronous contractions of facial muscles and no signs of involuntary coactivation. The patient barely noted the dyskinesias. Audiometry showed a hearing threshold at 30 Db on the left side and lack of stapedius reflex on the left side. Oculovestibular response to caloric stimulation was
decreased on the left side. Furthermore, there was mild left dysdiadochokinesia.

Neurogyphy of the facial nerve was normal on both sides. Needle myography of the left frontalis and orbiculari oculi did not show signs of denervation.

An MRI study showed a large gadolinium enhancing tumour within the left cerebellopontine angle extending to the cava Meckeli with marked displacement of the brainstem to the contralateral side (figure A and B). Cerebral angiography showed a discrete blush of the tumour as typically seen in meningiomas. The tumour was totally removed by a combined transpetrosal supratentorial and infratentorial presigmoidal approach. The postoperative course was uneventful and there were no new deficits. The facial palsy improved slightly as well as the trigeminal hypesthesia. Audiometry remained unchanged. Postoperative imaging showed no residual tumour and the displacement of the brain stem within the posterior fossa had resolved (figure C). Marked improvement of the left sided craniofacial dyskinesia occurred during the next weeks.

The postoperative improvement of the dystonic and choreic grimacing and the cervical dystonia indicates a causal association between the petroclival meningioma and the segmental hyperkinetic movement disorders. Such a relation is supported also by the absence of a family history of movement disorders and the absence of previous exposure to neuroleptic medication. Hyperkinetic movement disorders due to tumours of the brainstem or of the posterior fossa have been reported only rarely. Asymmetric blepharospasm was recently found in a patient with an ipsilateral mesencephalic cyst.7 Hemifacial spasm was seen in patients with parietal neoplasms, meningiomas, and epidermoid tumours of the cerebellopontine angle. Acoustic neureinomas and anaplastic pontocerebellar glioma can be associated with facial myokymia and spastic parietal facial contracture.8 Also, cervical dystonia due to tumours of the cerebellopontine angle have been reported recently.9


Acute multifocal cerebral white matter lesions during transfer factor therapy

Transfer factor is an active substance of unknown strength present in dialysable leukocyte extract which is assumed to transfer cell mediated immunity in an antigen specific fashion.10 The mechanisms of action of transfer factor are still far from clear; in vitro dialysable leukocyte extract increases macrophage activation and interleukin (IL) 1 production and enhances leukocyte chemotaxis and natural killer function. Transfer factor has been reported to stimulate the cell mediated antigen specific response in patients with various infections1; therefore, treatment with transfer factor has been suggested in patients with selective deficits in cell mediated immunity such as some refractory neoplasms and chronic infections. Moreover, it has been used in the treatment of uveitis.11 Administration of dialysable leukocyte extract has seemed to be free of hypersensitivity, long lasting side effects, or complications, except for transitory hyperpyrexia.3

We report on a patient in whom multiple cerebral white matter lesions developed after taking dialysable leukocyte extract orally for uveitis. A 28 year old man was admitted to hospital because of headache, mental confusion, and right hemiparesis. He had recurrent bilateral uveitis from the age of 12 to 14 with relapse in the right eye. In January 1995 retinal vasculitis was diagnosed at fundoscopy and in July 1995 he started oral transfer factor as dialysable leukocyte extract twice a week. He complained of generalised weakness after the second dose and the referring symptoms developed after the third dose.

Neurological examination on admission showed mental confusion and severe right spastic hemiplegia with right Babinski's sign. No fever or meningismus were present.

Laboratory investigations on admission showed a slight increase in total serum protein (8.4 g/l, normal 6.0–8.0 g/l), although the serum protein fraction was normal, antistreptolysin titres (355 UI/ml), and anticardioplin IgG (30 UI/ml, normal 10–20 UI/ml). Negative results were obtained for VDRL, syphilis, and serum immunoglobulins, venereal disease research laboratory test, erythrocyte sedimentation rate, fibrinogenemia, C reactive protein, rheumatoid factor, Wäaler-Rose, protein electrophoresis, and antibodies against DNA, antinuclear, anti-smooth muscle, and antineutrophil cytoplasmic antibodies. Lups anticoagulant, cryoglobulins, immune complexes, complement fractions, and neoplastic markers.

Sero logical investigations showed IgG but not IgM against cytomegalovirus (CMV), Herpes simplex, Varicella zoster, Epstein-Barr virus, and JC virus in the CSF was negative. The patient had progressive spontaneous remission of symptoms and signs. The neurological examination 20 days after onset showed slightly increased deep tendon reflexes on the right side and was normal 40 days later; all laboratory analyses were normal except for antistreptolysin titer 205 UI/ml. Two MR scans at 1 and 4 months after onset showed progressive regression of lesions without contrast enhancement but a new large lesion in the left occipital white matter, which showed moderate contrast enhancement. A final MR scan 20 months after onset showed further regression of lesions without contrast enhancement but a new large lesion in the left occipital white matter, which showed moderate contrast enhancement. At present, after 5 years, the patient is in a good state of health and neurological examination and laboratory tests are normal.

The close temporal relation between assumption of dialysable leukocyte extract therapy and appearance of cerebral white matter lesions in our patient supports the possibility that the association of the two events might not be casual. Despite the absence of biopsy, we reasonably excluded

THOMAS PÖHLE
JOACHIM K KRAUSS
Department of Neurosurgery, Inselspital, University of Bern, Bern, Switzerland

JEAN-MARC BURGUNDE
Department of Neurology

Correspondence to: Dr J K Krauss, Department of Neurosurgery, University Hospital, Klinikum Mannheim, Theodor-Kutzer-Ufer 1-3, 68167 Mannheim, Germany
email: joachim.krauss@nch.m-a.uni-heidelberg.de


Axial T1 weighted image after contrast administration showing multiple focal lesions in the periventricular white matter and left centrum semiovale exhibiting thick annular enhancement.
the diagnosis of vasculitis or neuro-Behcet’s disease although in the absence of biopsy. In fact, the clinical, laboratory, and MRI findings were not typical and a low titre of anticardiolipin antibodies is found in 2% of healthy subjects.1

The occurrence at different time of focal cerebral white matter lesions highly supports the diagnosis of multiple sclerosis, but some clinical and laboratory findings in the our patient are not typical for this condition. Mental confusion is not common at the onset of multiple sclerosis whereas it is often found in acute disseminated encephalitis.1 In addition, CSF without oligoclonal banding argues against a diagnosis of multiple sclerosis, whereas it is commonly found in acute disseminated encephalitis.2 On the other hand the possibility that acute disseminated encephalitis may recur has been accepted3 and on the basis of the patient’s clinical picture and CSF, we favoured such a diagnosis.

The pathogenic mechanisms underlying the triggering, development, and duration of multiple sclerosis and acute disseminated encephalitis are still far from clear despite the progress made in unravelling them. Some findings suggest that acute disseminated encephalitis and multiple sclerosis lie at the two poles of an autoimmune range, in which autoantigen reactivity is only temporary and direct against a single antigen in acute disseminated encephalitis and multiple antigens in multiple sclerosis. Although the hypothesis that dialysable leucocyte extract had triggered an autoimmune reaction in the patient cannot be proved, our finding is in line with the report of multiple cerebral lesions after therapy with IL-2 in patients with malignancies or HIV infections.4 On the other hand, the fact that acute disseminated encephalitis is often correlated with the administration of foreign proteins, such as during vaccinations or viral infections5 led us to postulate in this patient a cell mediated immunological mechanism. Therefore, an immunological cross reaction between viral antigens (or other foreign material contained in vaccines) and various parts of the nervous system resulting in acute disseminated encephalitis might have occurred. As already noted, dialysable leucocyte extract contains a multitude of immunostimulating or potentially activating substances so it is impossible to pinpoint which one could have been responsible for the demyelinating effect seen in our patient. This notwithstanding, our findings indicate that neurological surveillance is worthy in patients assuming dialysable leucocyte extract therapy.

FRANCESCO G FOSCHI
LORENZO MARSIGLI
MAURO BERNARDI
Seministra Medica, Dipartimento di Medicina Interna, Epatologia e Cardioangiologia, Università degli Studi di Bologna, Policlinico Sant’Orsola, via G Massarenti 9, 40138 Bologna, Italy. Telephone 0039 51 308943; fax 0039 51 308966; email: fgfoschi@tin.it


Fahr’s disease and Asperger’s syndrome in a patient with primary hypoparathyroidism

Abnormal calcium phosphate metabolism has not previously been associated with Asperger’s syndrome, a form of pervasive developmental disorder. Nor have symmetric calcifications of the basal ganglia, dentate nuclei and cortex, or Fahr’s disease—whether idiopathic or associated with hypoparathyroidism—previously been associated with this handicap. We present the case of a 24 year old man with Asperger’s syndrome, primary hypoparathyroidism, and multifocal brain calcifications.

According to medical history, the patient’s mother had received weekly injections of Depoprovera during pregnancy. A single child born after a normal term delivery, he underwent surgery for an inguinal hernia at 3 weeks. Developmental milestones were only moderately delayed. At 9 months, he rolled instead of crawling. He walked at 15 months, spoke at 2 years with poor articulation, and still speaks in short, unelaborated sentences. His social and language development lagged in grade school and he occasionally got into fights. In late adolescence, antisocial behaviour took the form of shoplifting and repeated long distance calls to pornographic hot lines. As an adult, his social adaptation remains poor: he currently lives with his mother and works irregularly as a dishwasher in a restaurant. He is indiff erent, isolated, and resists novelty. He enjoys repetitive and solitary activities such as slot machine games and playing the piano.

Neurological examination showed bilateral hyperreflexia, mild impairment of fine finger movements, dysgraphaesthesia on sensory testing, and a manneristic gripping handshake. There were no extrapyramidal movements so it is impossible to pinpoint which one could have been responsible for the demyelinating effect seen in our patient. This notwithstanding, our findings indicate that neurological surveillance is worthy in patients assuming dialysable leucocyte extract therapy.
symptoms. His IQ score was in the low range (WASI-C=85 at the age of 13; Barbeau-Pinar=82 at the age of 17). He also presented an impairment on the Tower of London test, which measures executive function, and in a task assessing the understanding of others. These two findings are reliably present in pervasive developmental disorders, in this IQ range. In addition, his performance on the Tower of Toronto test disclosed impaired performance in procedural learning. Psychiatric assessment showed scores above the cut off for autism according to the autism diagnostic interview (ADI-R), a standardised interview that requires specific training and those administering it to have a 0.90 reliability with other researchers. The subject was positive for the diagnosis of autism, being above cut off values in the three relevant areas of communication, social interactions, restricted interests, and repetitive behaviours. Nevertheless, he did not present delay in language acquisition or morphological atypicalities in language development, which corresponds to DSM-IV criteria for Asperger’s syndrome.

Brain CT showed dense calcium deposits in the basal ganglia, thalamus, cerebellar dentate nucleus, and orbitofrontal cortex, consistent with Fahr’s disease (figure). Since CT showed increased activity in the basal ganglia relative to the cerebral cortex. A fine banded karyotype was normal. Serum calcium was 1.55 mM (normal 2.15–2.55 mM), phosphate 1.69 mM (normal 0.70–1.5 mM), ionised calcium was 0.80 mM at pH 7.4 (normal 1.10–1.34 mM); urinary calcium was 0.8 mM (normal 2.5–6.3 mM). Serum parathyroid hormone was below 0.6 (normal 1.0–6.55 mM), and a nuclear scan of the parathyroid glands showed an absence of activity. With a combination of vitamin D3-calcium supplementation and cognitive-behavioural therapy, serum calcium, and phosphate concentrations normalised and his behaviour improved marginally.

Asperger’s syndrome is a subtype of pervasive developmental disorder of unknown aetiology. Evidence for involvement of specific brain regions in pervasive developmental disorder are scarce and inconclusive. Although the tempo-orbital region is the most often involved in pervasive developmental disorders abnormal functioning of the frontal lobes is suspected from replicated findings of executive function deficits and from occasional findings of frontal hypometabolism or abnormal macroscopic brain morphology. Abnormal cell counts and morphology in the cerebellar hemispheres have also been reported, but the relation of these findings to autism is controversial.

Fahr’s disease consists of symmetric calcifications, located mainly in the basal forebrain and cerebellum, which are of various aetiologies. Cognitive and behavioural abnormalities may be present when calcifications occur early in development. A fortuitous association between pervasive developmental disorder and Fahr’s disease, given the paucity of published cases, is plausible in the presented patient. Nevertheless, our case suggests that abnormal phospho-calcium metabolism could produce an autistic syndrome when brain calcifications cause specific neuropsychological deficits, due to their localisation. For example, errors of social judgement may be related to calcifications of the orbitofrontal cortex, whereas dysfunction of frontal-basal ganglia circuits may contribute to repetitive and ritualistic activities. Additionally, developmental lesions of the basal ganglia and cerebellum may contribute to the abnormalities of sensory attention, procedural learning, and motor intention in this patient.

The finding that the clinical picture of autism can be found in a wide range of medical conditions giving rise to organic brain dysfunction is not new, but the relation between these conditions and autism is often considered meaningless. By contrast, this case, similarly to some others suggests that dysfunction in key brain circuits may result in behavioural and cognitive abnormalities distinguishable from idiopathic pervasive developmental disorder. This case also suggests that careful biological assessment of this group of patients may disclose focal brain lesions associated with identifiable cognitive deficits. Could these clinical coincidences be instructive for a neurodevelopmental model of autism?

E STIP
N BLACK
J M EKOÉ
L MOTTRON
Hospital LH Lafontaine, Département de Psychiatrie, Université de Montréal, 7331, rue Hochelaga, Montreal (Québec) H1N 3Z2, Canada

Correspondence to: Dr Emmanuel Stip, Centre de Recherche Fernand Séguin, Hospital LH Lafontaine, Département de Psychiatrie, Université de Montréal, 7331, rue Hochelaga, Montreal (Québec) H1N 3Z2, Canada. email stipe@umontreal.ca

Hypertrophic atlantoaxial ligaments: an unusual cause of compression of the upper spinal cord

The craniovertebral junction can be affected by several pseudotumorous masses extradurally located, such as rheumatoid panus, hypertrophic non-union of odontoid fracture, post-traumatic cicatrix, synovial cysts, tumourous calcium pyrophosphate dihydrate crystal deposition, taphoaceous gout, calcification of the posterior longitudinal ligament, synovial disease-like pigmented villonodular synovitis, and synovial chondromatosis. Hyper trophy of the atlantoaxial ligaments as a consequence of degenerative disease was recently recognised as an individual entity. Only five previous cases have been published. We add another case to the short series available in the literature, emphasising that as the cause of the spinal cord compression is amenable to surgical removal, symptomatic patients should be diagnosed and treated without delay.

A 66 year old woman presented with a rapid development of progressive spastic tetraparesis and an unremarkable medical history. There was no osteolysis or instability on plain cervical radiography and C.T. A bone scan with ⁹⁹Tc was unremarkable. Magnetic resonance imaging showed a retro-odontoid extradural mass that was homogeneous and isointense on T1 weighted signal, demarcated no enhancement after intravenous gadolinium contrast, and was compressing the upper cervical spinal cord (figure). The laboratory tests were normal, confirming the absence of rheumatoid arthritis, metabolic disease, or gout. Surgical removal via a transtoral approach with a minimal bony resection was direct and provided sufficient space to obtain spinal cord decompression. It was followed by a posterior C1-C2 fusion. Macroscopically, the lesion had no capsule and resembled a hypertrophic ligamentum flavum. Microscopically, it was non-inflammatory, hypocellular, and ligamentary pieces found within the mass appeared fibrous and almost disintegrated. The patient regained normal neurological function. Over a 3 year follow up period there was no recurrence.

We focus attention on hypertrophic atlantoaxial ligamentary disease as a degenerative disease that must be considered within the possible causes of high spinal cord compression.

ALEJANDRA TERESA RABADAN
Department of Neurosurgery, Instituto de Investigaciones Médicas “Alfredo Lamari”, Facultad de Medicina, Universidad de Buenos Aires, and Equipo de Neurocirugía de Buenos Aires, Argentina

GUSTAVO SEVILEVER
Department of Pathology, Clínica Basterria, Buenos Aires, and Equipo de Neurocirugía de Buenos Aires, Argentina

Correspondence to: Dr Alejandro T Rabadán, Billinghurst 1976 PB, 1425 Buenos Aires, Argentina. Telephone 0054 1 902 4417; fax 0054 1 903 892;email rabadan @ movi.com.ar

Selective hemihypaesthesia due to tentorial coup injury against dorsolateral midbrain: potential cause of sensory impairment after closed head injury

A 63 year old woman who fell off her bicycle had a left temporal region head injury with evidence of initial loss of consciousness of 5 minutes and scalp excoriations of that area. On arrival at our hospital 30 minutes later she was alert and oriented. Cranial nerve functions, including extracocular motion and hearing function, were preserved. Pain and temperature sensations of the right side, including her face, showed a 70% decrease compared with the left side; however, position and vibration sensations were normal. Other neurological examinations, including motor function, coordination, and deep tendon reflexes, were normal. The patient's only complaints were left temporal headache and right hemihypaesthesia.

Brain CT on admission showed a discrete and linear high density at the left ambient cistern without other intracranial lesions. On the next day CT showed an obscure low density at the dorsolateral midbrain in addition to the previous lesion (figure).

Brain MRI, taken 3 days later, demonstrated an intraparenchymal lesion, at the surface of the left dorsolateral midbrain in high intensity on a T2 weighted image. The high intensity lesion corresponding to haematoma on CT was seen in the ambient cistern (figure). Taking both CT scans and MRI into consideration, this case was diagnosed as traumatic midbrain contusion.

The loss of pain and temperature sensation improved gradually and the patient was discharged 2 weeks later.

T2 weighted images 1 month later showed a more localised lesion in the same area. The coronal slices showed a high intensity lesion at the level of lower midbrain coinciding with the tentorium level, disclosed as a low line between the occipital lobe and the cerebellar hemisphere (figure). The neurological deficits almost disappeared 6 months later.

Somatosensory impairment including pain is one of the most common complaints among patients with craniocebral injury. Responsi- ble lesions for sensory impairment, detectable by neuroimaging studies, almost always accompany associated neurological deficits. To our knowledge, a selective injury at the spinothalamic or trigeminotectal tracts due to closed head injury has not been highlighted in the neurological literature.

The MR images in our case showed a discrete lesion at the left dorsolateral midbrain. Topographical study at this lower midbrain level showed that the lateral and ventral spinothalamic and ventral trigeminothalamic tracts pass at the surface of this level by carrying a superficial somatosensory sensory input. The lesion shown in our MR images seemed to be localised to these tracts. The medial lemniscus for the deep sensation and lateral lemniscus and nucleus of inferior colliculus associated with hearing function run ventral and dorsal to these tracts, respectively, which were seemingly spared in our patient. The topographical anatomy seemed to correspond to the neurological manifestations of our patient.

The mechanism of midbrain injury in our patient was speculated to be due to tentorial coup injury based on MR images. The location of contusion was at the lower dorsolateral midbrain, coinciding with the tentorial edge level. Initiation of injury was the surface of the midbrain; however, due to the proximity of the tentorial edge to the midbrain on the injured side, tentorial contact to the midbrain supposedly occurred more readily. Brain MRI findings support the anatomical features of this tentorial coup injury. This injury is not rare in patients with severe head injury, accompanied by other intracranial lesions, and is often caused by lateral displacement of the brain stem relative to the tentorium. It is influenced by congenital variation in the size and shape of the tentorial incisura. The brain stem of the patient with a narrow incisura is more vulnerable to the direct contusive effects than that of a patient with a wider incisura. Therefore, even in minor head injury, this mechanism may occur in patients preconditoned with narrow tentorial incisura, which may have been the case in our patient.

The concept of tentorial coup injury against the midbrain is not new. It usually accompanies various degrees of conscious disturbance and other long tract signs, sensory deficits as well as cerebellar and cranial nerve palsy due to the midbrain lesion or other associated intracranial lesions. The clinical manifestation of our patient may represent one of the mildest forms of the midbrain contusion. The lesion, when we see a patient with post-traumatic sensory deficit, the possibility of this tentorial injury should be kept in mind even in minor head injury.

NAOKATSU SAEKI
YOSHINORI HIGUCHI
Departments of Neurological Surgery, Chiba University, School of Medicine, Chiba, Japan
KENRO SUNAMI
Kawatetsu Chiba Hospital, Japan
AKIRA YAMASU
Departments of Neurological Surgery, Chiba University, School of Medicine, Chiba, Japan

Correspondence to: Dr Naokatsu Saeki, Department of Neurological Surgery, Chiba University, School of Medicine, 1-8-1 Inohana, Chuoh-ku, Chiba-shi, Chiba Japan 260-8870
email saeki@med.m.chiba-u.ac.jp

Toluene induced postural tremor

We read with interest the article by Miyagi et al and comment on the medical treatment of toluene induced tremor. Microdialysis experiments in rats have shown that inhalation of toluene increases extracellular γ-aminobutyric acid (GABA) concentrations within the cerebellar cortex which probably explains why GABA agonists including benzodiazepines (for example, clonazepam) are not very effective in toluene induced tremor and ataxia. Rat experiments also showed a 50% reduction in brain catecholaminergic neurons. Degeneration of certain cerebellar pathways is probably responsible for the loss of this dopaminergic innervation. Dopamine agonists could therefore be of potential interest in the treatment of toluene induced tremor. This hypothesis was explored in a recently described case, which showed remarkable clinical and iconographic similarities with that described by Miyagi et al: (a) long history of chronic toluene inhalation, (b) marked postural tremor, (c) progressive worsening of the symptoms despite abstinence from inhalant misuse, and (d) mild cerebral atrophy and marked slow signal intensity in globus pallidi, thalami, red nuclei, and substantia nigrae on T2 weighted MRI. As our patient’s tremor was progressive, medical treatment with a dopamine agonist was considered. One particular agent (amantadine) caught our attention because it had proved successful in the treatment of postural tremor in cases of heredodegenerative disorders in which the dentatorubro-olivary system is involved. In addition, there is evidence that catecholaminergic pathways are also involved in this type of ataxias, supported by loss of dopaminergic neurons of these neurotransmitters in the CSF of patients with heredodegenerative ataxias. In our patient, amantadine hydrochloride (100 mg twice daily) abolished postural tremor and ataxia completely over a 3 month period. Subsequently, the treatment was discontinued, which resulted in relapse of the tremor and ataxia. He was challenged to amantadine, which progressively offered him the same clinical improvement as in the first 3 months. After 3 years the treatment was discontinued without any signs of relapse.

Although this finding needs confirmation, amantadine treatment could form a new approach in the medical treatment for toluene induced tremor and ataxia. Intractable cases would then justify a more aggressive approach such as ventricoarterial thalamotomy.

Dirk Deleu
Depts of Clinical Pharmacology and Neurology, College of Medicine, Sultan Qaboos University, PO Box 35, Al-Rahd, Muscat-123, Sultanate of Oman


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"man-in-the-barrel" syndrome has even been suggested.

 Probably all these terms used to define this variation of ALS are synonyms for an older, well known condition, the scapulopelvic form, or the chronic anterior poliomyelitis reported by Volkmann in 1886 and known in Franco-German literature as Vulpin-Bernhardt's form of ALS.

 At certain stages of the disease's clinical course, it is probably difficult to differentiate it from progressive muscular atrophy (PMA). Some authors have said that PMA with late onset scapulopelvic distribution (over 45 years of age) generally leads to ALS as a matter of course.

 Be that as it may, the truth is that this atypical form of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis behaves differently from typical ALS. The comparative study with the rest of the ALS group supplied important clinical findings, such as little or no functional impairment of the bulbar muscles or legs. Hu et al. also made four important statistical discoveries.

 (1) The prevalence of this form of ALS constituted 10% of the ALS group as a whole (p=0.05). (2) The age of onset of this form was similar to the rest of ALS. (3) There was a longer median survival (a median survival of 57 months compared with 39 months in the ALS group).

 Some of these patients have a long ALS clinical course, in that they usually preserve ambulatory ability, albeit with gait disorders, for more than 5 years after the onset of symptoms.

 On a personal level, we also note two findings characteristic of these patients. In the initial stages of the illness, there is no effect on the diaphragm and the respiratory muscle failure occurs much later than in the typical form of ALS. This can be seen in the follow-up of the results obtained in the respiratory function tests (FVC, FImax, and PEmax).

 We do not know the reason for either the characteristic distribution of weakness or muscle atrophy. A meticulous study shows that there is an atrophy of the deltoideus (and the teres minor) and a loss of strength in the external rotation of the shoulder (infraespinatus, supraespinatus, and teres minor). As a consequence, the upper limbs adopt a characteristic position, with the arms, forearms, and hands in pronation. The atrophy and weakness of the infraespinatus and the supraespinatus, that act as an active ligament in scapulohumeral articulation, would explain the presence of subluxation of the shoulder joints in these patients.

 Finally, we are in complete agreement that the loss of cervical spondylosis and ALS can cause difficulty in diagnosis. The problem lies in the fact that cervical spondylosis is a common condition. It is found in 83.5% of men and 80.7% of women over the age of 45. The faster progressive deterioration of the symptoms, the appearance of bulbar signs, and the absence of sensory symptoms and signs would favour the diagnosis of ALS.


 Isolated dysarthria

 We read with interest the article by Urban et al. Using transcranial magnetic stimulation, the authors demonstrated electrophysiologically the evidence for a central monophasic of the tongue in patients with isolated dysarthria from stroke.1 As in their patients transcranial magnetic stimulation induced absent or delayed corticofugal responses at the tongue, the authors ascribed isolated dysarthria to interruption of the corticofugal pathways, involving the thalamocortical and corticostriatal fibres as well as the corticobulbar fibres. In fact, lacunar infarctions around the internal capsule-corona radiata are likely to underlie these ascending and descending projections.

 To assess corticopontocerebellar tract function, Urban et al investigated cerebellar blood flow in patients with isolated dysarthria using HMPAO-SPECT. The authors concluded that the corticopontocerebellar tract is preserved in isolated dysarthria because of no evidence for cerebellar diaschisis on SPECT. Their SPECT findings on cerebellar blood flow were similar to our results. However, we wonder whether cerebral cervical blood flow was preserved in their patients, because our SPECT study suggested frontal cortical dysfunction as an underlying mechanism of isolated dysarthria. Cerebral palsy and parkinsonism are well documented in patients with isolated dysarthria, suggesting a decrease in cerebral blood flow in the frontal lobe. Therefore, we postulated that isolated dysarthria results from interruption of corticocerebellar networks indispensable for speech output, involving the thalamocortical and corticostriatal fibres as well as the corticobulbar fibres. In fact, lacunar infarctions around the internal capsule-corona radiata are likely to underlie these ascending and descending projections.

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Motor cortical excitability in Huntington's disease

We read with great interest the paper of Hanajima et al reporting that intracortical inhibition of the motor cortex is normal in patients with chorea of various origins. At variance with the results we previously found a reduced intracortical inhibition in a group of patients with genetically confirmed Huntington's disease. Hanajima et al suggest that the discrepancies between the two studies may be due to inclusion in patient selection as they included patients with early stage Huntington's disease to "study the pathophysiology of chorea unaffected by other disorders movement." They postulated that our cases, because of the reported correlative with a dyskinetic rating scale, had a more advanced stage of the disease, possibly with coexisting dystonia or rigidity. These assertions deserve some comments.

The mean disease duration of our nine patients with Huntington's disease was 6.2 (4.1) years which is actually shorter than the duration of the six patients reported by Hanajima et al (8.3 [5-9] years). Most of our patients could be considered in an early stage of the disease, the Unified Huntington's disease rating scale, and none presented dystonia, rigidity, or any other additional movement disorder. In this regard, however, it should be pointed out that bradykinesia is often associated with chorea in patients with Huntington's disease and may even precede the appearance of choreic dyskinesia.\(^1\) Chorea itself is often reduced in the more advanced Huntington's disease stages.\(^2\) It is unlikely, therefore, that any neuropsychological approach can test purely chorea even in the early Huntington's disease stages. In addition, different mechanisms are involved in Huntington's disease and other choreas as suggested by the lack of impairment of somatosensory evoked responses and long latency stretch reflex in the second.\(^3\) We were not really surprised at the results of Hanajima et al as we do share their opinion that patients with Huntington's disease may be characterised by large individual differences in the involvement of motor cortical areas. Actually, these patients in our study showed an amount of intracortical inhibition within the confidence limits of the control population. We also think that the impairment of intracortical inhibition is likely to develop during the progression as we did not find any change in four patients, two of them already reported,\(^4\) with positive DNA testing but completely asymptomatic.

The discrepancies between the two studies are more likely to be explained, at least in part, by some methodological differences. For instance, the amplitude of the control response was larger in our set (approximately 1.0 mV compared with 0.3 mV in the study of Hanajima et al). This may induce a different sensitivity of the test, and the amount of intracortical inhibition in our normal controls is greater (see also)\(^5\) than in the study of Hanajima et al.

When interpreting the results of studies with paired transcranial magnetic stimulation pathophysiologically it should be kept in mind that similar changes of intracortical inhibition have been shown in patients with various movement disorders (focal dystonia, myoclonus, parkinsonism, restless legs syndrome, Tourette's disorder), but also in different diseases such as amyotrophic lateral sclerosis.\(^6\) We think, therefore, that the impairment of intracortical inhibition cannot be regarded as the marker of a specific pathophysiological mechanism, but is likely to reflect a non-specific imbalance of inhibitory and facilitatory circuits within the motor cortex.

P P URBAN S WICHT H CH HOPP
Department of Neurology, University of Geneva, Langenbecksstrasse 1, D55111 Mainz, Germany
S FLEISCHER
Department of Communication Disorders
O NICKEL
Department of Nuclear Medicine


The authors reply:

We were very grateful for the response of Abbruzzese et al to our paper. We completely agree with their opinions.

The discrepancy between the two studies\(^1\) may not be mainly due to the different stage of the disease between the two groups of patients. Although the duration of the disease is one factor to judge the disease stage, the severity of the disease (stage of the disease) is also positively correlated with CAG repeat number.

We may have to take CAG repeat number into consideration in comparisons. Unfortunately, however, we have no way to do such comparisons between these two studies. We could say, at least, that the intracortical inhibition was normal even at the same stage of the disease as that of the patients of Abbruzzese et al, if studied with our method.

We also consider that methodological differences are very important in paired magnetic stimulation. The results strongly depend on the intensities of both a conditioning and a test stimulus. Especially, the intensity of the conditioning stimulus is critical. We have no difficulty in showing normal inhibition, but have much difficulty in showing reduced or absent inhibition because of such marked dependence of the results on the intensities of stimulation. Therefore, we used the intensity of the conditioning stimulus before we confirmed inhibition in studies of patients.\(^2\) We used an intensity of 5% less than the active threshold as a conditioning stimulus in our study of chorea.\(^3\) We did not need to change the intensity of the conditioning stimulus because we always obtained a normal inhibition with this intensity. We consider that this is very important. If using a suprathreshold (active threshold) conditioning stimulus, a facilitatory effect must often supersupere on the intracortical inhibition. This makes the interpretation difficult. Was the intensity of 80% of the resting threshold below the active threshold in their patients? In our experience, 80% of the resting threshold was sometimes above the active threshold. These factors must be considered in interpreting the results of paired magnetic stimulation.

Such a methodological problem is inherent in human studies because we have no direct way of detecting the threshold of the motor cortex. Our two results must be true. We may have two completely different interpretations of these results. (1) The intracortical inhibition is normal in Huntington's disease. Abbruzzese et al showed the reduced inhibition because they used a high intensity conditioning stimulus with which the degree of the
intracortical inhibition is often decreased even in normal subjects. The 80% of the threshold for relaxed muscles must correspond to different values relative to the threshold for active muscles in patients from that in normal subjects. (2) The intracortical inhibition is diminished in Huntington's disease. This slight abnormality could be detected with their method but not with ours because their method has better sensitivity in detecting an abnormality than ours. Whatever is true, the intracortical inhibition must be normal or slightly disturbed in Huntington's disease.

R HANAJIMA Y UGAWA
Department of Neurology, Division of Neuroscience, CRITICALLY REVIEWED
Cerebrum, Tokyo Women's Medical University, Tokyo, 7–3–1 Honjo, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 113–8655, Japan


Critical closing pressure: a valid concept?
Czosnyka et al recently published a study investigating the clinical significance of critical closing pressure (CCP) estimates in patients with head injury. We see problems both with the theoretical foundation of their CCP concept and with the interpretation of their results.

Firstly, the physiological meaning of both formulae of CCP presented (CCP1 and CCP2, respectively) is questionable. The implication of both presented equations is that the instantaneous value of cerebral blood flow velocity (FV(t)) at a given moment t is equal to arterial blood pressure at the given time (ABP(t)) minus CCP divided by cerebrovascular resistance (CVR).

\[ FV(t) = \frac{ABP(t) - CCP}{CVR} \] (1)

At the time of systolic and diastolic pressures (ABP, ABPd), respectively, it follows that systolic and diastolic FVs (FVs, FVd) should be equal to (ABP–CCP)/CVR and (ABPd–CCP)/CVR, respectively. However, if we assume that the vascular resistance valid for the static pressure/frequency connection (CVR), concerning mean pressures and flows) is different from and is in general much higher than resistances determining dynamic pressure/flow relations (CVR1) as in the case of pulsatile flows.8 Therefore, equation 1 cannot be applied to describe dynamic flow. This can best be illustrated using the frequency domain approach (ABP=mean pressure; FV=mean flow velocity; A1=amplitude of the pulsatile pressure wave; F1=amplitude of the pulsatile flow wave).

\[ FV(t) = \frac{ABP - CCP}{CVR} \] (2)

\[ F1 = A1/CVR \] (3)

Inserting equations 2 and 3 into the frequency domain equation for CCP2 of the authors, CCP2=ABP−1/F1+FV
leads to
\[ CCP2 = ABP - CVR1/CVR0 \times (ABP - CCP) = \frac{ABP - CVR1/CVR0}{FVs} \] (4)

Equation 2 changes to
\[ CCP2 = \frac{ABP(1 - CVR1/CVR0) + CVR1}{FVs} \] (5)

Hence, CCP2 is only in the case of CVR1=CVR0 equal to CCP. Under the more realistic assumption that CVR1 is equal to about half of CVR0 it follows for CCP2:
\[ CCP2 = 0.5ABP + 0.5CCP \]

With decreasing CVR1/CCV0 ratios, CCP2 becomes more and more dependent on ABP and independent of CCP. In any case, without exact knowledge of the CVR1/CCV0 ratio, equation 4 is useless for a valid CCP calculation.

The second criticism concerns the correlation of the calculated CCP2 values with mean ABP found by the authors (r=0.5; p<0.05). According to the original idea of Burton, CCP represents a certain mean ABP value below which small vessels begin to collapse. CCP should, therefore, be a constant value independent of the actual ABP. On the other hand, this significant correlation can be explained by our equation 5, again indicating the missing physiological basis of the CCP concept of the authors.

Thirdly, it seems doubtful that CCP could be estimated using pressure and flow values from ABP ranges clearly above CCP and flow values clearly above zero flow, respectively. As long as small blood vessels do not collapse (ABP>CCP) it is not possible to decide whether their actual wall tension is determined more by transmural pressure or by active vasocostriction. However, the relative contribution of both effects is critical for the limit of CCP.

Finally, I would be interested in the authors’ explanation of negative diastolic flow values as seen in Doppler spectra of arteries with a high vascular resistance (peripheral arteries, middle cerebral artery during strong hypocapnia). In the case of ABP<CCP and a small vessel collapse according to the model of the authors, CVR should increase towards \[ \frac{ABP}{FVs} \] towards zero (equation 1). Negative flow values could, consequently, not occur.

I suggest that the relationship between pulsatile pressure and flow should be better described using the concept of different static and dynamic resistances (CVR0 and CVR1). The driving pressure of the mean FV is more accurately given by cerebral perfusion pressure (CPP=ABP–ICP) than by ABP–CCP. Therefore, equation 2 changes to

\[ FV=\frac{ABP-ICP}{CVR0} \] (6)

and equation 5 to

\[ CCP2=\frac{ABP(1-CVR1/CVR0)+CVR1}{CVR0} \] (7)

Equation 7 explains well the positive correlations found between CCP2 and ABP and between CCP2 and ICP, respectively, without assuming a connection between CCP2 and Burton’s concept of "critical closing pressure."9

ROLF R DIEHL
Department of Neurology, Krupp Hospital, Alfred-Krupp-Strasse, 45117 Essen, Germany

6 Diehl S, 45117 Essen, Germany. We thank Diehl very much for the interesting correspondence that is very similar. The only difference is that instead of the original waveforms of FV and ABP, first (fundamental) harmonic components were taken for the same graphical construction—that is:

\[ CCP2=\frac{ABP-ICP}{FVs} \]

In our paper we confirmed empirically that both CCP1 and CCP2 produced the same values in a group of normal subjects after head injury, therefore the mathematical consideration of Diehl (equations 1–5) must contain an error!

First of all we cannot see how equation (1) from Diehl’s letter can be derived from any of our formulae. Everyone who has tried to plot momentary values from ABP pulse waveform against momentary values of FV waveform knows that it never plots a straight line (equation (1) implies). We believe "clouds" of systolic and diastolic values of ABP and FV waveforms (fig 1in) one can rather see an ellipsoidal shape which is very seldom regular enough to be approximated by a straight section. Therefore, equation (1) in Diehl’s letter is not correct. In fact, CVR is a frequency dependent variable (represents vascular impedance) and if a linear theory can be applied, division in (1) should be substituted by a convolution with an inverse of Fourier transform of “cerebrovascular admittance”.

Definition of CVR0 as FV/(ABP–CCP) is completely artificial and lacks a physiological basis, its ratio is taken from the geometrical interpretation of figure 1in. In our material equivalent of parameter CVR0 (as defined by Diehl) is 1.007 (SD 0.31) and CVR1 0.972 (SD 0.29), the differences between these two values are not statistically significant. Therefore, the suggestion that the CVR1/CVR0 ratio is 0.5 is not correct. Real CVR0 should be calculated as (ABP–ICP)/FV. We fully agree that equation (5) proposed by Diehl is “useless for valid CCP calculation”. We have not used it and have never suggested anyone could do so.

The second criticism was that our CCP positively correlated with ICP. It is not a surprise. When ABP decreases, vasodilatation occurs and arterial wall tension decreases. Therefore presuming ICP was constant, CCP should decrease. A rather weak (though significant) correlation suggests that not all of our patients were pressure reactive or ICP was not always constant.

The final issue concerning negative flow velocities is a trap Diehl has prepared for him-
risks. How risky—we can see from Dieth’s letter. Cerebrovascular resistance certainly never increases to infinity, only after death.

We fully agree with the considerations regarding equations (6) and (7). CCP can be understood as a combination of ABP and ICP with cofunctioning properties to the cerebrovascular bed. Whether it simplifies our knowledge—we personally find it doubtful.

Finally, we are truly obliged to Dieth for an opportunity to have this interesting discussion.

MAREK CZOSNYKA PIOTR SMELEWSKI STEFAN PIECHNIK
Academic Neurosurgical Unit, Box 167, Addenbrooke’s Hospital, Cambridge CB2 0QQ, UK
Correspondence to: Dr Marek Czosnyka
email MC141@MEDSCHL.CAM.AC.UK

Correspondence to: Dr Marek Czosnyka
email MC141@MEDSCHL.CAM.AC.UK


High frequency stimulation of the subthalamic nucleus and levodopa induced dyskiniesias in Parkinson’s disease

Reduction in the neuronal activity of the subthalamic nucleus leading to diminished excitation of the globus pallidum internum is associated with chorea-ballism in monkeys. Levodopa induced dyskiniesias are currently thought to share a similar pathophysiology but recent findings also suggest that abnormal patterns of neuronal firing in the globus pallidum internum may be as relevant. But recent findings also suggest that abnormal patterns of neuronal firing in the globus pallidum internum may be as relevant. But recent findings also suggest that abnormal patterns of neuronal firing in the globus pallidum internum may be as relevant.

There are several points leading us to question the actual site of action of the electrode: (1) Stimulation of the subthalamic nucleus as Parkinson’s disease has been associated with the production of dyskiniesias only relieved by a reduction in levodopa intake. Moreover, Benabid et al who pioneered this technique, consider the induction of dyskiniesias by high frequency stimulation of the subthalamic nucleus as a good indicator of a very positive response. Figueiras-Mendez et al. referring to the thalamus from the globus pallidum internum are placed dorsocaudally to the subthalamic nucleus and could be blocked by high frequency stimulation. (2) When the recording electrode is placed dorsocaudally to the subthalamic nucleus in sagittal planes 11 mm or less, neuronal activity is characterised by action potentials of large amplitudes (0.5–1.5 mV) with low background activity, tonically firing neurons, and absent sensorimotor responses (“driving”). All these characteristics seem to be present in the patient discussed here. Neuronal activity in the sensorimotor nucleus of the subthalamic nucleus is different from the above but on occasions the distinction may not be easy. Very importantly, it is very important to document in more detail the findings as seen in the case of Figueiras-Mendez et al. Ideally we would like to see the trajectory and length of the different recording tracks, the effects of microstimulation, and the post-surgery MRI with measurement of the tip of the electrodes. If, as assumed, the subthalamic nucleus was indeed correctly targeted in this patient, the pathophysiology of the basal ganglia will need to be revisited.


Figueiras-Mendez et al reply

We thank Obeso et al for their comments regarding our recent report. In summary, they raised some interesting points which need further clarification.

Recognition of the electrical activity of the subthalamic nucleus was based on the following criteria: (a) high frequency discharge (25 Hz or higher) within the nucleus; (b) a tonic (regular), phasic (irregular) or a rhythmic pattern of discharge; (c) response to voluntary/passive movements. When rhythmic discharges were recorded irregular passive manipulations were performed or the patients asked to move the limbs irregularly; (d) response to tremor activity. Positive cells were so considered based on the correlated activity with the EMG and the accelerometer recorded simultaneously. Artificial manual stopping by one experimenter (confirmed by visual inspection, silence in the EMG, and stoppage in the oscillating accelerometer) and/or spontaneous arrest in the tremor modified the firing frequency and discharge pattern or rhythmic cells corroborating the tremor nature of the cells; (e) the activity of the cells above the subthalamic nucleus. A higher activity is observed; (g) the activity is not observed when stimulating the subthalamic nucleus. A lower background noise level; (h) the activity of substantia nigra pars reticulata cells when further lowering the microelec-trode. These cells discharge at high frequency at regular intervals as identified in patients and primates. All these points were fulfilled by the patient reported.

Considering the questions in the letter by Obeso et al, we make the following comments: (a) Action potentials of rhythmic discharge are easily recognised from the rest of the recording cells, and are not very common. The recordings shown in the article have amplitudes less than 0.3 mV and could not be considered large amplitude potentials. When we start to record activity from 3 mm below the subthalamic nucleus, we enter the subthalamic nucleus, traverse the length of the subthalamic nucleus, and go further down several mm into the substantia nigra pars reticulata. Changes in the background activity are clearly recognised and are higher when entering the subthalamic nucleus. Enough cells are recorded along the tracks experimented to be a large amplitude potential. The
low background activity found in our recordings is only due to the better signal-to-noise ratio of the electrodes used. “Good recording electrodes” depend on many variables such as tip size, tip profile, insulation material, impedance, etc. “The signal-to-noise ratio of the cells in question has the same ratio as the subthalamic nucleus cell shown by Hutchinson et al.” (5) In our report, cells discharged tonically, but some cells fired phasically. They were well differentiated by a profuse burst activity and identified by statistical means (autocorrelation and interval histograms).

(c) Motor responses and tremorgenic cells in line with the above mentioned criteria were found along the trajectory of the electrode. Unfortunately, this point was not mentioned in the paper. It would surely have changed the opinion of Obeso et al.

In this second patient, a total of eight neurons were recognised as belonging to the subthalamic nucleus in the right hemisphere, with a mean frequency of 74 Hz (range 38–109 Hz). Four of them responded to passive and/or voluntary movements. One of them was particular to tremor. The stimulating electrode was placed in laterality 11. One track was performed. In the left hemisphere, two tracks were performed. One track was dismissed by the poor responding activity of the cells recorded. In the other track, nine neurons were recorded in the subthalamic nucleus (always following the above mentioned criteria) with a mean of 69 Hz (range 17–98 Hz). Five cells responded to passive and/or voluntary movements. One of them was also positive to tremor. The stimulating electrode was placed in laterality 12. The frequency of the stimulating electrode was always tested in the surgery before cementing and interval histograms).

1. Motor responses and tremorgenic cells in line with the above mentioned criteria were found along the trajectory of the electrode.
2. Eight neurons were recognised as belonging to the subthalamic nucleus in the right hemisphere, with a mean frequency of 74 Hz (range 38–109 Hz).
3. Five cells responded to passive and/or voluntary movements.
4. One of them was particular to tremor.
5. One track was performed in the left hemisphere, and two tracks were performed in the right hemisphere.
6. Nine neurons were recorded in the subthalamic nucleus with a mean frequency of 69 Hz (range 17–98 Hz).
7. Five cells responded to passive and/or voluntary movements.
8. One of them was also positive to tremor.

Nitrergic neurons in the substantia nigra pars reticulata have shown to be involved in the modulation of voluntary movements and are implicated in the control of motor activity. The activity of these neurons can be modulated by various factors, including dopamine, serotonin, and glutamate. The selective removal of these neurons has been shown to result in the development of parkinsonian-like symptoms.

In conclusion, the results of this study support the hypothesis that the activity of nitrergic neurons in the substantia nigra pars reticulata may play a role in the modulation of voluntary movements and the control of motor activity. Further research is needed to elucidate the mechanisms by which nitrergic neurons regulate movement and to identify potential therapeutic targets for the treatment of movement disorders.
connective tissue disorders, organ specific autoimmune, sarcoidosis, and cerebral vasculitis.

Each chapter is an appropriate length and well referenced; the wood is always clearly visible between the trees. This book is sufficiently readable and small to be recommended as holiday reading. Its only drawback is that in making erudition so readily available, one risks being outshined yet again by one’s registrar.

JON SUSSMAN


As Alzheimer’s disease becomes of increasing importance to society, basic science research in this field needs to provide the building blocks for both therapeutic interventions and accurate diagnosis. This publication is a collection of papers presented at an international Alzheimer’s disease research meeting in Leipzig in 1997. This conference aimed to bring together both clinical and basic science disciplines and this is reflected in the papers selected for this book. There are 31 papers included, covering topics from early symptomatology and cognitive features to immunobiology and theoretical neuronal treatment strategies. The contributors to this book are some of the most authoritative in their field, predominantly based in Europe.

Covering all aspects of Alzheimer’s disease research from the correct diagnosis to basic science approaches of treatment is ambitious for such a compact book (315 pages), and although the editors succeed in collecting an interesting series of papers around these themes, they make no claims to be comprehensive in their scope. The papers included range from minimal research reports to reviews of the current literature. The review papers are generally excellent, concise, clear, well referenced, and illustrated—for example, there are excellent reviews of Alzheimer’s disease with vascular pathology (Pasquier et al), and Lewy body disease (McKeith et al), great updates on neuropathology (Jellinger and Bancher, Braak et al), and several worthy reviews of treatment strategies for Alzheimer’s disease including NSAIDS (Möller), antioxidants, and radical scavengers (Rösler et al). I found the review by Reisberg et al on ontogenic models in the understanding of the management of Alzheimer’s disease particularly interesting. However, the papers of original research are of much limited interest to the general reader. Although, as mentioned, the quality of illustrations is good, there is some variability in the definition of abbreviations and occasional lapses into other European languages.

Certainly, I think this book would be of value for investigators interested in the neuropathology, immunopathology, and molecular biology of Alzheimer’s disease. It would make an excellent addition to libraries as a reference text for many researchers of varied interests.

CLARE GALTON


Organ transplantation, once medical exotica, is now almost routine in the United Kingdom each year are performed cadaveric organ transplants of about 1800 kidneys (in addition to 160 live kidney donors), 700 livers, and 450 heart/lungs (UK Transplant Support Services). Basic surgical techniques were developed at the beginning of the century in canine models. Transplantation of these experiments to humans awaited safe and effective immunosuppression. Unexpectedly, various forms of immunosuppression were radiation (total body or partial lymphoid) and non-selective chemical reagents (benzene and tolune).

Then the antiproliferative drug 6-mercaptopurine (6-MP) was introduced, shortly followed by a derivative, azathioprine, with improved oral bioavailability. Combined with corticosteroids, these allowed the first human solid organ transplants to be performed: in 1954, the first lung transplant in Mississippi and liver transplant in Colorado. Then in 1967 Christian Barnard captured the world’s imagination with the first heart transplant. His technique had been modified slightly since, but the increasing success of organ transplantation rests mainly on improved immunosuppression with drugs that selectively suppress lymphocytes by inhibiting lymphokine generation (cyclosporin A, tacrolimus), signal transduction (sirolimus, rapamycin), or differentiation (15-deoxyspergualin) pathways. As a result, over the last 10 years in the United Kingdom, the 1-year survival of grafts has improved from 80% to 90% (kidney), 55% to 75% (liver), and 70% to 90% (heart/lung).

Wijdicks estimates that 10% of transplant patients have a significant neurological complication, with the commonest being neurotoxicity of immunosuppressive drugs, seizures, and failure to awaken. Yet this is the first text devoted to the neurological aspects of organ transplantation. It is therefore a timely subject. One of the excellent Blue Books Of Practical Neurological series. Twenty authors contribute (one Dutch, one Swiss, the rest American) to four chapters on the transplant procedures themselves followed by 10 chapters on neurological complications of transplantation including failure to awaken, and psychiatric, neuromuscular and demyelinating complications. Especially useful to the neurologist without much experience of transplantation are the comprehensive chapters on immunosuppressive drugs and the opportunistic infections associated with them (most commonly Listeria monocytogenes, Aspergillus fumigatus, and Cryptococcus neoformans). The peripheral nerve and plexus injuries associated with transplantation are painstakingly described; astonishingly a significant ulnar neuropathy occurs in up to 40% of kidney transplant recipients. For Cincinnati Transplant Tumour Registry has recorded information on 10 813 cancers arising de novo in organ allograft recipients worldwide and here are presented the data in the 300 of these with CNS involvement. This is one for the shelves of any neurologist involved in organ transplantation.

ALASDAIR COLES


Volume nine of the Current Issues in Neurodegenerative Disease series examines the interplay between cerebrovascular disease and dementia, particularly Alzheimer’s disease. Two hundred pages of what are essentially 20 brief review articles comprise this text, sadly written without any illustrations. Each contribution begins with the introduction to each chapter there is a certain sense of deja vu, although on the positive side each contribution is extremely well referenced.

The book is divided into five sections covering the historical concepts of vascular and Alzheimer’s dementias, the arguments for a pure vascular dementia, the role of Alzheimer’s disease in the genesis of dementia after stroke, the contribution of white matter changes on neuroimaging to dementia, and finally a short section examining practical questions such as the management of stroke in patients with dementia. Although common cognitive domains that are right, stroke and Alzheimer’s disease do seem to cross paths more often than would be expected by chance alone, and more often than can be explained by the presence of unproved angiopathy and recurrent lobar haemorrhages. Perhaps common genetic factors are responsible and here the APOE alleles are discussed. The comprehensive section on deep white matter lesions seeks to explain the connection further—and conveys the reader that there is still a lot which is not well understood. It is in this section particularly that illustrations are greatly missed. Brief mention is made of other conditions which may produce white matter changes and dementia such as CADASIL, cerebral lupus, and the primary antiphospholipid syndrome.

Some typographical errors and mistranslations detract a little further from a book which seems unlikely to appeal to most neurologists, although it will no doubt be a source of reference to those working in the field of cognitive disorders, particularly vascular dementias.

PETER MARTIN


Evolutionary biologists would probably tell us that the enchantment of stories is due to survival having been dependent on the passing of oral culture from one generation to the next. Information put in narrative form not only delights, but is easily recalled. Story also construct meaning by interweaving observation, inference, motive, and consequence in a fashion that informs future action. Our experience of the world is constructed around such narratives. They define us as individuals, family members, professionals, and cultural groups.

This book is a series of essays on psychotherapy, psychiatry, and also medicine that sees the awareness and use of narrative in clinical practice as a construct that can both
Deliver effective care as well as act as a conceptual bridge between the different disciplines. One of the great pleasures of being a doctor has always been listening to patient's stories, but the editors of this book fear that this essential art can be overtaken by dull scientific pragmatism. But in the most outstanding chapter, writes a lucid and well reasoned account of the need to search for and maintain narrative meaning in treating psychosis. This area has always been listening to patient's stories, and professionals of identifying individuals by their illness as in schizophrenia. Every psychiatric library should buy this book for this paper alone, which should be required reading for all psychiatrists.

The rest of this book is of variable quality. There is a rather prosaic essay on gender issues, and there is repetition in various chapters concerning attachment theory, a useful but overworked paradigm. However, there are two very fine accounts of narrative in psychology concerning attachment theory, a useful tool for all psychiatric trainees. A psychiatric library should buy this book for this account of the need to search for and maintain narrative meaning in treating psychosis. Every psychiatric library should buy this book for this paper alone, which should be required reading for all psychiatrists.


In a small accessible and easily digestible volume, the authors address a clinically important field. Faced with slim evidence on which to base clinical recommendations, they acknowledge that their very useful management advice “has often had to be based on practical clinical experience rather than the results of clinical trials or formal research . . . .” This disclaimer seems to have allowed them to mix evidence and opinion, limit references, and confuse the reader regarding the level of evidence. A pity, as the authors, with special expertise in this important area, have made a good start in putting together different aspects of the care of the woman with epilepsy in a practical book that is of direct interest and relevance to neurologists, obstetricians, general practitioners, and mental health professionals, and trainees.

Moving on from the general to the particular, the text, although expansive in parts, glosses over some important points. Examples include (a) which oral vitamin K preparations are considered safe in pregnancy (phytomenadione), (b) differential efficacy of various antiepileptic drugs in different syndromes versus side effect and teratogenicity profile, (c) more information on the utilization of available evidence to support the statement “no monotherapy human abnor- normality reported” with certain new antiepileptic drugs in pregnancy, (d) the need to consider a “concomitant (non-epilepsy) prevention well beyond the menopause (not only with enzyme inducing drugs such as valproate has also been implicated), (e) discussion of differences and (available formulations) between synthetic and natural progesterone, (f) strand of pregnancy when various malformations are detectable on scanning, and (g) time to closure of the neural tube (different from the 21-5s that they qualify as the “most sensitive time of the fetuses to the induction of malformations by exogenous agents.”).

Despite these comments (made with an eye on the next edition) I would recommend this book to all those involved in the care of women with epilepsy.

LINA NASHEF


Childhood Epilepsies and Brain Development is the fruit of a symposium held in 1997 to try and bridge the chasm between those working in the clinic or at the bedside and those in the laboratory. Both groups must collaborate and communicate to improve the management of children (and adults) with epilepsy. The book is essentially a collection of monographs of heterogeneous content and style and the result, perhaps not surprisingly, is that some of the component parts are better than others. This editorial section will clearly be of particular interest to those who treat children and their families. The chapters on intractable spams and Lennox-Gastaut syndrome are informative and provide some new but speculative insights into the pathogenesis of spams. However, it was surprising that severe myoclonic epilepsy of infancy did not merit a specific chapter in view of the unique electroclinical evolution and natural history of this syndrome. The crucial issue of the cognitive and behavioral sequelae of early and frequent seizures on the immature brain, which is probably of most concern to both clinicians and families, is succinctly addressed in two chapters—although a clear and consistent cause and effect relation remains to be established. The chapters covering basic neurophysiology, neurochemistry, neuroimaging, and neuropa-thology, are erudite and fascinating but at times are barely comprehensible. Further work is needed, including answering the fundamental question—why does the first seizure occur in the child?—before the clinician and basic scientist are able to talk the same language—for the benefit of the patient with epilepsy.

The concept of Childhood Epilepsies and Brain Development is innovative and commendable and ought to interest the many people, with further sections on the management of seizures and their sequelae. The last chapter is probably of most concern to both clinicians and families, is succinctly addressed in two chapters—although a clear and consistent cause and effect relation remains to be established. The chapters covering basic neurophysiology, neurochemistry, neuroimaging, and neuropathology, are erudite and fascinating but at times are barely comprehensible. Further work is needed, including answering the fundamental question—why does the first seizure occur in the child?—before the clinician and basic scientist are able to talk the same language—for the benefit of the patient with epilepsy.

The book is divided into sections dealing with the treatment of broad groups of clinical disorders—for example, psychosis—special patient populations—for example, elderly people, with further sections on the management of emergencies and the adverse effects of psychotropic drugs. Much of the information is laid out in tabular form. It could become an indispensable resource for a busy on call situation or house officer (the dimensions would fit comfortably into the pocket of a clinical white coat, were they still to be worn) but more senior clinicians will find plenty of use for it in the clinic. It does not aim at an at-risk condition, but provides a useful list of references.

There are a few cavils. The section on treatment of anxiety is skimpy (one and a half pages) compared with say the treatment of affective illness (22 pages) or substance misuse (15 pages). The brevity is only partly explained by the undeveloped state of that particular area of psychopharmacology. Sections on new formulations of antipsychotics and indications for lumbar puncture and indications for EEG seem to have been displaced from some other primer for busy junior doctors. There is no index.

These quibbles apart, prescribing guidelines can be wholeheartedly recommended.

BRIAN TOONE


The Maudsley prescribing guidelines are produced each year for a local readership, but this, the fifth edition, is the first to go public. The authors and principal contributors, a mixture of pharmacists and psychiatrists with an interest and background in clinical psychopharmacology, are to be complimented on producing a guide of manageable size and ready accessibility.

The book is divided into sections dealing with the treatment of broad groups of clinical disorders—for example, psychosis—special patient populations—for example, elderly people, with further sections on the management of emergencies and the adverse effects of psychotropic drugs. Much of the information is laid out in tabular form. It could become an indispensable resource for a busy on call situation or house officer (the dimensions would fit comfortably into the pocket of a clinical white coat, were they still to be worn) but more senior clinicians will find plenty of use for it in the clinic. It does not aim at an at-risk condition, but provides a useful list of references.

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These quibbles apart, prescribing guidelines can be wholeheartedly recommended.

BRIAN TOONE


Difficult clinical problems in psychiatry come in many forms. Diagnosis often causes difficulty, particularly in cases which demand some assessment of the role of physical illness in symptom formation. Perhaps for most psychiatrists practising in community settings risk assessment comes high on their list of concerns. Unsurprisingly, given the psychopharmacological expertise of the editors, this book is particularly interested in treatment resistance. The first 6 chapters give excellent reviews of the management of clinically relevant topics—for example, refractory schizophrenia or the difficult panic patient. The emphasis is very much on psychopharmacological management.

The second half of the book is more of a mixed bag, both in terms of the areas covered and the quality of the chapters. The 6 chapters covering all aspects of the assessment and management of anorexia nervosa and chronic fatigue are followed by a thorough revision of the pharmacological management of substance misuse. Then come two weak chapters on behavioural disturbances in old age and the violent patient in the community. This last chapter will be of particular interest to community psychiatrists and those training. What I would recommend because some aspects of the practical management of violence are missing—for example, a documented risk-benefit analysis, good failsafe communication, or deciding when to detain. One of the last chapters is a very good account of the management of hyperactivity in childhood, with good practical advice on the use of methyphenidate.

Apart from the chapters on chronic fatigue and the treatment of tardive dyskinesia there is little in this book which is of immediate interest to neurologists. However general psychiatrists wishing to improve their prescribing skills will find this book useful.
Frontal release signs in older people with peripheral vascular disease

RAHUL RAO

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