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Saccadic Eye Movements Are Related to Turning Performance in Parkinson Disease

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1 Abstract

Background. Persons with Parkinson disease (PD) experience difficulty turning, leading to 2 freezing of gait and falls. We hypothesized that saccade dysfunction may relate to turning 3 4 impairments, as turns are normally initiated with a saccade. Objective. Determine whether saccades are impaired during turns in PD and if characteristics of the turn-initiating saccade are 5 predictive of ensuing turn performance. Methods. 23 persons with PD off medication and 19 6 controls performed 90 and 180 degree in-place turns to the right and left. Body segment 7 rotations were measured using 3-D motion capture and oculomotor data were captured using a 8 head-mounted eye tracking system and electrooculography. Total number of saccades and the 9 amplitude, velocity, and timing of the first saccade were determined. *Results*. Turn performance 10 (turn duration, number of steps to turn) was impaired in PD (p<0.05). PD performed more 11 12 saccades, and the velocity and timing of the first saccade was impaired for both turn amplitudes (p<0.05). Amplitude of the first saccade was decreased in PD during 180 degree turns. Turn 13 duration correlated with oculomotor function. Characteristics of the first saccade explained 48% 14 and 58% of the variance in turn duration for 90 and 180 degree turns, respectively. Conclusions. 15 Turning performance is impaired in PD and may be influenced by saccade dysfunction. An 16 association between saccade function and turning performance may be indicative of the key role 17 of saccades in initiating proper turning kinematics. Future work should focus on improving 18 saccade performance during functional tasks and testing the effects of therapeutic interventions 19 20 on related outcomes.

21 **Keywords:** Parkinson Disease, Saccades, Oculomotor Dysfunction, Gait, Turning

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24 INTRODUCTION

Parkinson disease (PD) is a progressive neurodegenerative disease that is associated with 25 a reduction in mobility, with problems that include difficulty turning. Turning difficulties can 26 lead to freezing of gait (FOG), falls, fear of falling, and social withdrawal.¹⁻³ Falls that occur 27 during turning are eight times more likely to result in hip fracture than falls during straight line 28 walking.⁴ Furthermore, individuals with PD have a 3.2 fold greater risk of hip fracture than age-29 matched individuals without PD.⁵ In addition to the large personal cost of turning difficulties, 30 hip fractures represent a substantial financial burden to society, with the cost of hip fracture care 31 in individuals with PD totaling approximately \$192 million per year in the United States.^{5,6} 32 Studies focusing on turning have noted that individuals with PD require more steps and 33 take longer to complete a turn than healthy controls.⁷⁻¹¹ Those with PD who report turning 34 difficulty also have a higher incidence of freezing of gait and falls.^{10,12} Furthermore, the timing 35 of segmental rotations during turn initiation is altered in PD. This has been termed "en bloc" 36 turning and is characterized by the near simultaneous rotation of the head, trunk, and pelvis and 37 reduced relative rotations between adjacent segments.^{9,13-15} Other measures of poor turn quality 38 have been observed in those with PD including a wider turn arc¹⁶, narrowed step width^{11,16,17}, 39 and higher variation in step duration compared with controls.¹⁶ 40

It is evident that visual information plays an important role in the control of locomotion and turning. Clear differences in gaze behavior and stepping performance have been demonstrated between older adult fallers and non-fallers.¹⁸ In addition, training of eye movements has been shown to improve locomotor performance in individuals with cerebellar damage.¹⁹ Several studies in healthy individuals have shown that the eyes participate in a topdown rotation sequence such that the eyes are the first to turn, followed by the head, trunk, and

then the feet.²⁰⁻²³ The initial saccade during a turn, in combination with subsequent head 47 movements, provides a shift of gaze to a position aligned with the direction of travel. Gaze shifts 48 precede shifts in center of mass (COM) trajectory during turning and unexpected perturbations of 49 gaze cause delays in COM movement to steer the body along the desired trajectory.²⁴ 50 While eye movements have been measured in healthy adults during turning tasks, it is 51 unclear how eye movements relate to turning performance in individuals with PD. During head-52 fixed tasks, saccadic eye movements have been shown to be abnormal in those with PD, 53 including prolonged fixation times, bradykinesia, and akinesia during rapid alternating gaze 54 shifts between two fixed targets.²⁵ Several more recent studies have demonstrated deficits in 55 control of voluntary saccades in people with PD, consistently noting that saccades are slower and 56 smaller than those of control subjects.²⁶⁻³⁰ Briand et al²⁹ reviewed a series of 15 studies of 57 voluntary saccades and noted that all but one of these studies reported voluntary saccade 58 performance inferior to that of control subjects in individuals with PD. Therefore, we 59 hypothesize that saccadic eye movements performed during turns are also likely abnormal and 60 may contribute to impaired turn performance. A disruption of the normal top-down rotation 61 sequence by poor saccade timing or decreased saccade amplitude may contribute to the altered 62 turning kinematics reported in those with PD. Hence, the purposes of this study were to 63 determine whether saccadic eye movements during turning are impaired in individuals with PD 64 and to determine if characteristics of the saccade that initiates a turn are predictive of ensuing 65 turn performance. 66

67 METHODS

68 **Participants**

Twenty-three individuals with idiopathic PD and 19 age- and gender-matched controls 69 participated in this investigation. Individuals with PD were recruited from a database of patients 70 from Washington University School of Medicine's (WUSM) Movement Disorders Center. 71 72 Control participants were recruited from the Volunteers for Health Database, posted flyers, and other healthy volunteer databases associated with WUSM. All subjects met the following 73 inclusion criteria: aged 30 years or older, normal central (except for PD in the PD group) and 74 peripheral neurological function, able to stand independently for at least 30 minutes and walk 75 independently without an assistive device, no history of vestibular disease and no evidence or 76 history of dementia. Exclusionary criteria included: any serious medical condition other than 77 PD, use of neuroleptic or other dopamine-blocking drug, use of drug that might affect balance 78 such as benzodiazepines, evidence of abnormality on brain imaging (previously done for clinical 79 80 evaluations-not part of this research), history or evidence of other neurological deficit, such as previous stroke or muscle disease, and history or evidence of orthopedic, muscular, or 81 psychological problem that may affect task performance during the study. Additionally, 82 participants with PD were included based on a diagnosis of "definite PD" by a board certified 83 neurologist, as previously described by Racette et al. (1999) based upon established criteria 84 (Calne et al. 1992, Hughes et al. 1992) and were excluded if they had received surgical 85 management of PD (e.g. pallidotomy or deep brain stimulation). All subjects gave informed 86 consent to perform experimental procedures approved by the Human Research Protection Office 87 at WUSM. 88

89 Experimental Procedures

All study procedures were performed in the Locomotor Control Laboratory at WUSM.
Participants with PD were tested OFF medication, i.e. after a 12-hour withdrawal of all anti-

Parkinson medications. Before testing procedures commenced, the Movement Disorder Society
Unified Parkinson's Disease Rating Scale (MDS-UPDRS) Motor Subscale III was administered
according to Goetz et al³¹ by a trained rater. The MDS-UPDRS-III is a measure of severity of PD
motor symptoms, as well as physical disability, and includes measures of rigidity, gait, tremor,
hand/arm and leg movements (bradykinesia), speech, and facial expressions. The modified
Hoehn and Yahr scale also was used to evaluate disease severity in PD.³²

During the experimental protocol, participants completed in-place turns of 90 degrees and 98 180 degrees amplitude. Instructions were given to perform the turns in a comfortable and normal 99 fashion. No specific auditory or visual cues were provided to cue turn onset or completion other 100 than directing subjects to "turn 90 degrees to face the wall beside you" or "turn 180 degrees to 101 face the wall behind you", accordingly. Participants were instructed to begin the movement 102 103 anytime after receiving the turn direction instruction of left or right for the given trial. Turns were completed to both the right and left in randomized order and all 90° turns were completed 104 prior to beginning the block of 180° turns. Participants completed a minimum of 5 turns in each 105 106 direction. Data quality was visually monitored in real time and additional turns were completed as needed to insure an adequate number of quality trials for analysis. 107

Full body kinematic data were captured using an eight camera, passive marker, 3dimensional, high –resolution motion capture system (Motion Analysis Corporation, Santa Rosa, CA) sampling at 100 Hz in Cortex software (Motion Analysis Corporation, Santa Rosa, CA). Thirty-eight retro-reflective markers were positioned on the head (top of head, back of head, left ear, right ear), trunk (left and right acromion, right scapula, sternal notch, xyphoid process, 7th cervical vertebra, 12th thoracic vertebra), pelvis (left and right anterior superior iliac spine, left and right posterior superior iliac spine, sacrum), both legs (greater trochanter, anterior thigh, medial and lateral femoral condyle, tibial tuberosity, front of shank, medial and lateral malleolus)
and both feet (calcaneus, navicular, distal 2nd metatarsal). Ocuolmotor data were captured using a
head-mounted infrared binocular eye tracking system (Applied Sciences Laboratory, Bedford,
Ma) and electrooculography (EOG). Oculomotor data were captured synchronously at 1000Hz
on the same PC workstation with kinematic data in Cortex software.

120 Data Processing

Individual kinematic marker data and analog data were filtered using 4th order low-pass 121 Butterworth filters. Marker data were filtered in Cortex with a cut-off frequency of 6 Hz while 122 analog data were filtered in MotionMonitor (Innsport, Chicago, IL) with a cut-off frequency of 123 20 Hz. Global and segment coordinate systems were defined in MotionMonitor with the positive 124 X-axis pointing anteriorly, positive Y-axis pointing to the left, and positive Z-axis pointing 125 126 upward vertically. Rotations of the head, trunk, pelvis, and feet about global Z were extracted using a Z-X-Y Euler sequence. Subsequently, kinematic angle data and filtered analog data were 127 exported for further processing in custom written MATLAB software (The Mathworks, Inc, 128 129 Natick, MA).

Time of onset for segment rotations (relative to the global coordinate system) was 130 determined by identifying the first frame at which the rotation reached five degrees above 131 baseline. Similar criteria were used to identify turn offset, defined as the frame at which the 132 rotation came within five degrees of maximal, final position. Eye tracker and EOG data were 133 used to identify and measure saccades occurring just prior to and during turn performance. 134 Saccades were identified visually and later confirmed to be true saccades if the maximum 135 velocity of the eye movement exceeded 30 degrees/sec.^{33,34} Onsets and offsets of the first 136 saccade associated with each turn were identified visually. Using these time points, saccade 137

amplitude, peak velocity, and timing of the first saccade relative to head and foot rotations were 138 139 calculated. Example trials are shown for an individual with PD and a control in Figure 1. Individual trials were excluded from analysis if eye position or body segment rotations 140 about the global Z-axis were not static for at least 1000ms prior to turn onset. Trials were also 141 excluded if artifacts in oculomotor data due to blinks, prolonged closure of evelids, or other 142 factors precluded measurement of the initial saccade. Remaining trials within a condition (90 or 143 180 degrees) were averaged to obtain a single data point for each subject. Left and right turns 144 were combined for analysis as turn performance did not differ between leftward and rightward 145 146 turns.

147 **Data Analysis**

Independent Student's t-tests were used to compare between-group differences in turn 148 149 performance and oculomotor performance during both 90 and 180 degree turns. Our primary variables of interest were the amplitude and velocity of the saccade initiating the turn, the total 150 number of saccades performed during the turn, and the timing of the first saccade relative to 151 152 onsets of head and foot rotations. The latencies between the first saccade and head/foot rotations were normalized to the duration of the first gait cycle and are reported as a percentage of the first 153 gait cycle time. We also employed a linear regression model with turn duration as the dependent 154 variable and number of saccades, initial saccade velocity and normalized timing of the saccade 155 relative to turn onset as the independent variables to identify the amount of variance in turn 156 performance accounted for by characteristics the saccade initiating the turn. Saccade amplitude 157 and the normalized timing of the saccade relative to head rotation onset were not included in the 158 model as they were highly correlated with the included variables. The criterion for statistical 159 160 significance was set at p < 0.05.

161 **RESULTS**

Demographic data are displayed in Table 1. Data from three participants included in the 90 degree turn analysis could not be included in the analysis for the 180 degree turn due to poor oculomotor data quality. Conversely, one participant was included in the 180 turn analysis but omitted from the 90 degree analysis for similar reasons. Regardless of turn type, age did not differ between PD and controls.

Turn performance was impaired in PD compared with controls, with both 90 and 180 167 degree turns requiring more steps (p<0.05) and a greater time to complete (p<0.01). PD also 168 performed a greater number of saccades during their turns, and the peak velocity of the initial 169 saccade was slower in PD for both 90 and 180 degree turns (p < 0.01). The amplitude of the 170 initial saccade was less in PD than in controls for 90 degree turns only (p<0.01). The normalized 171 latency between start of the first saccade and start of the first step (Norm E-F Index) was 172 different between groups, with PD performing the first saccade earlier relative to the onset of 173 foot rotation (<0.05, Table 2). 174

175 The number of saccades, initial saccade amplitude, initial saccade velocity, and Norm E-F Index were all significantly correlated with turn duration (Figure 2). Turn duration, which was 176 highly correlated with the number of steps required to turn, was used as the dependent variable 177 representing turn performance in our regression analysis. The linear regression model, which 178 included both PD and controls, explained a significant amount of the variance in turn duration 179 for both 90 degree (R^2 = .481, F(3,27)=11.4, p < .001) and 180 degree (R^2 = .578, F(3,25) = 16.0, 180 p < .001) turns. Table 3 reports the unstandardized (B) and standardized (β) regression 181 coefficients for these models. 182

183 Comparing freezers and non-freezers, turn duration and number of steps were greater in subjects who reported freezing of gait at least once per week on item 3 of the FOG questionnaire 184 (p<0.05). Mean values for initial saccade velocity and Norm E-F Index differed between 185 freezers and non-freezers, but these comparisons did not reach statistical significance. Despite 186 the lack of statistical significance, the effect sizes, measured using Cohen's d, were moderate to 187 large. Effect size for saccade velocity between freezers and non-freezers equaled 0.91 for 90 188 degree turns and 0.52 for 180 degree turns. Norm E-F Index effect sizes were 0.8 for 90 degrees 189 turns and 0.86 for 180 degree turns. Number of saccades and initial saccade amplitude were 190 similar between freezers and non-freezers. Data comparing freezers and non-freezers is presented 191 in Table 4. 192

193

194 **DISCUSSION**

This study sought to determine whether saccadic eye movements performed during 195 turning are impaired in individuals with PD and to determine if characteristics of the saccade that 196 197 initiates a turn are predictive of ensuing turn performance. In confirmation of our hypotheses, saccadic eye movements were impaired during turning in persons with PD and these 198 impairments were related to turning dysfunction. Individuals with PD used a greater number of 199 saccades to complete both 90 and 180 degree turns, the initial saccade was both smaller (180 200 degrees only) and slower than that of controls, and the timing of the initial saccade relative to the 201 turn onset was altered in those with PD. Furthermore, turn performance was impaired in persons 202 with PD and approximately 50% of the variance in turn performance was explained by saccade 203 performance across all participants. Differences in saccade performance between the 90 and 180 204 205 degree turns were largely predictable. The 180 degree turns required approximately twice as

many saccades as the 90 degree turns and the amplitude of the initial saccade was similar
between turn magnitudes for both groups. This suggests that the size of the turn-initiating
saccade is constant for turns of 90 degrees and larger, and that simply more saccades are
performed for large turns. Similarly, the delay between the first saccade and turn onset did not
differ between the two turn magnitudes.

Previous research widely demonstrates that voluntary saccade performance is impaired in 211 persons with PD.²⁵⁻³⁰ These studies, however, have focused only on simple head-fixed tasks or 212 on saccades performed in conjunction with head movements from a seated position. Studying the 213 oculomotor system using simple saccade paradigms has allowed researchers to better understand 214 basal ganglia disorders using a simple, predictable, and well understood motor system. However, 215 little information has been gathered from such studies regarding the implications of oculomotor 216 217 impairments on functional activities in those with PD. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to report saccade performance during a more complex, functional task in people with 218 PD. Our novel findings support previous work that voluntary saccades are impaired in PD and 219 220 lend support to the idea that the eyes play a key role in turning. The turning sequence has been characterized in healthy controls and consists of a top-down rotation sequence led by the eyes 221 and followed by rotations of the head, trunk, pelvis, and feet.²⁰⁻²³ In individuals with PD this 222 sequence is impaired, characterized by smaller intersegmental rotations and altered timing of 223 segment rotations.^{9,13,14} The present study reveals that the turning sequence in PD is also 224 characterized by a longer than normal delay between the first saccade and the initiation of the 225 gait cycle, as well as a smaller and slower saccade at the beginning of the turn. Functionally, this 226 manifests in reduced turn performance. As evidenced by the strong correlations between saccade 227 228 performance (the number of saccades, saccade velocity, and saccade timing) and turn

performance (number of steps and turn duration), the degree of oculomotor impairment mayimpact turn quality.

Our finding of a greater delay between the initial saccade and the rest of the turning 231 232 sequence in the PD group is contrary to our hypothesis. Expanding the PD en-bloc turning phenomenon to include eye movements, one would expect the eyes to rotate more in sync with 233 the head, trunk and feet, as opposed to our observation of a longer latency between the eyes and 234 feet. Our PD group actually performed the first saccade much earlier in the rotation sequence 235 than did the controls, and the longer latencies were unexpectedly associated with a longer turn 236 duration and more steps. This finding may be explained by a generalized bradykinesia that 237 affects both the motor and oculomotor systems. While the basal ganglia are often described as 238 having distinct loops for oculomotor and motor control, recent evidence suggests an overlap in 239 240 control of both eye and limb movements by the subthalamic nucleus (STN), as neurons in the STN respond to both voluntary saccades and limb movements.³⁵ Therefore, the greater delay 241 between eye movement and turn onset seen in PD may be the result of a dysfunctional common 242 243 motor pathway responsible for an overall bradykinetic turn sequence. Based on this, deep brain stimulation (DBS) may prove beneficial for improving turn performance in PD by enhancing 244 both eye and limb movements. Levodopa therapy, the most common treatment for those with 245 PD, provides minimal improvement in both turn performance and voluntary saccade 246 performance.^{36,37} However, DBS of the STN in persons with PD has shown considerable 247 efficacy in improving motor performance, including gait and performance of voluntary and 248 reflexive saccades.³⁸⁻⁴⁰. However, no studies to date have examined the effect of DBS on turn 249 performance, nor the effect of DBS on saccade function during functional tasks. Therefore, 250

future work should target the effects of STN-DBS on turn performance and associatedoculomotor performance.

Studies extending beyond PD corroborate a relationship between oculomotor dysfunction 253 254 and gait impairments; a relationship that appears to be related to risk of falling in a range of populations. In a study comparing elderly individuals who were at high risk for falling with 255 those at low risk for falling, a longer delay between horizontal saccade initiation and initiation of 256 footlift was observed in the high-risk group during a precise walking task.⁴¹ Differences in gaze 257 behavior have also been shown between adult fallers and non-fallers.¹⁸ In patients with 258 progressive supranuclear palsy (PSP), those with more severe gaze palsy displayed an altered 259 stepping pattern when navigating obstacles, placing them at higher risk for trips and falls.⁴² In 260 our study, subjects who reported FOG at least once per week displayed turn performance deficits 261 262 and altered saccade timing and velocity, although the comparison of oculomotor measures failed 263 to reach statistical significance, possible due to the small group sizes. Disease severity (MDS-UPDRS III) and duration were not different between freezers and non-freezers, illustrating that 264 FOG is a specific pathology not present in all PD patients regardless of disease stage or severity.² 265 While we did not obtain fall history records in this study, FOG has been shown to be a risk factor 266 for falling, and thus the freezers in our study likely represent a sample of patients at higher risk 267 for falls and fall-related injuries. Taken together, our study and those of other pathological 268 populations suggest a relationship between fall risk and gait/oculomotor function. Therefore, 269 rehabilitation strategies aimed at decreasing the risk of falls during ambulation, and in particular 270 during turning, are important. 271

Cueing has received considerable attention over the past decade as a means of improving
temporal and spatial parameters of gait in persons with PD. Rhythmic auditory, visual, and

attentional cues have been shown to improve stride length and gait velocity during straight 274 walking.⁴³⁻⁴⁶ However, the ability of cues to improve turning performance is less well 275 understood. When rhythmic auditory cues were used during a U-turn task, only step time 276 variability was improved among a number of turn performance parameters.¹⁶ In contrast, another 277 study found that rhythmic auditory and somatosensory cues improved turn time in a functional 278 task (carrying a tray).⁴⁷ Clearly, more work is necessary to determine the effect of cues on 279 turning, and based on the importance of oculomotor function during turning, using cues to 280 promote a more appropriate oculomotor strategy during turns should be of interest. 281 282

283 Limitations

One limitation of this study is that saccades were measured using two separate 284 285 measurement systems. The infrared binocular eye tracking system served as our primary measurement tool, with EOG serving a secondary role. Due to the technical nature of measuring 286 pupil and corneal reflections using the infrared system, quality infrared data could not be 287 obtained from all participants. In such cases, EOG data were used for analysis. To verify 288 agreement between these two measurement systems, infrared and EOG data were compared 289 using data from participants for whom we had both data sets. When comparing the timing, 290 amplitude, and velocity of the initial saccade, values obtained from the two systems compared 291 exceptionally well. Therefore, the authors felt confident in pooling data obtained from either 292 measurement system. Another limitation of this study is that measurement occurred in a 293 laboratory setting and thus participants were aware that their performance was being monitored. 294 Hence, it is possible that participants' oculomotor and turning performance may have differed 295 296 from their usual performance in a more natural setting. The authors think, however, that such

effects are minimal and would have been experienced similarly by both groups, thus notdetracting for our findings.

299

300 Conclusions and Future Directions

It is evident that turning difficulty is a primary trigger for freezing and falls in PD, and 301 our study indicates that impaired voluntary saccades may contribute significantly to this 302 problem. Rehabilitative strategies might consider focusing on cueing persons with PD to initiate 303 turns with a more appropriate top-down rotation sequence, initiated by a large amplitude saccade 304 prior to commencing the gait cycle. Accordingly, future research should be directed towards 305 studying the effects of cueing and practice on the ability to improve saccade performance during 306 turns, and whether such improvements offer meaningful improvements in turn performance and 307 308 related fall risk. Additionally, future work may assess the effects of therapeutic interventions (e.g. deep brain stimulation) on such variables. 309

310

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475 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

Figure 1. Representative data from individual turn trials showing eye, head, and foot rotations in the horizontal plane.

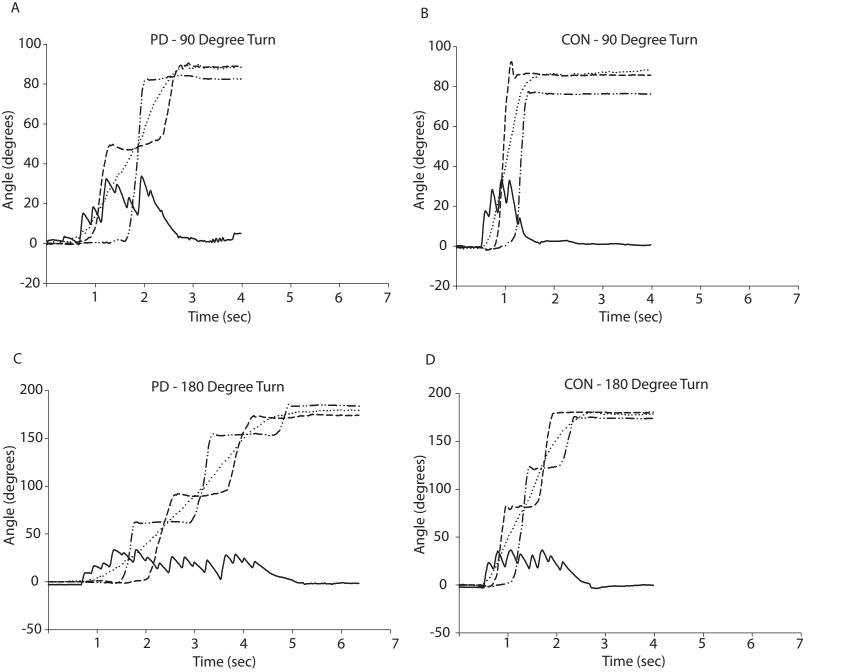
478 Panel A: Representative 90 degree turn performed by an individual with PD. The subject performed 8 saccades of varying amplitudes during the turn, and required 3 steps to complete the 479 turn. Panel B: Representative 90 degree turn performed by a healthy control. The subject 480 performed only 5 saccades during the turn and required only 2 steps and less time to complete 481 the turn than the individual with PD. Panel C: Representative 180 degree turn performed by an 482 individual with PD. The subject performed 15 saccades of varying amplitudes during the turn, 483 and required 5 steps to complete the turn. Panel D: Representative 180 degree turn performed 484 by a healthy control. The subject performed 8 saccades of more consistent amplitude than those 485 performed by the individual with PD, and required only 4 steps and less time to complete the 486 turn than the individual with PD. 487

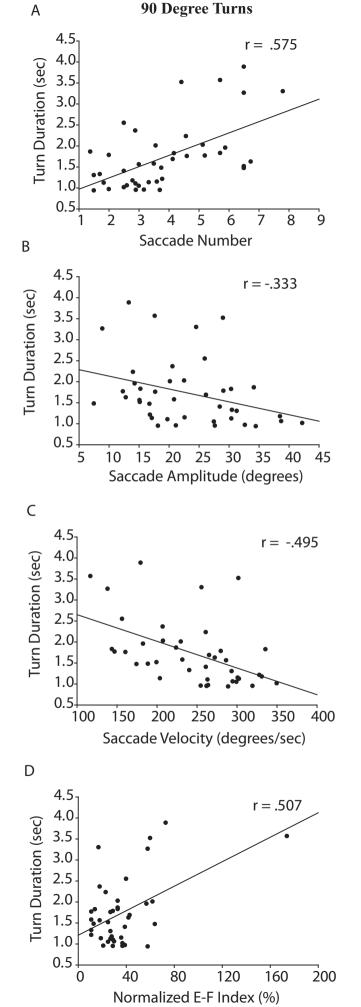
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Figure 2. Correlations between turn duration and various parameters of saccade performance.

Correlations include all subjects from both the PD and control groups, with Pearson correlation
coefficients shown in top right of each panel. The left column shows correlations of saccade
number (A), amplitude of the first saccade (B), velocity of the first saccade (C), and normalized
timing of the first saccade relative to the first step (D) for 90 degree turns. The right column (EH) shows the same correlations for 180 degree turns.

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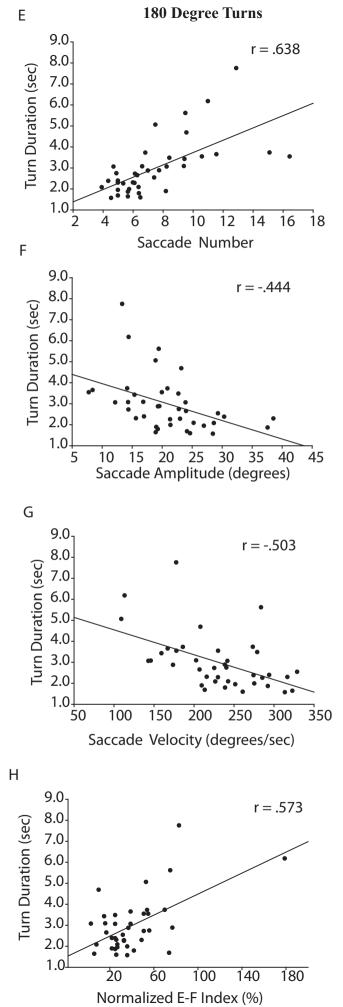


Table 1. Subject Demographics

	PD (90° turns)	PD (180° turns)	Controls
Age (years)	68.7 ± 10.2	68.6 ± 10.8	68.8 ± 11.4
Male/Female	14/8	13/7	11/8
PD Characteristics			
Disease Duration (years)	7.4 ± 5.8	6.8 ± 5.6	
Hoehn & Yahr Stage	2.3 ± 0.4	2.3 ± 0.4	
(# in each stage)	Stage $1 = 1$	Stage $1 = 1$	
	Stage $2=9$	Stage $2=7$	
	Stage $2.5 = 10$	Stage $2.5 = 10$	
	Stage $3 = 2$	Stage $3 = 2$	
Freezing of Gait Score	5.7 ± 4.8	5.8 ± 5.0	
No. Freezers (FOG $3 \ge 2$)	8	8	
MDS-UPDRS III Score	40.1 ± 11.9	38.7 ± 11.5	

Values are means \pm standard deviations.

Table 2. Turn Performance and Oculomotor Performance During 90 and 180 Degree Turns

	90°	Turns	3	180°	Turn	S
Measure	PD		Controls	PD		Controls
# of Steps	4.3 ± 2.6	*	2.7 ± 0.8	7.7 ± 5.1	*	4.5 ± 0.9
Turn Duration (seconds)	2.1 ± 0.8	ŧ	1.4 ± 0.5	3.6 ± 1.5	Ť	2.4 ± 0.7
# of Saccades	4.5 ± 1.7	ŧ	3.1 ± 1.4	8.9 ± 3.2	ţ	6.0 ± 1.5
First Saccade Amplitude (degrees)	20.6 ± 8.1		25.7 ± 8.4	17.4 ± 4.6	†	24.7 ± 6.7
First Saccade Velocity (deg/sec)	219.0 ± 65.6	†	273.1 ± 41.1	206.7 ± 61.2	†	255.3 ± 39.5
Norm E-H Index (% of 1 st gait cycle)	19.4 ± 19.3		11.5 ± 6.1	26.8 ± 25.0	*	13.4 ± 7.2
Norm E-F Index (% of 1 st gait cycle)	45.4 ± 33.9	*	25.4 ± 9.7	52.3 ± 38.1	*	28.1 ± 11.5

Values are means \pm standard deviations.

* Significantly different between groups, p < 0.05† Significantly different between groups, p < 0.01

		В	SE (B)	β	р
90° Turns	# Saccades	18.24	6.40	.392	.007
	Saccade Velocity	232	.18	180	.211
	Norm E-F Index	94.59	36.93	.329	.015
180 ° Turns	# Saccades	18.72	5.79	.407	.003
	Saccade Velocity	283	.28	248	.048
	Norm E-F Index	147.01	53.01	.337	.009

Table 3. Results of Linear Regression Analysis

90° Turns, $R^2 = .481$ 180° Turns, $R^2 = .578$

Table 4. Comparison of Freezers and Non-Freezers

	90° Т	urns	180° Turns		
	Freezers (n=8)	Non-Freezers (n=14)	Freezers (n=8)	Non-Freezers (n=12)	
Disease Duration	8.6 ± 7.0	6.7 ± 5.2	8.3 ± 6.7	5.8 ± 4.8	
MDS-UPDRS III Score	40.1 ± 13.1	40.1 ± 11.7	39.9 ± 12.9	37.8 ± 11.0	
# Saccades	4.5 ± 2.0	4.6 ± 1.6	9.1 ± 2.6	8.8 ± 3.7	
Saccade Amplitude (degrees)	20.6 ± 8.5	20.7 ± 8.2	18.2 ± 3.4	16.9 ± 5.4	
Saccade Velocity (deg/sec)	183.8 ± 59.8	239.2 ± 61.7	187.7 ± 61.5	219.4 ± 60.2	
Norm E-F Index	61.1 ± 49.0	36.4 ± 18.2	70.8 ± 48.1	40.0 ± 24.8	
Total Steps	6.4 ± 3.6 *	3.1 ± 0.5	11.1 ± 6.7 *	5.4 ± 1.1	
Turn Duration (seconds)	2.8 ± 8.1 †	1.6 ± 0.4	4.7 ±1.7 *	$2.8 \pm .77$	

Values are means \pm standard deviations.

*Significantly different between groups, $p < 0.05\ \dagger$ Significantly different between groups, p < 0.05